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An Examination of Civic Engagement Behaviors Among Members of Social and Cultural Fraternities and Sororities

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AN EXAMINATION OF CIVIC ENGAGEMENT BEHAVIORS AMONG MEMBERS
OF SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FRATERNITIES AND SORORITIES

A Dissertation
Presented to
The Faculty of the Educational Leadership Doctoral Program
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Doctor of Education

By
Gary Gribble Wiser, Jr.

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AN EXAMINATION OF CIVIC ENGAGEMENT BEHAVIORS AMONG MEMBERS
OF SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FRATERNITIES AND SORORITIES

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I dedicate this dissertation to the memory of my grandfather, Dr. C. Wymer Wiser. I will

always strive to be the type of educator, advisor, and mentor he was to his students.

faculty for making a strong commitment to studying abroad. Without their assistance, I would have never been able to travel to France for Dr. Capps' French Organizations and Culture class. Also, if it were not for the Lester and Dorothy Reeves Endowed Fellowship Fund, I would not have been able to obtain the data for my study. Thank you for investing in doctoral students' research.

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AN EXAMINATION OF CIVIC ENGAGEMENT BEHAVIORS AMONG MEMBERS OF SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FRATERNITIES AND SORORITIES

Gary Gribble Wiser, Jr.   May 2013   127 Pages

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The integration of civic engagement learning outcomes into institutional missions has been a core focus of college and university presidents since the beginning of the 21st century. Civic engagement is a core value of fraternities and sororities. However, social organizations sponsor more philanthropic-based projects, whereas cultural organizations promote more hands-on community service projects with a social justice focus. The purpose of this study was to analyze the differences in civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The central research question for this study was: Are there significant differences as measured by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) in civic engagement knowledge, skills, and dispositions among members of social versus cultural fraternities and sororities?

The design for this research was a non-experimental quantitative study based on ex post facto or casual-comparative research. The population for this study consisted of 12,857 participants of the 2009 administration of the MSL who identified as a member of either a social or cultural fraternity or sorority. The scales used for this study were the SRLS Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. A two-way ANOVA was performed to determine if there were significant differences in mean scores for the three scales based on gender, membership, and the interaction of the variables. Post hoc testing was also conducted to determine

effect size of the mean scores and simple effects of the interaction of gender and membership.

The data analysis procedures revealed significant differences in gender and membership type main effects or gender X membership type interaction effects for each question in the SRLS Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. However, post-hoc testing indicated that gender and membership type were not strong enough predictors of civic engagement behaviors. Additional research should be conducted to determine additional factors that predict civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Civic engagement is defined by the Coalition for Civic Engagement and Learning as "acting upon a heightened sense of responsibility to one's community" (Jacoby & Associates, 2009, p. 9). A main goal of colleges and universities is to "prepare individuals personally and socially for effective and civil participation in society" (Strayhorn, 2008, p. 1). Research has indicated that civic engagement positively affects the college student experience. Bringle and Steinberg (2010) found that civic engagement increased students' knowledge of contemporary social issues, along with their listening and communication skills. Undergraduate participation in service initiatives greatly influenced students' academic skills, personal development, and civic agency (Astin & Sax, 1998). Service also positively affected students' values for civic activism and diversity, leadership efficacy, and desire to serve after graduation (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000). However, citizenship has ranked as the lowest out of the seven domains every year the University Learning Outcomes Assessment (UniLOA) has been administered (Barrar & Fredrick, 2009).

At the beginning of the 21st century, college and university presidents called for a greater integration of civic engagement outcomes into institutional missions and an evaluation of higher education's "public purposes and its commitments to the democratic ideal" in the *President's Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education* (Campus Compact, 2000, p. 2). The presidents admitted that, while students were volunteering in greater numbers, they were not fully adopting the responsibilities of being active and involved citizens within their communities as a result of their service

participation. According to their challenge, if institutions taught civic engagement principles in curricular and co-curricular formats, students would be better citizens and be more prepared to respond to the critical issues affecting their communities.   More recently, The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement (2012) reaffirmed this call for a re-examination of higher education's role in civic engagement education in *A Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy's Future.* The organization stated, "The more civic-oriented that colleges and universities become, the greater their overall capacity to spur local and global economic vitality, social and political well-being, and collective action to address public problems" (p. 2).

Not only has the promotion of civic engagement been lauded by leaders within higher education, but the issue also has been put to the forefront of elementary and secondary education policies because students gain experience with 21st century skills such as critical thinking, comprehension of news and current events through a variety of media, and a strong work ethic (Gould, Hall Jamison, Levine, McConnell, & Smith., 2011). In order to be a successful citizen in the 21st century, students must be exposed to programs that enhance their civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions. The National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement (2012) noted that to be successful in producing more engaged citizens, programs should be based on the three best instructional methods which are intergroup and deliberative dialogue, service learning, and collective civic problem solving. Figure 1 displays the learning outcomes associated with the 21st century knowledge, skills, and dispositions.

Knowledge
- Familiarity with key democratic texts and universal democratic principles, and with selected debates - in US and other societies - concerning their applications
- Historical and sociological understanding of several democratic movements, both US and abroad
- Understanding one's sources of identity and their influence on civic values, assumptions, and responsibilities to a wider public
- Knowledge of diverse cultures, histories, values, and contestations that have shaped US and other world societies
- Exposure to multiple religious traditions and to alternative views about the relation between religion and government
- Knowledge of the political systems that frame constitutional democracies and of political levers for influencing change

Skills
- Critical inquiry, analysis, and reasoning
- Quantitative reasoning
- Gathering and evaluating multiple sources of evidence
- Seeking, engaging, and being informed by multiple perspectives
- Written, oral, and multi-media communication
- Deliberation and bridge building across differences
- Collaborative decision making
- Ability to communicate in multiple languages

Values
- Respect for freedom and human dignity
- Empathy
- Open-mindedness
- Tolerance
- Justice
- Equality
- Ethical integrity
- Responsibility to a larger good

Collective Action
- Integration of knowledge, skills, and examined values to inform actions taken in concert with other people
- Moral discernment and behavior
- Navigation of political systems and processes, both formal and informal
- Public problem solving with diverse partners
- Compromise, civility, and mutual respect

Figure 1. A Framework for 21st Century Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement. Source: National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement. (2012). *A crucible moment: College learning and democracy's future*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

The Problem

Fraternities and sororities promote ethical development in their members through service learning and civic engagement (Earley, 1998). Compared to their non-affiliated counterparts, members of fraternities and sororities donate more money to charitable organizations and participate in civic organizations at greater rates (Thorson, 1997). While social and cultural fraternities and sororities share similar values, their philosophies on service are quite different. Social organizations focus more on philanthropic endeavors, while cultural organizations perform more hands-on community service activities (Kimbrough, 2003a). Many social fraternities and sororities have adopted national philanthropies like Ronald McDonald House Charities (Alpha Delta Pi Sorority) and the Muscular Dystrophy Association (Kappa Alpha Order) for which their chapters raise money and sponsor service projects, whereas cultural fraternities and sororities' service initiatives are more social justice oriented like "A Voteless People is a Hopeless People" (Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity, Inc.) and raising awareness of violence against women (Omega Phi Beta Sorority, Inc.). Since there are fundamental differences in how social and cultural fraternities and sororities view service, more quantitative research should be conducted to gain a greater understanding of the varying perspectives of service within this population.

Purpose of the Study

One critical issue facing fraternities and sororities is the lack of empirical research supporting that their espoused values like leadership development, civic engagement, and brotherhood/sisterhood truly have an impact on members and the surrounding community, even though advocates claim membership positively supports student

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development and success. At the 2011 Annual Meeting of the Association of

Fraternity/Sorority Advisors, Dr. Susan Komives stated, "Fraternity and sorority systems

must do more to show the public good from membership: workforce development,

community engagement, intelligent citizenry, civil society, and preparing people to

function in diverse communities engaged in moral decision making" (Bureau & Leung,

2012, p. 17). The assessment of civic engagement outcomes in fraternities and sororities

is an emerging area of research. The purpose of this quantitative study was to aid in the

research of the positive effects of fraternity and sorority membership with an analysis of

the differences in civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural

fraternities and sororities.

Research Questions

The central research question for this study was: Are there significant differences

as measured by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) in civic engagement

knowledge, skills, and dispositions among members of social versus cultural fraternities

and sororities? Specifically, there are three research questions that address the central

question:

1. What are the differences in citizenship skills among members of social and
    cultural fraternities and sororities?

2. What are the differences in social change behaviors among members of social
    and cultural fraternities and sororities?

3. What are the differences in awareness of diverse populations and ideas among
    members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

Data were analyzed for gender and membership type based on responses to the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale in the MSL.

Hypotheses

1. Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are higher than those for members of social fraternities and sororities on the SRLS Citizenship Scale.

2. Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are higher than those for members of social fraternities and sororities on the Social Change Behaviors Scale.

3. Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are higher than those for members of social fraternities and sororities on the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale.

Significance of the Study

Over the past 10 years, civic engagement has been a cornerstone in the values movement of national fraternities and sororities. In *A Call for Values Congruence,* university presidents were challenged to reinforce civic engagement as a core value in the Greek membership experience on the local campus (Franklin Square Group, 2003). This call led to the North-American Interfraternity Conference (NIC, 2004), the umbrella organization of the national social fraternities, to include civic engagement programming in the standards for its member fraternities; however, the fraternities have not made significant gains in incorporating civic engagement principals into their programming outcomes since the implementation of the NIC Standards, even though it remains a core

value (Godwin, 2011). The National Panhellenic Conference (NPC, 2011), the umbrella

organization of the national social sororities, adopted civic engagement ideals in its belief

statement by stating, "[Women's] fraternities exist because they provide a good

democratic social experience and create, through their ideals, an ever-widening circle of

service beyond the membership" (p. 1). Additionally, the National Asian Pacific Islander

American Panhellenic Association (NAPA) was established in 2006 as a new culturally-

based umbrella organization to assist the historically Asian fraternities and sororities to

engage youth in the political process (NAPA, 2012b).

One method to measure these outcomes is through the MSL. Developed in 2005

through a collaboration of student affairs faculty and staff, the MSL is an international

research initiative that evaluates how students' leadership capacity is influenced by

various higher education environments (Komives, Dugan, & Segar, 2006). The MSL was

first administered in 2006 to over 60,000 students at 52 institutions, and over 300,000

students from 250 institutions have participated since its inception (MSL, 2012b).

According to the MSL (2012d), data from the survey have provided leadership educators

with over 50 published studies, but only three have addressed citizenship within the

fraternity and sorority population (Chowdhry, 2010; Dugan, 2008; Gerhardt, 2008).

The main instrument used in the MSL is an adapted version of the SLRS (Tyree,

1998), which assesses student leadership among the core values of the Social Change

Model of Leadership Development. The Social Change Model of Leadership

Development is a product of the post-industrial era of leadership competencies which

include moral leadership and service, cognition, chaos and adaptivity, and social

responsibility (Dugan & Komives, 2010). It is grounded on the Higher Education

Research Institute's (HERI) notion that leadership is "collaborative relationships that lead to collective action grounded in the shared values of people who work together to effect positive change" (HERI, 1996, p. 17). The Social Change Model of Leadership Development consists of seven core values divided into group, individual, and society/community dimensions (Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009). Group values include collaboration, common purpose, and controversy with civility. Individual values consist of consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment. The lone society/community value is citizenship. The ultimate goal of the model is that positive change will result when all seven values interact with each other. Figure 2 illustrates how change is enacted when the group, individual, and society/community values of the Social Change Model of Leadership Development interact.

The amount of research on the effect of citizenship on fraternity and sorority membership is limited. This study is significant because it is the first to evaluate civic engagement outcomes in social and cultural fraternities and sororities based on the SRLS Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale in the MSL. Results from this study will help national fraternity and sorority headquarters staff members and campus-based professionals to assess their learning outcomes for the service and civic engagement components of their educational and leadership programming.
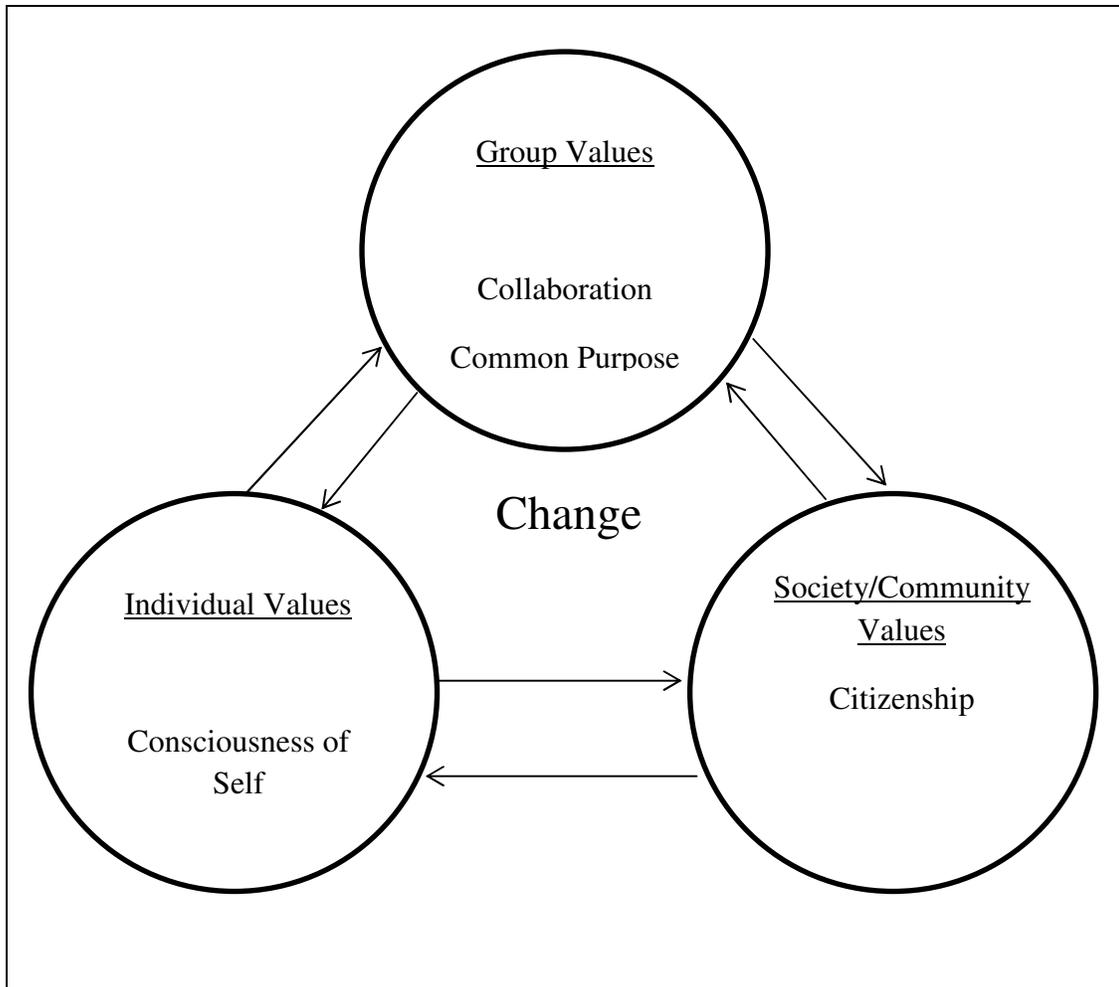
Figure 2. Social Change Model of Leadership Development. Source: Higher Education Research Institute. (1996). *A social change model of leadership development: Guidebook version III*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to the 2009 national sample of the MSL because it is the most recent data set available to external researchers. This limitation is a result of the MSL research team placing a three-year delay on external research on data sets until its pre-determined research is completed. The researcher has further limited this study to only members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities, and there was no comparison or control group consisting of non-members in the data. For this study, the researcher was looking at only significant differences based on membership in social and

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cultural fraternities and sororities and excluded other factors like pre-dispositions to service, class standing, and additional campus organization membership.

Definition of Terms

(1) Cultural fraternities/sororities – Historically Black, Latino, Asian, and multicultural Greek-letter organizations that are associated with the National Pan-Hellenic Council (NPHC), National Association of Latino Fraternal Organization (NALFO), NAPA, and the National Multicultural Greek Council (NMGC)

(2) Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) – An international research initiative that measures the influence on institutional environments on university student leadership development

(3) Social Change Behaviors Scale – A 10-item scale designed to measure engagement in social change activities throughout an individual's college experience

(4) Social fraternities/sororities – Historically White collegiate Greek-letter organizations that are associated with the NIC and the NPC

(5) Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) – A scale designed to measure student leadership competencies on the Social Change Model of Leadership Development

(6) Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale – A six-item scale designed to measure college student interactions with diverse populations outside of the classroom in an average school year

Assumptions

This study was based on the following assumptions common to basic research.

(1) Participants willingly took part in the study.

(2) Participants comprehended the questions asked in the instruments.

(3) Participants truthfully answered the questions in the instruments.

(4) Participants are representative of the population at their institution.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. Chapter I presents the purpose of the study and research question, significance, limitations, and assumptions. Chapter II is a review of literature that illustrates the theoretical background and empirical foundation for this study. The methodology is explained in Chapter III. Chapter IV describes the results from the data analysis. Finally, the findings, implications, and recommendations for future research are discussed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Literature on the impact of fraternity and sorority membership on college student success is abundant; however, research on how civic engagement influences the membership experience is sparse. The purpose of this quantitative study was to aid in the research of the positive effects of fraternity and sorority membership, with an analysis of the differences in civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. This chapter outlines literature and research on the foundations of civic engagement that are relevant to this study. First, the theoretical foundations and structural components of civic engagement are highlighted, followed by the history and past research on fraternities and sororities. Background on the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) and the scales used for this study are addressed. Finally, empirical support for this study from the MSL is presented.

Theoretical Foundations of Civic Engagement and Service Learning

The theoretical background of civic engagement is traced back to the writings of John Dewey. Themes from Dewey also are found in college student development theories such as Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development, Carol Gilligan's theory of women's moral development, and William Perry's theory of intellectual and ethical development. Finally, the Social Change Model of Leadership Development also has played a key role in the promotion of civic engagement outcomes at higher education institutions.

John Dewey

John Dewey is widely regarded by scholars as the earliest supporter for citizenship being considered a core component of the mission of higher education. In his book, *Democracy in Education*, Dewey stated that the "liberal arts experience should consist of three essential elements: it should engage students in the surrounding community; it should be focused on problems to be solved rather than academic discipline; and it should collaboratively involve students and faculty (cited in Jacoby & Associates, 2009, p. 11). Dewey is credited for the development of experiential learning as a teaching strategy to fulfill the civic and moral obligation of education (Bernacki & Jaeger, 2008).

Giles and Eyler (1994) synthesized Dewey's research to create a theory of service-learning consisting of nine themes from his work: (1) principle of continuity, (2) principle of interaction, (3) inquiry, (4) reflective activity, (5) truly educative projects, (6) concrete and abstract knowledge, (7) the Great Community, (8) citizenship, and (9) democracy. Dewey stated that learning occurred when students participated in a series of continuous experiences and utilized their critical thinking skills through intentional reflection exercises and projects. Citizenship and democracy became focal points of his social perspective, which was referred to as the Great Community, as methods to build communities that became fragmented after the country became more industrialized. Dewey was a trailblazer for civic engagement because his idea of the Great Community was seen as revolutionary at the time, but "his belief in the possibility of citizenship as a mutual enterprise that addressed social ills and his faith in the school as the potential

model of democracy" (Giles & Eyler, 1994, p. 82) became the model for future scholarship.

Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development is a six-stage process that describes how a person uses moral reasoning to make decisions (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). The post-conventional stages within Level III of Kohlberg's theory are aligned with the principles of civic engagement because their focus is on social justice. In stage 5, Human Rights and Social Welfare Mentality, Kohlberg described a social system where everyone works to "protect rights and ensure the welfare of all people" (p. 175). Finally in stage 6, Morality of the Universalizable Reversible, and Prescriptive General Ethical Principles, "equal consideration of the points of view of all individuals involved in a moral situation" (p. 175) is the focal point of morality.

Kohlberg believed that community service was one method to teach moral education because the activities made students confront the moral conflicts affecting society (Bernacki & Jaeger, 2008). Similar to results of the study conducted by Jackson and Iverson (2009), once people are aware of the issues affecting society and have defined their personal values, they are expected to be more aware of their role within their community and be a player in solving social problems. This theory is essential in the study of citizenship because these stages are where people understand that they have a greater responsibility to make positive changes for society.

Gilligan's Theory of Women's Moral Development

While Kohlberg's theory is not gender-specific, Carol Gilligan developed a contrasting moral development theory targeted toward women because she believed men

and women have different perspectives when making moral judgments. Gilligan believed that "the moral reasoning of men is more justice-oriented based on their greater detachment and preference for objectivity, while the moral reasoning of women is more care- and relationship-oriented due to the greater sensitivity and perceived interdependence of others" (Bernacki & Jaeger, 2008, p. 8). Gilligan's theory consists of three levels and two transition periods where progression through each level involves a deeper relationship between individuals and society, and transitions involve a greater comprehension between selfishness and responsibility (Evans et al., 1998). Mathiasen (2005) suggested that community service in fraternities and sororities follows Gilligan's model more than Kohlberg's because the outcomes of service activities associated with these groups place an "emphasis on learning to care for others and to feel responsible for their welfare" (p. 250).

Perry's Theory of Intellectual and Ethical Development

William Perry's theory of intellectual and ethical development consists of nine positions in which people form their worldview. According to this theory, people begin making decisions based on dualism or dichotomous outcomes, then transition to multiplicity when they learn about diverse perspectives, and finally end in relativism that bases judgments on substantiated facts (Evans et al., 1998). Transitioning through phases requires people to evaluate new information with their personal core values and decide to adopt a new worldview based on their new found knowledge.

In regards to civic engagement, Perry's theory is aligned with the citizenship and political activism outcomes. Venters (2010) proposed that higher education should take Perry's approach to help students reach the commitment to the relativism phase in the

political process. Colleges and universities are ripe environments for nurturing political engagement because academic courses and co-curricular programs can be delivered to empower students to make informed decisions based on their values and lessen the potential for students to become cynical of the political process. Venters argued that, though students enter college with a more dualistic perspective, Perry believed students will eventually commit to relativism, and institutions should take advantage of their cognitive development to enhance political activism.

Social Change Model of Leadership Development

The Social Change Model of Leadership Development is a model for addressing social change within the college student population, and this theory had the greatest influence on this study. This model was conceptualized between 1993 to 1996 by a group of higher education leaders and scholars with a great amount of experience working with college students through an Eisenhower Grant from the U. S. Department of Education (Komives et al., 2009). The Social Change Model of Leadership Development has two primary goals:

(1) To enhance student learning and development; more specifically, to develop in each student participant greater:

- Self-knowledge: understanding one's talents, values, and interests, especially as these relate to the student's capacity to provide effective leadership

- Leadership competence: the capacity to mobilize one-self and others to serve and work collaboratively

(2) To facilitate positive social change at the institution or in the community. That is, undertake actions which will help the institution/community to function more effectively and humanely. (HERI, 1996, p. 19)

As a product of the post-industrial era leadership, the Social Change Model of Leadership Development is based on six key assumptions on leadership.

(1) Leadership is concerned with effecting change on behalf of others and society.

(2) Leadership is collaborative.

(3) Leadership is a process rather than a position.

(4) Leadership should be value-based.

(5) All students (not just those who hold formal leadership positions) are potential leaders.

(6) Service is a powerful vehicle for developing students' leadership skills. (HERI, 1996, p. 10)

The first group of values in the Social Change Model of Leadership Development is the group values: collaboration, common purpose, and controversy with civility. Komives et al. (2009) believed that leadership in the social change model occurs at the group level because individuals often find themselves to be members of multiple groups such as student organizations, athletic teams, or even a group of friends within the larger campus community. Collaboration and common purpose are aligned because groups unite together based on common ideals; if they do not work together effectively, they will be unable to advance their mission. Controversy with civility is an essential value because new ideas and solutions can emerge through debates if healthy, civil discourse occurs.

The next group of values is the individual values: consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment. Individual awareness is a key component within the model, as it leads to the motivational factors of the group and society levels (Komives et al., 2009). Consciousness of self is a lifelong process that encompasses personal beliefs and values, along with knowing how to work with others. Congruence is making sure one's actions are consistent with the espoused values set. Commitment is defined by the amount of time and attention given to the group, cause, or community.

The final group of values in the model is the society/community values, which includes only citizenship. The society/community values are enacted once the individual and group values are strengthened. Social change is a result of different groups working together for the betterment of the common good levels (Komives et al., 2009). The citizenship value refers to individual and group understanding of their role in the overall community and how their contributions toward this community can make a difference.

Components of Civic Engagement

Civic engagement is defined as "acting upon a heightened sense of responsibility to one's community" (Jacoby & Associates, 2009, p. 9). Gottlieb and Robinson (2002) further described civic responsibility as "active participation in the public life of a community in an informed, committed, and constructive manner, with a focus on the common good" (p. 16). The process to becoming an informed citizen is called civic learning, which is "coming to understand how a community functions, what problems it faces, the richness of diversity, and the importance of individual commitments of time and energy in enhancing community" (Ehrlich, 1999, p. 6). In a review of literature on the influence of civic engagement on college students, the themes that emerged are

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improved academic performance, an increase of assessments of civic engagement, respect and tolerance for diversity, and development of communication skills (Cooks & Sharrer, 2006). The core components of civic engagement have been divided into three distinct paradigms: citizenship, service learning and social justice, and multicultural competence (Einfeld & Collins, 2008).

Citizenship

Since 2000 college students have become more engaged citizens compared to previous decades. Sax (2004) found that 86.2% of college freshman in 2002 participated in service activities in their senior year of high school, which was a record high; however, only 32.9% considered themselves to be interested in politics. According to Hollander and Longo (2008), millennial students care deeply about social issues and want to be part of a process that allows them to be problem solvers, but they are disenchanted with the divisiveness that is a by-product of the political process. Additionally, a study conducted by Rowan-Kenyon, Soldner, and Inkelas (2007) reported that college women were more civically engaged than their male counterparts.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) found three types of citizens engaged in the political process: the personally responsible citizen, the participatory citizen, and the justice-oriented citizen. Personally responsible citizens are noted to be dutiful community members who obey laws, volunteer for local causes, and participate in character-building programs. Participatory citizens are active in civic and social affairs from the local level to the national level, and they advocate for educating students about how the political process works and ways to participate in community problem solving.

Finally, justice-oriented citizens focus on equality and injustice and are concerned with how social, economic, and political agendas interact.

Bennett (2008) detailed a paradigm shift in civic activism from the dutiful citizen primarily focusing on voting to becoming an actualizing citizen with more grassroots actions like volunteerism and participating in protests. This paradigm shift is consistent with prior research on civic engagement outcomes focusing on social activism, empowerment, and community involvement (Sax, 2004). In *Learning Reconsidered*, student affairs administrators and professors drafted student learning outcomes for civic engagement that include cultivating a sense of civic responsibility, committing to public life through communities of practice, engaging in principled dissent, and becoming effective in leadership (Keeling, 2004). Hollander and Longo (2008) suggested that the best way for colleges and universities to promote citizenship is to provide opportunities "to engage students in ways that they can express their own perspectives and find their own political voices" (p. 5).

Bringle and Steinberg (2010) established a framework for the core competencies that produce civic-minded graduates. This framework consists of seven outcomes categorized into civic knowledge (cognitive), dispositions (affective), skills, behavioral intentions, and behaviors: (1) academic knowledge and technical skills, (2) knowledge of volunteer opportunities and non-profit organizations, (3) contemporary social issues, (4) listening and communications skills, (5) diversity skills, (6) self-efficacy, and (7) behavioral intentions leading to civic behavior. Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, and Stephens (2003) believed that, in order to be an engaged citizen, people must not only have a great understanding of the issues affecting society, but they also must have a sense of political

efficacy, which results from believing they can contribute both civically and politically.

Political efficacy can be achieved by developing essential communications skills

"including the capacities for compelling moral discourse -- how to make a strong case for

something, ensure that others understand one's point of view, understand others'

arguments, compromise without abandoning one's convictions, and work towards

consensus" (Colby et al., 2002, p. 26).

Service Learning and Social Justice

While several scholars have advocated that service falls on a continuum from

charity to projects to social change, Morton (1995) argued that these three types of

service are their own paradigms. Morton defined charity as "the provision of direct

service where control of the service (resources and decisions affecting their distribution)

remain with the provider" (p. 21).   Projects, on the other hand, "focus on defining

problems and their solutions and implementing well-conceived plans for achieving those

solutions" (p. 21). The final paradigm, social change, is described as a process that

includes "building relationships among or within stakeholder groups, and creating a

learning environment that continually peels away the layers of the onion called 'root

causes'" (p. 22). Morton claimed that a distinct worldview for change exists within each

paradigm, and these worldviews have varying degrees of integrity that range from thin

(disempowering and hollow change) to thick (sustaining and potentially revolutionary

change).

Morton's (1995) framework challenged the notion of the service continuum by

stating that people are predisposed to a particular paradigm. A study by Bringle,

Maguka, Hatcher, MacIntosh, and Jones (cited in Bringle, Hatcher, & McIntosh, 2006)

found that 48% of students preferred charity, while 39% liked projects, and 13% valued social change. These findings are congruent with Kimbrough's (2003a) assertion that social and cultural fraternities and sororities value service in opposing manners.

Clary et al. (1998) highlighted six reasons that increase students' motivation to participate in community service: (a) to display personal values through service, (b) to gain an understanding about themselves and the people they serve, (c) to obtain professional skills that will benefit their career, (d) to follow social norms, (e) to protect themselves from negative issues in their personal lives, and (f) to advance personal development. Berger and Milem (2002) found that the amount of hours devoted to community service is not as effective as the quality of the service experience and that most students who participate in service activities throughout college are predisposed to service. Additionally, participation in service while in college was a positive indicator for alumni affinity to social responsibility and future participation in service (Fenzel & Peyrot, 2005).

Engberg and Fox (2011) synthesized literature on service learning and categorized outcomes from service participation as cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal. Cognitive outcomes include linguistic, cultural, and academic knowledge; analysis of multiple perspectives; critical thinking; and problem solving. The intrapersonal outcomes are identity, self-awareness, confidence, empowerment, and tolerance of and interest in diversity and ambiguity. Finally, the interpersonal outcomes are gaining skills in empathy and trust and commitments to education, career, and society.

Social justice is an important aspect of the service models because it focuses on "questioning the conditions in society that create the need for service in the first place

and seeking to alter those conditions" (Wade, 2000, p. 6). Volunteering while in college increases student motivation in areas such as social responsibility, multiculturalism, and diversity (Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999). By participating in service, students are able to expand their worldview by being exposed to the socioeconomic, racial, and ethnic issues affecting their community (Caruso, Bowen, & Adams-Dunford, 2006). From the social justice perspective, service allows individuals to gain an "awareness of the world's interconnectedness, along with a sense of collective responsibility for the well-being of the earth and its creatures and support for global equity, peace, and justice" (Keith, 2005, p. 12).

Multicultural Competence

Since 2000, colleges and universities in the United States have experienced a surge in racial and ethnic diversity in the student population (Antonio, 2001a). Institutions have the opportunity to become a "microcosm of the equitable and democratic society we aspire to become" (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002, p. 362) by emulating the diverse environments students will experience in life. As a result, having a racial and ethnic diverse campus population has shown to have positive effects on educational outcomes (Denson & Chang, 2009). According to Chang (1999), "diversity offers one of the most powerful means of developing the intellectual energy that leads to greater knowledge and the kind of mutual respect essential to our civic society -- both of which are vital to the health and effective functioning of our democracy" (p. 391).

Several studies found diverse interactions helped students prepare for a homogeneous society (Antonio, 2001b, Astin, 1993; Gurin, Nagda, & Lopez, 2004).

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Gurin et al. (2002) claimed that, to be successful in a diverse society students need to be proficient in the following democratic outcomes: (a) understand and consider multiple perspectives that are likely to exist when people of different background interact, (b) appreciate common values and integrative forces that incorporate differences in the pursuit of the broader common good, and (c) understand and accept cultural differences that arise in a racially/ethnically diverse society. Additionally, Milem (1994) presented five behaviors that increased students' racial understanding: (a) socializing with someone from a different racial group, (b) discussing issues related to race and ethnicity, (c) attending racial awareness workshops, (d) enrolling in ethnic studies classes, and (e) participating in campus demonstrations.

Jay (2008) argued that colleges and universities have the ability to reinforce the values of equity, tolerance, and civic responsibility through service learning by engaging students in honest conversations about racial differences. According to Bohmer and Briggs (1991), in order to understand types of oppression including racism, sexism, and classism, one must be aware of how it exists on the individual versus the institutional level. They found that students from privileged backgrounds who had little to no exposure to oppressed populations had a more difficult time understanding oppression beyond the individual perspective. Chesler and Scalera (2000) stated that practitioners design service learning programs to address oppression in two possible ways: (1) as part of attempts to educate students about their own and others' identities, their ways of working with others, and the realities of community life; (2) as part of efforts to challenge and transform racist and sexist aspects of community life and community agencies/institutions.

Joining a fraternity or sorority has shown to have negative effects on members' racial understanding and openness to diversity (Antonio, 2001a; Milem, 1994; Nelson Laird, 2005; Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagedorn, & Terenzini, 1996). These effects can be attributed to fraternities and sororities being considered "separatist organizations that promote a strong sense of group solidarity and in-group/out-group difference" (Wood & Chesser, 1994, p. 28). Membership in a fraternity or sorority had strong negative effects for White students regarding openness to diversity, whereas membership had slight positive effects for non-White members (Pascarella et al., 1996). The residential nature of social fraternities and sororities on many campuses can isolate members from the larger campus population (Milem, 1994). Boschini and Thompson (1998) believed that fraternities and sororities could enhance their multicultural competence and racial understanding if they committed to making the Greek system into an intentional diverse learning community that builds relationships across the campus population and assesses student learning and development through diversity.

History of Fraternities and Sororities

The modern fraternal movement traces its roots back to the founding of Phi Beta Kappa at the College of William and Mary in 1776 (Whipple & Sullivan, 1998). Phi Beta Kappa served as the model for future fraternities and sororities by using Greek letters to designate the organization; adopting core values that were displayed through a ritual ceremony; keeping all proceedings secret; and creating coats of arms, mottos, and handshakes (Binder, 2003). Fraternities were originally started as literary or debate clubs in a time where there was a "lack of intellectual excitement and social freedom in the formal curriculum" (Whipple & Sullivan, p. 8). These organizations' missions did not

become socially focused until the founding of The Kappa Alpha Society at Union College in 1825 (Binder, 2003). It was not until the 1830s that fraternities like Phi Beta Kappa evolved into honor societies because of the anti-secrecy scare which caused them to publicly reveal secret rituals (Binder). Today, 75 social fraternities are members of the North-American Interfraternity Conference, which represents around 5,500 chapters on over 800 campuses in the United Stated and Canada (NIC, 2012).

Women's fraternities did not emerge onto the higher education scene until the mid-1800s because institutions mainly enrolled men until that point. The first women's sisterhood was not founded until 1851 when the Adelphian Society, now known as Alpha Delta Pi, was started at Wesleyan Female College in Macon, GA (Singer & Hughey, 2003). Pi Beta Phi, originally known as I. C. Siroris in 1867, is credited as being the first women's organization to be established using the men's fraternity structure; however, Kappa Alpha Theta is known as the first to use Greek letters for its designation when it was founded in 1870 (Singer & Hughey, 2003). The term "sorority" was not in existence until it was adopted by Gamma Phi Beta in 1882 since there was no Greek word for sisterhood (Owen, 1991). As of 2011, four million women on 655 campuses were members of the 26 social sororities in the National Panhellenic Conference (NPC, 2011).

Once the makeup of the student body became more diverse, cultural fraternities and sororities were established to meet the cultural and academic needs of non-White students (Whipple & Sullivan, 1998). While Sigma Pi Phi, established in 1905, is considered the first Black Greek-letter organization, Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity, Inc.'s founding at Cornell University in 1906 is recognized as the start of the modern Black Greek movement (Kimbrough, 2003a). Between 1906 and 1922, four fraternities and

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four sororities were established which is considered the Foundation Era of Black

Fraternalism (Kimbrough, 2003b). These eight organizations, along with Iota Phi Theta

Fraternity, Inc., which was founded in 1963, make up the National Pan-Hellenic Council

(NPHC, 2010).

The late 20th century saw a great increase in the establishment of cultural

fraternities and sororities, especially with the Latino and Asian population. Phi Iota

Alpha Fraternity, Inc., founded in 1931, is credited as being the first sustainable Latino

fraternal organization; however, the greatest emergence of Latino fraternities and

sororities did not occur on campuses until the 1970s and 1980s (Smalls & Hernandez,

2009). Twenty fraternities and sororities hold membership in the National Association of

Latino Fraternal Organizations (NALFO, 2008). Asian American fraternities and

sororities first emerged in 1916, when Rho Psi Fraternity was founded at Cornell

University, but most were not created until the 1980s and 1990s (Smalls & Gee, 2009).

The National Asian Pacific Islander American Panhellenic Association has 12 member

fraternities and sororities (NAPA, 2012a).

Even though the largest collection of social and cultural fraternities and sororities

are historically White, Black, Latino, and Asian, chapters have been established for

populations such as Native Americans and gays and lesbians, but they do not have

national umbrella organizations like their larger social and cultural counterparts (Johnson

& Larabee, 2003). Oxendine and Oxendine (2012) stated that campus-based fraternity

and sorority advisors have labeled emerging cultural organizations as having "founders'

complex" because members would rather create a new fraternity or sorority instead of

joining a chapter in NALFO, NAPA, NIC, NPC, or NPHC. In addition to these emerging

cultural fraternities and sororities, organizations were formed with a multicultural mission that included members of all races, creeds, and religions beginning in the 1980s and these organizations are members of the National Multicultural Greek Council (NMGC, 2012).

Research on Fraternities and Sororities

A review of literature on the impact of fraternity and sorority membership yielded mixed results. Several studies have primarily focused on factors that negatively affect students. Examples of this research include hazing (Kuh, Pascarella, & Wechsler, 1996); gambling (LaBrie, Shaffer, LaPlante, & Wechsler, 2003; Rockey, Beason, Howington, Rockey, & Gilbert, 2005); academic misconduct (Eberhardt, Rice, & Smith, 2003; McCabe & Bowers, 1996; Storch, 2002); and alcohol use (Tampke, 1990; Wechsler, Kuh, & Davenport, 1996). However, not all research has been negative. Joining a fraternity and sorority showed increased satisfaction levels with college and learning outcomes such as teamwork and group functioning (Pike & Askew, 1990), and participation in these organizations is related to higher intellectual development (Pascarella, Flowers, & Whitt, 2001).

While research on the impact of civic engagement on fraternity and sorority membership is limited, results from these studies have yielded positive results. Most have shown greater amounts of participation in community service events and money raised for philanthropy organizations by fraternity and sorority members compared to their unaffiliated counterparts (Hayek, Carini, O'Day, & Kuh, 2002; Thorsen, 1997; Whipple & Sullivan, 1998). Students who joined a fraternity or sorority during their first year of college had 179% greater odds of volunteering over non-members (Cruce &

Moore, 2007). By participating in service and philanthropy activities, students obtain a

greater awareness of the positive impact these programs have on the well-being of the

greater community and values such as social responsibility and citizenship (Earley,

1998). Asel, Seifert, and Pascarella (2009) stated that civic engagement was one of the

espoused values that was highly congruent with members' behavior. One area of

personal development that is positively influenced in fraternity and sorority members is

moral development. Mathiasen's (2005) qualitative case study of a fraternity at a

university in the Midwest showed that, when community service is at the forefront of a

chapter's mission, members gain a greater sense of responsibility for people in need.

In addition to enhancing moral development, civic engagement also can be used

as a vehicle to increase members' appreciation for diversity. Universities have "struggled

with a racially dichotomous Greek system" (Kimbrough, 2009, p. 603) since the

establishment of historically black fraternities and sororities in the early 1900s. One of

the negative effects of having Greek communities divided into social and cultural silos is

that members can be limited in their interactions with diverse populations, which is a

critical skill of the 21st century (Asel et al., 2009). For the most part, social fraternities

and sororities have continued to recruit members that are predominately White with

similar socioeconomic backgrounds and ideologies, while the student populations have

become more diverse (Whipple & Sullivan, 1998). Boschini and Thompson (1998)

asserted that Greek communities must make a commitment to become diverse learning

communities in order to be more culturally competent. According to Matthews et al.

(2009), "building deeper relationships is important to advancing the espoused value of

civic engagement and can be furthered through developing opportunities for fraternity

and sorority members to engage both with each other and those outside of the community" (p. 36).

One study in particular moved beyond fraternity and sorority service to specifically look at citizenship. Jackson and Iverson (2009) conducted a qualitative study "to investigate fraternity and sorority members' beliefs about citizenship and how students' involvement in fraternal organizations contributes to shaping their views on citizenship" (p. 4). This study evolved from criticism of past research stating that fraternity and sorority programs focus solely on philanthropy and periodic service events instead of incorporating other aspects of citizenship like civic engagement and social change. Jackson and Iverson facilitated two focus groups with 12 total students and four individual interviews with two emerging leaders and two upper class leaders from a private research institution in the Midwest. The focus group discussions utilized open-ended questions to gain insights of members' opinions on citizenship and civic engagement participation at the institution. Data from the focus groups and interviews revealed three distinct themes for the successful promotion of citizenship in fraternities and sororities: (1) awareness, (2) values, and (3) action. Awareness is important because members believed that they must first have a complete understanding of themselves, local community, and their place within the community. Once they became more self-aware, members cultivated various values of citizenship including social responsibility, a commitment to the local community, and greater accountability in a more values-based decision-making process. Finally, once the members achieved a heightened sense of awareness and values, they felt obligated to take actions for the betterment of the community. Jackson and Iverson recommended that fraternities and sororities adopt

more transformative service projects, engage in discussions on citizenship, and empower members to speak out about causes. The results of this study showed that when citizenship is the foundation of fraternity and sorority service, rather than surface-level engagement, members are more empowered to take action for causes that are greater than one's self.

Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership

Since the 1990s, several trends in leadership development targeted toward college students resulted in "an institutional, and societal, mandate that calls for institutions of higher education to purposefully develop socially responsible leadership" (Dugan & Komives, 2007, p. 5). In the summer of 2005, a 19-member research team including faculty members and students from the College Student Personnel graduate program and student affairs administrators converged at the University of Maryland, College Park, to create the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) in an effort to gain knowledge on trends in college student leadership development (Komives et al., 2006).

As scholars demanded greater accountability in assessing student leadership outcomes, three problems emerged from research: a significant gap between theory and practice, an unclear picture of the leadership development needs of college students, and uncertainty regarding the influence of the college student environment on leadership development outcomes (Dugan & Komives, 2007). The purpose of the MSL was to find solutions to these problems as a method to develop the leadership competencies necessary for students to be engaged members of society (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

The theoretical foundation of the MSL is the Social Change Model of Leadership Development, and the conceptual framework is Alexander Astin's Input-Environment-

Outcomes college impact model (Komives et al., 2006). The core instrument of the MSL is the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), which was initially developed by Tyree (1998). The SRLS consists of 107 questions divided into eight sub-scales that measure outcomes from the group, individual, and societal values of the Social Change Model of Leadership Development. The MSL research team utilized a revised version of Tyree's SRLS, which reduced the instrument to 71 questions. In addition to the SRLS, the MSL includes additional scales to measure other leadership outcomes. For this study, the Social Change Behaviors Scale and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale are included with the citizenship sub-scale of the SRLS.

The MSL was administered online by the Survey Sciences Group, LLC., from January through April 2009 (MSL, 2012c). The overall sample included 118,733 completed surveys, which resulted in a 34% response rate (Dugan et al., 2011). The institutional makeup included 102 colleges and universities representing a diverse range of Carnegie classifications (MSL, 2012a).

Empirical Studies on the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership

This literature review evaluates three research studies on the effects of involvement on the core domains of the social change model, as measured through the MSL. These empirical studies were selected as background support for this study. The results, limitations, and suggestions for future research on socially responsible leadership in college students are highlighted.

Gerhardt (2008) analyzed differences in MSL scores for student leaders based on levels of involvement and types of organizations. The research question for this study was: Were there significant differences between student scores on the Multi-Institutional

Study of Leadership instrument by student involvement or the lack of involvement in various student groups? The results were categorized by the following populations:

(1) Students involved with social fraternities or sororities and at least one other category of student/extracurricular groups (student groups);

(2) Students involved with three or more categories of student/extracurricular groups (student groups), but not with any social fraternities or sororities;

(3) Students involved with one or two categories of student/extracurricular groups (student groups), but not with any social fraternities or sororities; and

(4) Students not involved in any student/extracurricular groups (student groups).

The sample consisted of 3,237 students at a Midwestern public university. The MSL was administered online via an email to the students' university email account. There were 898 initial responses, but only 786 were considered valid, for a 27.7% response rate. The sample included 388 males, 510 females, 131 fraternity and sorority members, 309 members of three or more organizations but not Greek, 243 members of one or two organizations but not Greek, and 103 people who were not members of any organization. Data were analyzed through multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA), analyses of variance (ANOVA), and descriptive statistics. The results indicated a significant difference in mean scores for members of fraternities and sororities and those involved in three or more organizations compared to those not joining organizations. Females had significantly higher mean scores than men on all eight values of the social change model. Seniors had similar results to the females among the eight values compared to their freshmen counterparts. There are several limitations to the research and student population. The survey was administered at one university, and the results cannot be

generalized for other institutions. Students were categorized by membership in specific

categories or organizations, and it is possible that they could be members of multiple

organizations within a particular category. Also, students might not have selected enough

categories that classified their membership, which could affect their amount of

involvement in the study. Gerhardt (2008) recommended future research to examine

differences in students' leadership development prior to entering college, the types of

organizational membership within fraternity and sorority organizations, and leadership

roles within an organization.

Dugan (2008) evaluated how socially responsible leadership is influenced by

fraternity and sorority membership. The following research questions were developed for

this study: (1) How do fraternity and sorority members score nationally on eight

theoretically grounded measures of leadership? (2) Are there significant differences

between sorority and fraternity members' scores across the eight leadership measures?

The sample of MSL respondents included 8,700 fraternity and sorority members from 55

colleges and universities in the United States. The institutions represented in this study

were classified based on Carnegie classifications: 63% research, 24% masters, 12%

baccalaureate, and 1% associates. The sample's racial demographics were: 79% White,

7% Multiracial, 5% Asian American, 3% African American/Black, 3% Latino, 2%

unlisted race, and .2% Native American. To answer question one, descriptive statistics

were used to display the mean scores for the fraternity and sorority responses to the eight

values of the social change model. For the second question, MANOVA and independent

sample *t* tests determined significant differences in the mean scores. The results showed

statistically significant differences in mean scores for all of the values except change, and

women had higher means than the men for the seven significant differences. One implication from this study was the need for a tighter relationship between service and leadership in fraternities and sororities. Dugan stressed that administrators need to help members know the difference between service and philanthropy and to gain commitment to serving the greater community. The two limitations to this study were the lack of sample differentiation between social and cultural fraternity and sorority members in the results and no analysis of members versus non-members. Dugan called for an expansion of this research to determine overall fraternal leadership enhancement predictors and differences among the diverse types of Greek membership.

Chowdhry (2010) utilized data from the MSL to examine the differences in viewpoints and involvement in civic engagement among students who were members of service, advocacy, and identity-based organizations, along with those who were not affiliated with any student organizations. Three research questions were developed for this study:

(1) Does undergraduate students' perceived sense of civic responsibility differ based on involvement with particular types of student organizations (service, advocacy, and identity-based)?

(2) Does undergraduate students' frequency of engagement in social change behaviors differ based on involvement with particular types of student organizations (service, advocacy, and identity-based)?

(3) Is there a relationship between perceived sense of civic responsibility and frequency of engagement in social change behaviors among students involved with service, advocacy, or identity-based organizations and students who are

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not involved with any of these organizations?

The sample included 44,911 students from the MSL participants, and the distribution among involvement categories was 37.5% service organizations, 5.1% advocacy organizations, 18.8% identity-based organizations, 20.8% combined memberships, and 17.8% unaffiliated. The specific scales used from the MSL were the SRLS Citizenship Scale and the Social Change Behaviors Scale. The data were analyzed using ANOVA for the first two research questions and Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient for the third question. The results for question one indicated a significant difference in perceived sense of civic engagement for the three types of organizations compared to students who were not involved. Question two showed similar results to question one where significant differences were found among the types of involvement. For both questions one and two, Chowdhry assumed identity-based organizations would have the highest means of the involvement types, yet they had the lowest. Finally, the results for question three produced a positive and significant correlation between sense of civic responsibility and frequency of civic involvement. Limitations to this study included a majority of the sample consisting of White students and female students and not measurement on length of membership in the organizations. Chowdhry recommended several areas of future research that could include controlling for pre-college indicators for sense of civic responsibility and involvement and including political organizations, multicultural fraternities and sororities, length of involvement, and membership status in the measurements.

Summary

      The purpose of this literature review was to provide a background of supporting research on what will be analyzed in this study. Past studies on fraternities and sororities were reviewed to show the need for additional research on civic engagement behaviors with this population. Student development theories were analyzed to provide the theoretical relevance to civic engagement in higher education. Citizenship, service learning and social justice, and multicultural competence were defined to give a greater understanding on the learning outcomes of civic engagement. Finally, past empirical studies on the MSL were evaluated to show the necessity for this study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this quantitative study was to aid in the research of the positive effects of fraternity and sorority membership, with an analysis of the differences in civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The central research question for this study was: Are there significant differences as measured by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) in civic engagement knowledge, skills, and dispositions among members of social versus cultural fraternities and sororities? Specifically, three research questions address the central question:

1. What are the differences in citizenship skills among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

2. What are the differences in social change behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

3. What are the differences in awareness of diverse populations and ideas among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

Data were analyzed for gender and membership type based on responses to the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale in the MSL.

Research Design

The design for this research was a non-experimental quantitative study based on ex post facto or casual-comparative research. Quantitative research is "inquiry that is grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an objective reality that is constant across time and settings" (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 650).

Furthermore, "the dominant methodology is to describe and explain features of this

reality by collecting numerical data on observable behaviors of samples and by subjecting

these data to statistical analysis" (p. 650).

Ex post facto research, also known as casual-comparative research, is "research in

which the independent variable or variables have already occurred and in which the

researcher begins with the observations on a dependent variable, followed by a

retrospective study of possible relationships and effects" (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009, p. 476).

Determining causation, which is "the degree to which one variable causes or affects

another," (Slavin, 2007, p. 91) is one major problem with ex post facto research. In this

study, data from the 2009 MSL were analyzed to determine differences in citizenship

skills, social change behaviors, and awareness of diverse populations and ideas based on

membership in a social or cultural fraternity or sorority.

Instrumentation

The MSL was created by a collaboration of student affairs professionals and

faculty at the University of Maryland, College Park, in 2005 as a way to understand

trends in college student leadership development (Komives et al., 2006). The core

instrument of the MSL is the revised version of the SRLS (Tyree, 1998), which includes

eight sub-scales based on the values of the Social Change Model of Leadership

Development. The MSL also encompasses additional surveys, including the Social

Change Behaviors Scale and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale, which were used in

this study.

Research Question One

The first research question for this study was: What are the differences in citizenship skills among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The instrument used to answer this question was the SRLS Citizenship Scale. This scale contains 11 questions that correspond to the community values of the Social Change Model of Leadership Development. Participant responses follow a five-point Likert-type scale with a range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Table 1 in Appendix A displays the items in the SRLS Citizenship Scale.

Research Question Two

The second research question for this study was: What are the differences in social change behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The instrument used to answer this question was the Social Change Behaviors Scale. This scale contains 10 questions that measure engagement in social change activities throughout an individual's college experience. Participant responses follow a four-point Likert-type scale with a range from never (1) to very often (4). Table 2 in Appendix A displays the items in the Social Change Behaviors Scale.

Research Question Three

The third research question for this study was: What are the differences in awareness of diverse populations and ideas among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The instrument used to answer this question was the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. This scale contains six questions that measure college student interactions with diverse populations outside of the classroom in an average school year. Participant responses follow a four-point Likert-type scale with a range

from never (1) to very often (4). Table 3 in Appendix A displays the items in the Social

Change Behaviors Scale.

Data Collection

The MSL was administered online from January through April 2009 by the

Survey Sciences Group, LLC (SSG), a research group that specializes in multi-

institutional research initiatives. Each institution selected a three-week period for their

data to be collected. Students who were randomly selected by their institution to

participate received up to four e-mails about completing in the MSL survey. The e-mails

described the study, provided details on confidentiality and consent to participate, and

offered the link to the online survey. The online administration of the MSL allowed

students to complete the survey at their convenience in a comfortable setting of their

choice. This format also allowed the participants to save their responses and return at a

later time to complete the survey. SSG provided customer service support to the

institutions and students throughout the data collection period. Students could contact

SSG via phone and e-mail if they had questions about the survey, and they could request

to be removed from the study by responding to the recruitment emails. SSG would assist

institutions during the three-week period by tracking the completion rate and providing

tips to increase responses. Incentives were provided at the local and national level to

increase the response rate at each institution. The institutions were allowed to select the

amount and prize value for the local incentives, which were selected randomly by SSG,

and the MSL sponsored monetary incentives that were awarded from the national sample

(MSL, 2012c).

To access the data for this study, the researcher submitted a data proposal request to the MSL's principal investigator. The request included a research timeline, an approved prospectus, an outline of requested variables, and a list of possible publication outlets. Data requests would not be accepted if they were similar to other projects conducted by the MSL research team. Accepted proposals by the MSL research team required a data access fee, which was funded by the researcher's institution. Upon acceptance by the MSL, the researcher agreed to certain conditions for using the data, including following the protocols of the local Institutional Review Board and MSL, using the variables only for the requested use, supplying copies of the completed study and future publications featuring results of the study, and acknowledging the source of the data in all presentations and publications.

Population

The population for this study consisted of participants of the 2009 survey of the MSL (MSL, 2009). The 2009 data set was the latest available for outside research because the MSL embargoed the national data set for three years after the initial administration for the survey. Approximately 115,000 students from 102 colleges and universities who participated in the 2009 MSL, but the aggregated data set does not include identifiers for the specific institutions.

Since the purpose of this study was to specifically examine members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities, only 18,281 participants were included from the national data set. The researcher removed 1,630 participants from the data set because they indicated they were members of both social and cultural organizations, and students could be members of only one type. Additionally, the researcher removed 3,794

participants who either did not include gender on their responses or provided inconsistent answers to the two gender questions. The final sample for this study consisted of 12,857 participants, including 3,954 members of social fraternities, 7,453 members of social sororities, 533 members of cultural fraternities, and 917 members of cultural sororities.

Data Analysis

The purpose of this quantitative study was to aid in the research of the positive effects of fraternity and sorority membership, with an analysis of the differences in civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The central research question for this study was: Are there significant differences as measured by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) in civic engagement knowledge, skills, and dispositions among members of social versus cultural fraternities and sororities? Specifically, there are three research questions that address the central question:

1. What are the differences in citizenship skills among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

2. What are the differences in social change behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

3. What are the differences in awareness of diverse populations and ideas among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

Data were analyzed for gender and membership type based on responses to the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale in the MSL.

The hypothesis for research question one is: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are higher than members of social fraternities and sororities on the SRLS Citizenship Scale. The hypothesis for research question two is: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are higher than members of social fraternities and sororities on the Social Change Behaviors Scale. The hypothesis for research question three is: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are higher than members of social fraternities and sororities on the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale.

The data analysis procedure used to answer the three research questions was a comparison of means through an analysis of variance (ANOVA). ANOVA is "a procedure for determining whether the difference between the mean scores of two or more groups on a dependent variable is statistically significant" (Gall et al., 2007, p. 632). The independent variables in this study were gender and type of fraternity and sorority membership, and the dependent variables were the survey instruments. A two-way ANOVA was performed to determine if there were significant differences in mean scores on the SRLS Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale at the $p \leq .05$ level. Significance was determined on the within-group differences, between-group differences, and interactions of the independent variables.

Summary

This chapter described the research design, instrumentation, data collection and population, and statistical analysis methods used in this study. Data were provided by the

MSL research team from the 2009 national data set and analyzed using the SAS 9.3

software program. The results from the data analysis are discussed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this quantitative study was to aid in the research of the positive effects of fraternity and sorority membership, with an analysis of the differences in civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The central research question for this study was: Are there significant differences as measured by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) in civic engagement knowledge, skills, and dispositions among members of social versus cultural fraternities and sororities? Specifically, three research questions addressed the central question:

4. What are the differences in citizenship skills among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

5. What are the differences in social change behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

6. What are the differences in awareness of diverse populations and ideas among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

Data were analyzed using the SAS 9.3 software program for gender and membership type based on responses to the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale in the MSL. The procedures utilized were descriptive statistics about the participant characteristics, two-way ANOVA, and post hoc analyses, including Tukey's HSD and tests for simple effects.

The data and findings of this study are presented in this chapter. First, the descriptive statistics of the sample are reported, including the racial background,

classification, and institutional breakdown. Second, the means and statistical analysis

procedures are discussed to answer the research questions of the study.

<center>**Characteristics of the Population**</center>

Since the purpose of this study was to specifically examine members of social and

cultural fraternities and sororities, only 18,281 participants were included from the

national data set of the 2009 administration of the MSL. The researcher removed 1,630

participants from the data set because they indicated they were members of both social

and cultural organizations, and students could be members of only one type.

Additionally, the researcher removed 3,794 participants who either did not include

gender on their responses or provided inconsistent answers to the two gender questions.

The final sample for this study consisted of 12,857 participants, which consisted of 4,487

males (34.9%) and 8,370 females (65.1%). There were 11,407 members of social

fraternities and sororities (88.72%) and 1,450 members of cultural fraternities and

sororities (11.28%). When broken down by gender and membership type, the sample

included 3,954 male members of social fraternities (30.75%), 7,453 female members of

social sororities (57.97%), 533 male members of cultural fraternities (4.15%), and 917

female members of cultural sororities (7.13%).

The racial backgrounds of the participants were 10,216 (79.6%) White/Caucasian,

54 (0.4%) Middle Eastern, 420 (3.3%) African American/Black, 52 (0.4%) American

Indian/Alaska Native, 664 (5.2%) Asian American/Asian, 428 (3.3%) Latino/Hispanic,

891 (6.9%) Multiracial, and 111 (0.9%) race/ethnicity not included above. Tables 4.1

and 4.2 in Appendix A shows the participants' racial background by membership type

and gender. The reported classifications of the participants were 2,268 (17.7%)

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freshman/first-year, 3,024(23.6%) sophomores, 3,453 (26.9%) juniors, 4,017 (31.3%)

seniors including fourth year and beyond, and 74 (0.6%) unclassified. The Carnegie

classification for the participant institutions were 16 (0.1%) associates, 3,030 (23.5%)

bachelors, 3,884 (30.2%) masters, 1,947 (15.1%) doctoral/research, and 3,980 (30.9%)

research (very high).

Results of the Data Analysis

Research Question One

The first research question for this study was: What are the differences in

citizenship skills among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The

instrument used to answer this question was the SRLS Citizenship Scale, which consisted

of 11 questions that corresponded to the community values of the Social Change Model

of Leadership Development. Participant responses followed a five-point Likert-type

scale with a range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The hypothesis for

the first research question was: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities

are significantly higher than those for members of social fraternities and sororities on the

SRLS Citizenship Scale.

The data analysis procedure used to answer research question one was a two-way

ANOVA, which discovered whether significant differences were found in mean scores at

the $p \leq .05$ level. The researcher first determined whether there were significant

differences in the mean scores of the interaction effects of gender and membership type

for each question in the SRLS Citizenship Scale. If significant differences were found, a

post hoc test was conducted to determine the simple effects for gender at each

membership type. If no significant differences were found within the interaction of

gender and membership types, the researcher then determined whether significant differences were found with the independent variables separately. Tukey's HSD post-hoc test was conducted to determine which portion of the independent variables was significant.

The results for the first question, "I believe I have responsibilities to my community," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 77.65$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 41.32$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.005) and membership type (.003) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 5.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for both gender (-.157) and membership type (.169) indicated a very small effect size among the mean scores. The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 3.02$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .0822$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 5.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the second question, "I give time to making a difference for someone else," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 76.74$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 5.40$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .0201$). The R^2 scores indicated a weak relationship for gender (.005) and membership type (.000) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 6.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test showed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores indicated a small effect size for gender (-.277) and a very small effect size for

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membership type (.057). The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.50$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p = .4809$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 6.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the third question, "I work with others to make my communities better places," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 60.03$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 58.71$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores revealed a weak relationship for gender (.004) and membership type (.004) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 7.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test showed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for gender (-.234) and membership type (.206) indicated a small effect size among the mean scores. The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.21$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p = .6454$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 7.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the fourth question, "I have the power to make a difference in my community," revealed a significant gender X membership type interaction ($F = 5.42$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p = .0199$). The nature of this interaction is displayed in Table 8.1 in Appendix A. Subsequent analyses demonstrated that there were simple effects for gender at the cultural membership level ($F = 22.43$; $df = 1$, 12,856; $p < .05$) and gender at the social membership level ($F = 37.17$; $df = 1$, 12,849; $p < .05$). As Table 8.2 in Appendix A shows, females scored higher than men at both the cultural membership level and the social membership level. The Cohen's d scores indicated a very small effect size for

gender and the social membership level (-.124) and a small effect size for gender at the cultural membership level (-.230).

The results for the fifth question, "I am willing to act for the rights of others," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 62.18$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.004) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 9.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men. The Cohen's d scores for gender (-.193) indicated a very small effect size among the mean scores. The main effect for membership type was not significant ($F = 3.83$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .0502$). The interaction between gender and membership type also was not significant ($F = 3.12$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .0776$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 9.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the sixth question, "I participate in activities that contribute to the common good," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 59.69$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 19.63$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.004) and membership type (.001) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 10.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores indicated a small effect size for gender (-.203) and a very small effect size for membership type (.114). The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.54$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .4604$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 10.1 in Appendix A.

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The results for the seventh question, "I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 42.59$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 43.08$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.003) and membership type (.003) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 11.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for gender (-.196) and membership type (.173) indicated a very small effect size among the mean scores. The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.72$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .3946$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 11.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the eighth question, "I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 116.57$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 31.30$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.008) and membership type (.002) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 12.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores indicated a small effect size for gender (-.321) and a very small effect size for membership type (.151). The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.27$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .6045$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 12.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the ninth question, "It is important to me that I play an active role in my communities," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 102.27$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 44.75$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.007) and membership type (.003) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 13.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores indicated a small effect size for gender (-.288) and a very small effect size for membership type (.187). The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.16$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p = .6909$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 13.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the 10th question, "I volunteer my time to the community," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 95.51$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 66.95$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.007) and membership type (.005) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 14.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test showed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for gender (-.303) and membership type (.225) indicated a small effect size among the mean scores. The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.65$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p = .4213$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 14.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the 11th question, "I believe my work has a greater purpose for the larger community," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 62.60$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 53.08$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores indicated a weak relationship for gender (.004) and membership type (.004) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 15.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test showed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for gender (-.203) and membership type (.216) indicated a very small effect size among the mean scores. The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.71$; $df = 1$, 12,853; $p = .4008$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 15.1 in Appendix A.

Research Question Two

The second research question for this study was: What are the differences in social change behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The instrument used to answer this question was the Social Change Behaviors Scale. This scale contained 10 questions that measured engagement in social change activities throughout an individual's college experience. Participant responses followed a four-point Likert-type scale with a range from never (1) to very often (4). The hypothesis for the second research question was: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are significantly higher than those for members of social fraternities and sororities on the Social Change Behaviors Scale.

The data analysis procedure used to answer research question one was a two-way ANOVA, which discovered whether significant differences occurred in mean scores at

the $p \leq .05$ level. The researcher first determined whether significant differences were found in the mean scores of the interaction effects of gender and membership type for each question in the SRLS Citizenship Scale. If significant differences were found, a post hoc test was conducted to determine the simple effects for gender at each membership type. If no significant differences were found within the interaction of gender and membership types, the researcher then determined whether significant differences with the independent variables separately. Tukey's HSD post-hoc test was conducted to determine which portion of the independent variables was significant.

The results for the first question, "Performed community service," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 89.73$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 score showed a weak relationship for gender (.006) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 16.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men. The Cohen's d scores for gender (-.241) indicated a small effect size among the mean scores. The main effect for membership type was not significant ($F = 0.43$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .5134$). The interaction between gender and membership type also was not significant ($F = 1.09$; $df = 1, 12,853$; $p = .2963$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 16.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the second question, "Acted to benefit the common good or protect the environment," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 40.54$; $df = 1, 12,852$; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 19.22$; $df = 1, 12,852$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.003) and membership type (.001) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 17.2 in

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Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for gender (-.197) and membership type (.115) indicated a very small effect size among the mean scores. The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.73$; $df = 1$, 12,852; $p = .3943$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 17.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the third question, "Been actively involved with an organization that addresses a social or environmental problem," revealed a significant gender X membership type interaction ($F = 7.96$; $df = 1$, 12,849; $p = .0048$). The nature of this interaction is displayed in Table 18.1 in Appendix A. Subsequent analyses demonstrated that there were simple effects for gender at the social membership level ($F = 58.92$; $df = 1$, 12,849; $p < .05$), but there were no simple effects for gender at the cultural membership level   ($F = 0.05$; $df = 1$, 12,849; $p > .05$). As Table 18.2 in Appendix A demonstrates, females scored significantly higher than men at the social membership level. The Cohen's d scores indicated a very small effect size for gender and the social membership level (-.147).

The results for the fourth question, "Been actively involved with an organization that addresses the concerns of a specific community (ex. academic council, neighborhood association)," revealed a significant main effect for membership type ($F = 151.88$; $df = 1$, 12,850; $p < .0001$). The R^2 score showed a weak relationship for membership type (.006) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 19.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for membership type (-.241) indicated

a small effect size among the mean scores. The main effect for gender was not significant $(F = 2.31; df = 1, 12,850; p = .1289)$. The interaction between gender and membership type also was not significant $(F = 2.39; df = 1, 12,850; p = .1224)$. The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 19.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the fifth question, "Communicated with campus or community leaders about a pressing concern," revealed a significant main effect for gender $(F = 11.71; df = 1, 12,851; p = .0006)$ and membership type $(F = 108.76; df = 1, 12,851; p < .0001)$. The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.000) and membership type (.008) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 20.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that men scored significantly higher than women, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores indicated a very small effect size for gender (.119) and a small effect size for membership type (.302). The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant $(F = 0.56; df = 1, 12,851; p = .4534)$. The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 20.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the sixth question, "Took action in the community to try to address a social or environmental problem," revealed a significant main effect for membership type $(F = 192.17; df = 1, 12,851; p < .0001)$. The R^2 score showed a weak relationship for membership type (.014) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 21.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test demonstrated that cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for membership type (.441) indicated a small effect size among the mean scores. The main effect for gender was not significant $(F = 0.04; df = 1, 12,851; p = .8321)$. The

interaction between gender and membership type also was not significant ($F = 1.10$; $df = 1, 12,851$; $p = .2944$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 21.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the seventh question, "Worked with others to make the campus or community a better place," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 7.25$; $df = 1, 12,852$; $p = .0071$) and membership type ($F = 36.54$; $df = 1, 12,852$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.000) and membership type (.002) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 22.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for gender (-.077) and membership type (.175) indicated a very small effect size among the mean scores. The interaction between gender and membership type was not significant ($F = 0.10$; $df = 1, 12,852$; $p = .7514$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 22.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the eighth question, "Acted to raise awareness about a campus, community, or global problem," revealed a significant main effect for gender ($F = 22.18$; $df = 1, 12,851$; $p < .0001$) and membership type ($F = 131.67$; $df = 1, 12,851$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 scores showed a weak relationship for gender (.001) and membership type (.010) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 23.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test found that women scored significantly higher than men, and cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores indicated a very small effect size for gender (-.167) and a small effect size for membership type (.316). The interaction between gender and membership type was not

significant ($F = 3.24$; $df = 1$, 12,851; $p = .0678$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 23.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the ninth question, "Took part in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration," revealed a significant main effect for membership type ($F = 385.08$; $df = 1$, 12,852; $p < .0001$). The R^2 score showed a weak relationship for membership type (.029) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 24.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test revealed that cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for membership type (.508) indicated a medium effect size among the mean scores. The main effect for gender was not significant ($F = 2.17$; $df = 1$, 12,852; $p = .1408$). The interaction between gender and membership type also was not significant ($F = 1.22$; $df = 1$, 12,852; $p = .2685$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 24.1 in Appendix A.

The results for the 10th question, "Worked with others to address social inequality," revealed a significant main effect for only membership type ($F = 437.36$; $df = 1$, 12,851; $p < .0001$). The R^2 score showed a weak relationship for membership type (.032) compared to the criterion variable. The sample means are displayed in Table 25.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's HSD test demonstrated that cultural members scored significantly higher than social members. The Cohen's d scores for membership type (.751) indicated a medium effect size among the mean scores. The main effect for gender was not significant ($F = 2.58$; $df = 1$, 12,851; $p = .1081$). The interaction between gender and membership type also was not significant ($F = 3.23$; $df = 1$, 12,851; $p = .0721$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 25.1 in Appendix A.

Research Question Three

The third research question for this study was: What are the differences in awareness of diverse populations and ideas among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale used to answer this question. This scale contains six questions that measure college student interactions with diverse populations outside of the classroom in an average school year. Participant responses follow a four-point Likert-type scale with a range from never (1) to very often (4). The hypothesis for the third research question was: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are significantly higher than members of social fraternities and sororities on the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale.

The data analysis procedure used to answer research question one was a two-way ANOVA, which discovered whether significant differences were found in mean scores at the $p \leq .05$ level. The researcher first determined whether significant differences in the mean scores of the interaction effects of gender and membership type for each question in the SRLS Citizenship Scale. If significant differences were found, a post hoc test was conducted to determine the simple effects for gender at each membership type. If no significant differences were found within the interaction of gender and membership types, the researcher then determined whether significant differences were found with the independent variables separately. Tukey's HSD post-hoc test was conducted to determine which portion of the independent variables was significant.

The results for the first question, "Talked about different lifestyles/customs," revealed a significant gender X membership type interaction ($F = 6.87$; $df = 1, 12,848$; $p = .0088$). The nature of this interaction is displayed in Table 26.1 in Appendix A.

Subsequent analyses demonstrated simple effects were found for gender at the cultural

membership level ($F = 26.53$; $df = 1, 12,848$; $p < .05$) and gender at the social

membership level ($F = 42.80$; $df = 1, 12,849$; $p < .05$). As Table 26.2 in Appendix A

shows, females scored significantly higher than men at both the cultural membership

level and the social membership level. The Cohen's d scores indicated a small effect size

for gender and the social membership level (-.121) and a very small effect size for gender

at the cultural membership level (-.276).

The results for the second question, "Held discussions with students whose

personal values were very different from your own," revealed a significant gender X

membership type interaction ($F = 5.71$; $df = 1, 12,848$; $p = .0169$). The nature of this

interaction is displayed in Table 27.1 in Appendix A. Subsequent analyses demonstrated

that there were simple effects for gender at the cultural membership level ($F = 6.98$; $df = 1, 12,848$; $p < .05$), but there were no simple effects for gender at the social

membership level ($F = 0.08$; $df = 1, 12,849$; $p > .05$). As Table 27.2 in Appendix A

shows, females scored significantly higher than men at the cultural membership level.

The Cohen's d scores indicated a very small effect size for gender at the cultural

membership level (-.138).

The results for the third question, "Discussed major social issues such as peace,

human rights, and justice," revealed a significant gender X membership type interaction

($F = 6.32$; $df = 1, 12,846$; $p = .0120$). The nature of this interaction is displayed in

Table 28.1 in Appendix A. Subsequent analyses demonstrated that simple effects were

found for gender at the social membership level ($F = 6.61$; $df = 1, 11,400$; $p < .05$), but no

simple effects were found for gender at the cultural membership level ($F = 3.03$; $df = 1$,

12,849; $p > .05$). As Table 28.2 in Appendix A shows, females scored significantly

higher than men at the social membership level. The Cohen's d scores indicated a very

small effect size for gender and the social membership level (.043).

The results for the fourth question, "Held discussions with students whose

religious beliefs were very different from your own," revealed a significant main effect

for only membership type ($F = 15.43$; $df = 1, 12,847$; $p < .0001$). The R^2 score showed a

weak relationship for membership type (.001) compared to the criterion variable. The

Cohen's d scores for membership type (.117) indicated a very small effect size among the

mean scores. The sample means are displayed in Table 29.2 in Appendix A. Tukey's

HSD test revealed that cultural members scored significantly higher than social members.

The main effect for gender was not significant ($F = 0.33$; $df = 1, 12,847$; $p = .5666$). The

interaction between gender and membership type also was not significant ($F = 1.13$;

$df = 1, 12,847$; $p = .2882$). The two-way ANOVA results are shown in Table 29.1 in

Appendix A.

The results for the fifth question, "Discussed your views about multiculturalism

and diversity" revealed a significant gender X membership type interaction ($F = 6.40$;

$df = 1, 12,844$; $p = .0114$). The nature of this interaction is displayed in Table 30.1 in

Appendix A. Subsequent analyses demonstrated that there were simple effects for gender

at the cultural membership level ($F = 7.885$; $df = 1, 12,847$; $p < .05$) but none at the

social membership level ($F = 1.06$; $df = 1, 12,847$; $p > .05$). As Table 30.2 in

Appendix A shows, females scored significantly higher than men at the cultural

membership level. The Cohen's d scores indicated a very small effect size for gender at

the cultural membership level (-.152).

The results for the sixth question, "Held discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from your own," revealed a significant gender X membership type interaction ($F = 5.69$; $df = 1, 12,846$; $p = .0171$). The nature of this interaction is displayed in Table 31.1 in Appendix A. Subsequent analyses demonstrated that simple effects were found for gender at the social membership level ($F = 10.73$; $df = 1, 12,849$; $p < .05$), but no simple effects for gender were found at the cultural membership level ($F = 1.83$; $df = 1, 12,849$; $p > .05$). As Table 31.2 in Appendix A shows, females scored higher than men at both the cultural membership level and the social membership level. The Cohen's d scores indicated a very small effect size for gender and the social membership level (.067).

Summary

The data analysis procedures revealed significant differences in gender and membership type main effects or gender X membership type interaction effects for each question in the SRLS Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. The R-squared scores for each question with significant main effects indicated weak relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Additionally, the Cohen's d scores ranged from very small to medium for the effect size of the means. The discussion of the results, implications for practice, and recommendations for further research will be addressed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the purpose, research design, and procedures as well as a discussion of the findings of this study. The researcher also addresses the limitations of the study, implications for further research, and implications and recommendations for practice.

The purpose of this study was to aid in the research of the positive effects of fraternity and sorority membership, with an analysis of the differences in civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The central research question for this study was: Are there significant differences as measured by the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) in civic engagement knowledge, skills, and dispositions among members of social versus cultural fraternities and sororities? Specifically, three research questions addressed the central question:

1. What are the differences in citizenship skills among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

2. What are the differences in social change behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

3. What are the differences in awareness of diverse populations and ideas among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities?

The research design for this study was a non-experimental quantitative study based on ex post facto or casual-comparative-research. The instruments used were the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale, which were a part of the

MSL. Data were analyzed using the SAS 9.3 software program for gender and membership type based on responses. The procedures were descriptive statistics about the participant characteristics, two-way ANOVA, and post hoc analyses, including Tukey's HSD and tests for simple effects. The final sample consisted of 12,857 participants of the 2009 MSL, which included 3,954 male members of social fraternities (30.75%), 7,453 female members of social sororities (57.97%), 533 male members of cultural fraternities (4.15%), and 917 female members of cultural sororities (7.13%).

Discussion of Results

Research Question One: Citizenship Skills

The first research question for this study was: What are the differences in citizenship skills among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The hypothesis for the first research question was: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are significantly higher than those for members of social fraternities and sororities on the SRLS Citizenship Scale. The SRLS Citizenship Scale consisted of 11 questions using a five-point Likert-type scale with a range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

An examination of the data revealed the same questions, ranking the highest and lowest across genders, membership types, and the four interactions of gender and membership type. The question ranking the highest was, "I am willing to act for the rights of others"; the lowest ranked question was, "I volunteer time to the community." The mean scores for the females were higher than the males for all 11 questions. These results are congruent with the results for Dugan's (2008) and Gerhardt's (2008) studies that utilized the SRLS Citizenship scale. Dugan's recommendations for future research

included analyzing the differences in social and cultural membership types. Members of cultural fraternities and sororities scored higher than members of social fraternities and sororities for all 11 questions. The female X cultural interaction had the highest mean scores for the 11 questions; whereas, the male X social interaction had the lowest mean scores for the11 questions.

The two-way ANOVA results revealed significant differences in mean scores for each question in the SRLS Citizenship Scale. The only question to show significant gender X membership type interaction effects was, "I have the power to make a difference in my community." Post hoc tests indicated simple effects for gender at both the social and cultural membership levels. Ten questions had significant main effects for both gender and membership type. "I am willing to act for the rights of others" was the only question to have a significant main effect for only gender.

In Jackson and Iverson's (2009) study, fraternity and sorority members felt more empowered about their sense of responsibility to their communities when citizenship was placed in greater importance in service projects. The mean scores for the SRLS Citizenship Scale indicated that, no matter the gender or membership level, the participants had a greater sense of agreement with "I have the power to make a difference in my community," compared to the empowerment and responsibility questions such as "I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public" and "I believe my work has a greater purpose for the larger community," which had mean scores below 4.0. The results suggest that, while members are confident in their abilities to enact positive change in their communities, they are either not aware of the overall impact of their

service to the greater community or are engaging in activities that properly connect them to community.

The findings of this study revealed that there are significant differences in the engagement of citizenship behaviors for members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities; however, the differences were found to be minor for gender, membership type, and the interaction of gender and membership. Even though significant differences were found for each question, the R-squared results indicated that predictions cannot be made about the relationship between gender and membership type compared to the questions in the SRLS Citizenship Scale. In addition, the Cohen's *d* scores ranged from very small to small effect sizes, which suggested that the differences in mean scores were minimal, even though significance was found. Future research should determine whether other factors predict citizenship behaviors in social and cultural fraternities and sororities.

Research Question Two: Social Change Behaviors

The second research question for this study was: What are the differences in social change behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The hypothesis for the second research question was: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are significantly higher than those for members of social fraternities and sororities on the Social Change Behaviors Scale. The Social Change Behaviors Scale contained 10 questions using a four-point Likert-type scale with a range from never (1) to very often (4).

An examination of the data revealed the same questions ranking the highest and lowest across genders, membership types, and the four interactions of gender and membership type. The question ranking the highest was, "Performed community

service," and the lowest was, "Took part in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration." The mean scores for the females were higher than the males for all questions, with the exception of "Communicated with campus or community leaders about a pressing concern." Chowdhry's (2010) study recommended controlling for cultural fraternity and sorority membership to understand differences in the Social Change Behaviors Scale. Members of cultural fraternities and sororities scored higher than members of social fraternities and sororities for all 10 questions. The rankings of mean scores varied for gender X membership type interactions.

The two-way ANOVA results revealed significant differences in mean scores for each question in the Social Change Behaviors Scale. The only question to show significant gender X membership type interaction effects was, "Been actively involved with an organization that addresses a social or environmental problem." Post hoc tests indicated simple effects for gender at the social membership level. Four questions had significant main effects for both gender and membership type, while the remaining five had only one main effect for either gender or membership.

The mean scores of the Social Change Behavior Scale for gender, membership type, and the interaction of gender and membership type indicate that social change is not the preferred method of service for fraternity and sorority members. These results are similar to the study by Bringle et al. (cited in Bringle et al., 1996) that students prefer service and philanthropy projects over social change programs, but the comparisons for the gender and membership type interaction do not fully support Kimbrough's (2003a) assertion of opposing values in service. While the male and female members of cultural fraternities and sororities reported engaging in social change behaviors in greater

frequency than their social counterparts, the differences in mean scores were small due to effect size scores.

The findings of this study revealed that there are significant differences in the engagement of social change behaviors for members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities; however, the differences were found to be minor for gender, membership type, and the interaction of gender and membership. Even though significant differences were found for each question, the R-squared results indicated that predictions cannot be made about the relationship between gender and membership type compared to the questions in the Social Change Behaviors Scale. The Cohen's *d* scores ranged from very small to small effect sizes, which suggested that the differences in mean scores were minimal, even though significance was found. Future research should determine whether other factors predict social change behaviors in social and cultural fraternities and sororities.

Research Question Three: Diversity

The third research question for this study was: What are the differences in awareness of diverse populations and ideas among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities? The hypothesis for the third research question was: Means for members of cultural fraternities and sororities are significantly higher than those for members of social fraternities and sororities on the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. The Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale contained six questions using a four-point Likert-type scale with a range from never (1) to very often (4).

An examination of the data revealed the same questions ranking the highest and lowest across genders, membership types, and the four interactions of gender and membership type. "Talked about different lifestyles and customs" was the question that

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ranked first for all categories except males and the male X social membership level. "Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity" ranked last for all categories except the cultural membership level and the male and female interactions with the cultural membership level. The female X cultural interaction had the highest mean scores for all questions, with the exception of "Held discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from yours," which was the highest score for the male X social membership level. The male X cultural interaction had the second highest mean scores for all six questions.

The two-way ANOVA results revealed significant differences in mean scores for each question in the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. Five out of the six questions found significant gender X membership type interaction effects. Post hoc tests indicated simple effects for gender at both the social and cultural membership levels for "Talked about different lifestyles/customs." Simple effects for gender at only the social membership level were found for "Discussed major social issues such as peace, human rights, and justice" and "Held discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from your own." Simple effects for gender at only the cultural membership level were found for "Held discussions with students whose personal values were very different from your own" and "Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity." The remaining question, "Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity," had only main effects for membership type.

Past research revealed negative effects on fraternity and sorority members' racial understanding and openness to diversity (Antonio, 2001a; Milem, 1994; Nelson Laird, 2005; Pascarella et al., 1996), which possibly could be attributed to the residential nature

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of social fraternities and sororities on many campuses (Milem, 1994). The mean scores

for the male and female members of social fraternities and sororities in the Socio-Cultural

Discussions Scale suggest that these members are more comfortable in discussing

differences in politics, personal values, and lifestyles, compared to multiculturalism and

diversity, religious differences, and social issues. Pascarella et al. (1996) stated that

fraternity and sorority membership had negative effects for White students but had

positive effects for non-White students. Though this study did not account for racial

backgrounds within membership type, further studies should determine whether

significant differences exist by creating an additional interaction variable of racial

background X membership type. Additional factors to consider in future studies include

the environment where socio-cultural discussions take place and a comparison of

residential versus non-residential social fraternities and sororities.

The findings from this study revealed significant differences in the engagement of

diversity behaviors for members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities;

however, the differences were found to be minor for gender, membership type, and the

interaction of gender and membership. Even though significant differences were found

for each question, the R-squared results indicated that predictions cannot be made about

the relationship between gender and membership type, compared to the questions in the

Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. The Cohen's *d* scores ranged from very small to small

effect sizes, which suggested that the differences in mean scores were minimal, even

though significance was found. Future research should determine whether other factors

predict engagement with diversity in social and cultural fraternities and sororities.

<center>**Implications**</center>

Implications for Practice

  An examination of the ranking of mean scores for questions that were similar in the SRLS Citizenship Scale and the Social Change Behaviors Scale revealed interesting results. While "Performed community service" was ranked first in the Social Change Behaviors Scale for each gender, membership type, and interaction, "I volunteer my time to the community" ranked 11th across all categories in the SRLS Citizenship Scale. Inverted rankings also were found with "I am willing to act for the rights of others" ranking first in the SRLS Citizenship Scale, but "Worked with others to address social inequality" ranked 8th for the cultural membership level and 9th for the social membership level and both genders. The incongruent rankings suggested that aspired values conflict with enacted values, since the SRLS Citizenship Scale measures level of agreement to a series of belief statements and behaviors, compared to the Social Change Behaviors Scale measuring frequency of performance.

  The mean scores for the Social Change Behaviors Scale and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale were compared, since both scales used the same four-point Likert-type scale with a range from never (1) to very often (4). The results indicated that participants exhibited more behaviors associated with the Socio-Discussions Scale, since no mean score for any gender, membership type, or interaction fell below 2.561. Seven questions on the Social Change Behaviors Scale under the gender, social membership level, and male and female X social membership interactions had mean scores below 2.5. The cultural membership level and the male and female X cultural membership interactions had at least six questions with mean scores above 2.5. These results did not align with

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the belief that fundamental differences exist between social and cultural organization regarding service (Kimbrough, 2003a).

Implications for Future Research

The results of this study provide practitioners with baseline measurements for civic engagement behaviors exhibited by members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The study's findings are one step toward the answer to Dr. Komives' challenge to the Association of Fraternity/Sorority Advisors to provide empirical evidence of the impact of fraternity and sorority membership on enhancing civic engagement within communities (Bureau & Leung, 2012). While the current study helped to contribute to existing research on the impact of civic engagement of members of fraternities and sororities, the review of literature and results of the study influenced the following implications for future research.

The data from this study was from the 2009 administration of the MSL, which was the most recent dataset available for research outside of the MSL research committee. The researcher recommends a longitudinal study that incorporates data from the 2010, 2011, and 2012 MSL surveys and utilizes the same research questions from this study. A longitudinal study will allow practitioners to better understand the trends associated with citizenship, social change, and diversity in fraternities and sororities.

Since the R-squared results indicated that gender and membership type were not predictors of civic engagement, additional research should look into other factors that predict behaviors. Recommendations from past studies that utilized MSL data (Chowdhry, 2010; Dugan, 2008; Gerhardt, 2008) could be incorporated in future research, including pre-college leadership and civic involvement, the amount and variety

of organizations joined in addition to fraternity and sorority membership, leadership roles help within and outside of the chapter, and a control group consisting of non-members. In addition to these recommendations, the researcher suggests five factors for consideration as potential predictors. Academic year classification should be analyzed to determine whether the frequency of exhibited behaviors changes based on years of membership. Carnegie classification also could be addressed to determine if campus environment influences behaviors. Factors such as socioeconomic status and fraternal legacy status could determine what influence family background has on levels of engagement. Finally, the diversity within the cultural membership type in this study indicates a need to learn more about the interaction of racial group and membership type.

The research questions for this study sought to understand the differences in behaviors demonstrated by members; however, the questions and scales did not address to what degree membership in a fraternity or sorority influenced the frequency of behaviors. Future research should be conducted to address this question, with the creation of new scales that provide consistent coding across the factors to measure behaviors, as the three scales included in this study utilized three different forms of measurement. The SRLS Citizenship Scale provided information about participants' beliefs on aspects of citizenship, but additional questions need to be asked about frequency of behaviors associated with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions encompassing citizenship. The scales should provide questions to measure the same time frame the Social Change Behaviors Scale asked related to engaging in activities throughout the entire college experience, while the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale asked about engagement during an average school year. Additionally, none of the scales

included a question about donating money to non-profit organizations, which would correspond to the philanthropic aspect of fraternity and sorority civic engagement.

The final recommendation for future research focuses on the development of civic engagement competencies, specifically with the male members of social fraternities. In this study, the data revealed that the social males had the lowest ranked mean scores for the 11 questions in the SRLS Citizenship Scale, 7 out of the 10 questions in the Social Change Behaviors Scale, and 3 out of 6 questions in the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. The results are consistent with Godwin's (2011) findings that social fraternities holding membership in the North-American Interfraternity Conference (NIC) have not made significant gains in incorporating civic engagement principles into their programming outcomes since the implementation of the NIC Standards. The researcher calls for a review of the programs sponsored by the 75 member organizations of the NIC to determine which organizations are addressing civic engagement and social change with their members. This study could utilize several research designs, including program evaluation and a qualitative analysis of themes that emerge from the fraternities' learning outcomes.

Limitations

Several limitations should be acknowledged while interpreting the results of this study. The data used was gleaned from the 2009 administration of the MSL. Since the MSL places a three-year embargo on its data for external research, the researcher was unable to use more recent data from either the 2010, 2011, or 2012 surveys. The results from the subsequent survey could yield different trends than the results from the 2009 survey.

The population used in this study was limited to only participants who indicated membership in either a social or cultural fraternity or sorority. Since no comparison or control group consisting of non-members was utilized, the researcher was unable to determine whether membership in a fraternity or sorority, no matter the type, could be used as a predictor for increased frequency of civic engagement behaviors.

The classification of membership type was a limitation because it does not appropriately depict the diversity included within the cultural membership level. This membership group includes the historically Black, Latino, Asian, and multicultural Greek-letter organizations; whereas, the social membership level includes the historically White fraternities and sororities. Assumptions cannot be made about racial backgrounds within the membership types, especially because White students made up 34.8% of the cultural membership in the study, which was the largest racial group percentage.

Finally, caution should be used when interpreting the mean scores of the behaviors within the Social Change Behaviors Scale and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale, as respondents may not have used the same interpretation to assign a value for their frequency of participation. These scales used ordinal values of sometimes, often, and very often. The scales could have been better interpreted had interval values been assigned to quantify involvement.

Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, the researcher has identified recommendations for both the MSL research committee and practitioners who work with fraternities and sororities. The recommendations for campus-based advisors and professionals working at fraternity and sorority headquarters could be used to increase the frequency of civic

engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The suggestions for the MSL research committee could be used to provide consistence across the scales and enhance the research agenda for the organization.

The SRLS Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale provide educators with quantitative data about civic engagement trends among college students. The Association of Fraternity/Sorority Advisors should establish a partnership with the MSL to include civic engagement on its research agenda. This research partnership will allow both organizations to obtain longitudinal data to aid in program development for this population.

The results from this study indicated that males and females in cultural fraternities and sororities felt more empowered about their responsibilities to their communities and that they saw value in the work they provided compared to their counterparts in social organizations. Practitioners who work primarily with social fraternities and sororities need to assist these members in realizing the worth of their service and philanthropy projects to the greater community. Rather than focusing on the quantity of dollars raised or hours performed as a form of assessment, campuses and national organizations should emphasize quality experiences and measure the learning that is gained through service and philanthropy.

With the results indicating that the activities in the Social Change Behaviors Scale were not being performed as often as those within the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale, practitioners should make a concerted effort to educate all members of fraternities and sororities about social justice. The researcher suggests the creation of a social justice symposium to take place at the Association of Fraternity/Sorority Advisors Annual

Meeting to initiate discussions with stakeholders about the role of social justice in programming outcomes. Another purpose of this symposium would be to create a social change programming model specifically geared toward fraternities and sororities and to establish a standing committee that would focus on furthering research in this area. Additionally, AFA should create a resource manual for campus-based professionals to include best practices for implementing social change within the fraternity and sorority community.

The final recommendation for campus-based professionals is to create opportunities for social and cultural fraternities and sororities to have purposeful collaborations that enhance members' multicultural competence. The study's findings revealed that all members could improve on their discussions on diversity, religion, politics, and social issues. The researcher suggests implementing the competencies and learning outcomes recommended by Gurin et al. (2002) and Milem (1994) to prepare fraternity and sorority members for a heterogeneous society. These collaborative efforts could assist social and cultural organizations to achieve the diverse fraternal learning community advocated by Boschini and Thompson (1998).

The researcher recommends that the MSL research committee conduct an evaluation of the three scales used in this study in order to provide a more consistent outlook on reported behaviors. The Social Change Behaviors Scale and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale both utilize a four-point scale, but they do not measure the same time frame. The MSL committee should determine whether the academic year or an assessment of the entire college experience is more important and use the same time frame for both scales. Additionally, since the SRLS Citizenship Scale is not an

independent instrument, a new survey should be developed with a matching four-point scale to assess civic engagement behaviors rather than belief statements.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to aid in the research of the positive effects of fraternity and sorority membership, with an analysis of the differences in civic engagement behaviors among members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The results of the data analysis procedures revealed significant differences between social and cultural fraternities and sororities on the SRLS Citizenship Scale, Social Change Behaviors Scale, and the Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale. However, post-hoc testing indicated that gender and membership type were not strong enough predictors of civic engagement behaviors. Even though practitioners believe that social and cultural organizations have fundamental differences in the ways they view civic engagement, due to the philanthropic versus social justice-oriented service initiatives, the results suggested that the gender and membership differences are small. The findings of this study add to the existing literature and research on civic engagement behaviors of members of social and cultural fraternities and sororities. The opportunities to expand the research in this topic are plentiful, and future studies should analyze additional factors that predict behaviors in citizenship, social change, and diversity.

APPENDIX A: TABLES

Table 1

SRLS Citizenship Scale Items (Question #20 on MSL Instrument)

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20. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following items:

> 1 = Strongly Disagree   4 = Agree
> 2 = Disagree   5 = Strongly Agree
> 3 = Neutral

I believe I have responsibilities to my community.	1 2 3 4 5
I give time to making a difference for someone else.	1 2 3 4 5
I work with others to make my communities better places.	1 2 3 4 5
I have the power to make a difference in my community.	1 2 3 4 5
I am willing to act for the rights of others.	1 2 3 4 5
I participate in activities that contribute to the common good.	1 2 3 4 5
I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public.	1 2 3 4 5
I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community.	1 2 3 4 5
It is important to me that I play an active role in my communities.	1 2 3 4 5
I volunteer my time to the community.	1 2 3 4 5
I believe my work has a greater purpose for the larger community.	1 2 3 4 5

Table 2

Social Change Behaviors Scale Items (Question #14 on MSL Instrument)

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14. How often have you engaged in the following activities *during your college experience*?

1 = Never	3 = Often
2 = Sometimes	4 = Very Often

Performed community service	1 2 3 4
Acted to benefit the common good or protect the environment	1 2 3 4
Been actively involved with an organization that addresses a social or environmental problem	1 2 3 4
Been actively involved with an organization that addresses the concerns of a specific community (ex. academic council, neighborhood association)	1 2 3 4
Communicated with campus or community leaders about a pressing concern	1 2 3 4
Took action in the community to try to address a social or environmental problem	1 2 3 4
Worked with others to make the campus or community a better place	1 2 3 4
Acted to raise awareness about a campus, community or global problem	1 2 3 4
Took part in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration	1 2 3 4
Worked with others to address social inequality	1 2 3 4

Table 3

Socio-Cultural Discussions Scale Items (Question #18 on MSL Instrument)

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18. During interactions with other students outside of class, how often have you done each of the following in an average school year?

1 = Never	3 = Often
2 = Sometimes	4 = Very Often

Talked about different lifestyles/customs   1 2 3 4

Held discussions with students whose personal values   1 2 3 4
Were very different from your own

Discussed major social issues such as peace, human rights,   1 2 3 4
and justice

Held discussions with students whose religious beliefs were   1 2 3 4
very different from your own

Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity   1 2 3 4

Held discussions with students whose political opinions were   1 2 3 4
very different from your own

Table 4.1

Racial Background of Males by Membership Type

Racial Background	Male x Cultural		Male x Social	
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*
White/Caucasian	181	34.0	3,284	83.2
Middle Eastern	11	2.1	15	0.4
African American/Black	87	16.4	73	1.8
American Indian/Alaska Native	4	0.8	11	0.3
Asian American/Asian	119	22.4	168	4.3
Latino/Hispanic	52	9.8	110	2.8
Multiracial	63	11.8	255	6.5
Race/Ethnicity not included above	15	2.8	30	0.8
All Participants	532	100.0	3,946	100.0

Table 4.2

Racial Background of Females by Membership Type

Racial Background	Female x Cultural		Female x Social	
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*
White/Caucasian	323	35.3	6,428	86.4
Middle Eastern	9	1.0	19	0.3
African American/Black	171	18.7	89	1.2
American Indian/Alaska Native	8	0.9	29	0.4
Asian American/Asian	164	17.9	213	2.9
Latino/Hispanic	106	11.6	160	2.1
Multiracial	115	12.6	458	6.2
Race/Ethnicity not included above	19	2.1	47	0.6
All Participants	915	100.0	7,443	100.0

Table 5.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I believe I have responsibilities to my community."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	42.93	42.93	77.65*	.005
Membership Type	1	22.84	22.84	41.32*	.003
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	1.67	1.67	3.02	.000
Within Groups	12,853	7,106.93	0.55		
Total	12,856	7,267.76			

Note. N = 12,857
* $p < .0001$

Table5.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I believe I have responsibilities to my community."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	4.02	0.75
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.97	0.82
Women	8,370	4.09	0.70
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	4.13	0.78
Social	11,407	4.00	0.75
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	4.03	0.88
Male x Social	3,954	3.85	0.81
Female x Cultural	917	4.18	0.71
Female x Social	7,453	4.08	0.70

Table 6.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I give time to making a difference for someone else."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R²
Gender	1	34.99	34.99	76.74*	.005
Membership Type	1	2.46	2.46	5.40**	.000
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.22	0.22	0.50	.000
Within Groups	12,853	5861.52	0.45		
Total	12,856	5960.23			

Note. N = 12,857
* $p < .0001$
**$p = .0201$

Table 6.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I give time to making a difference for someone else."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	4.06	0.68
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.94	0.72
Women	8,370	4.13	0.65
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	4.10	0.72
Social	11,407	4.06	0.68
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	4.00	0.79
Male x Social	3,954	3.94	0.71
Female x Cultural	917	4.15	0.67
Female x Social	7,453	4.12	0.65

Table 7.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I work with others to make my communities better places."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R²
Gender	1	34.03	34.03	60.03*	.004
Membership Type	1	32.28	33.28	58.71*	.004
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.12	0.12	0.21	.000
Within Groups	12,853	7,286.82	0.56		
Total	12,856	7,411.27			

Note. N = 12,857
* *p* < .0001

Table 7.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I work with others to make my communities better places."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	3.85	0.76
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.73	0.81
Women	8,370	3.91	0.72
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	3.99	0.80
Social	11,407	3.83	0.75
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	3.89	0.88
Male x Social	3,954	3.71	0.79
Female x Cultural	917	4.05	0.74
Female x Social	7,453	3.89	0.72

Table 8.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I have the power to make a difference in my community."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	22.64	22.64	43.31	.003
Membership Type	1	3.34	3.34	6.40	.000
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	2.83	2.83	5.42*	.000
Within Groups	12,853	6,270.49	0.52		
Total	12,856	6,757.98			

Note. N = 12,857
*p = .0199

Table 8.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I have the power to make a difference in my community."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	4.08	0.73
Gender			
Men	4,487	4.02	0.77
Women	8,370	4.12	0.70
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	4.14	0.81
Social	11,407	4.07	0.71
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	4.02	0.90
Male x Social	3,954	4.02	0.75
Female x Cultural	917	4.21	0.74
Female x Social	7,453	4.11	0.69

Table 9.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I am willing to act for the rights of others."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	26.73	26.73	62.18*	.004
Membership Type	1	1.64	1.64	3.83	.000
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	1.33	1.33	3.12	.000
Within Groups	12,853	5,525.86	0.42		
Total	12,856	5,574.50			

Note. $N = 12,857$
* $p < .0001$

Table 9.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I am willing to act for the rights of others."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	4.15	0.66
Gender			
Men	4,487	4.06	0.71
Women	8,370	4.19	0.63
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	4.18	0.71
Social	11,407	4.14	0.65
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	4.07	0.80
Male x Social	3,954	4.06	0.70
Female x Cultural	917	4.25	0.65
Female x Social	7,453	4.18	0.62

Table 10.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I participate in activities that contribute to the common good."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	27.05	27.05	59.69*	.004
Membership Type	1	8.89	8.89	19.63*	.001
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.24	0.24	0.54	.000
Within Groups	12,853	5,825.67	0.45		
Total	12,856	5,892.60			

Note. N = 12,857
* *p* < .0001

Table 10.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I participate in activities that contribute to the common good."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	4.05	0.68
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.96	0.73
Women	8,370	4.10	0.64
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	4.12	0.73
Social	11,407	4.04	0.67
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	4.02	0.81
Male x Social	3,954	3.95	0.72
Female x Cultural	917	4.19	0.68
Female x Social	7,453	4.08	0.64

Table 11.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	26.66	26.66	42.59*	.003
Membership Type	1	26.97	26.97	43.08*	.003
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.45	0.45	0.72	.000
Within Groups	12,853	8,047.57	0.62		
Total	12,856	8,152.90			

Note. N = 12,857
* $p < .0001$

Table 11.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I believe I have a civic responsibility to the greater public."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	3.88	0.80
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.77	0.87
Women	8,370	3.93	0.75
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	4.00	0.82
Social	11,407	3.86	0.79
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	3.92	0.88
Male x Social	3,954	3.75	0.86
Female x Cultural	917	4.05	0.78
Female x Social	7,453	3.92	0.75

Table 12.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	57.58	57.58	116.57*	.008
Membership Type	1	15.46	15.46	31.30*	.002
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.13	0.13	0.27	.000
Within Groups	12,853	6,348.92	0.49		
Total	12,856	6,515.17			

Note. N = 12,857
* p < .0001

Table 12.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	3.99	0.71
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.84	0.76
Women	8,370	4.07	0.67
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	4.08	0.74
Social	11,407	3.97	0.71
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	3.95	0.84
Male x Social	3,954	3.82	0.75
Female x Cultural	917	4.16	0.67
Female x Social	7,453	4.05	0.67

Table 13.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "It is important to me that I play an active role in my communities."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	62.82	62.82	102.27*	.007
Membership Type	1	27.49	27.49	44.75*	.003
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.09	0.09	0.16	.000
Within Groups	12,853	7,895.89	0.61		
Total	12,856	8,086.12			

Note. N = 12,857
* p < .0001

Table 13.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "It is important to me that I play an active role in my communities."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	3.84	0.79
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.69	0.84
Women	8,370	3.92	0.75
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	3.97	0.81
Social	11,407	3.82	0.79
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	3.83	0.88
Male x Social	3,954	3.67	0.83
Female x Cultural	917	4.05	0.74
Female x Social	7,453	3.90	0.75

Table 14.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I volunteer my time to the community."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	73.93	73.93	95.51*	.007
Membership Type	1	51.82	51.82	66.95*	.005
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.50	0.50	0.65	.000
Within Groups	12,853	9,949.46	0.77		
Total	12,856	10,204.77			

Note. N = 12,857
* *p* < .0001

Table 14.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I volunteer my time to the community."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	3.67	0.89
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.50	0.92
Women	8,370	3.77	0.86
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	3.85	0.88
Social	11,407	3.65	0.89
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	3.70	0.92
Male x Social	3,954	3.48	0.92
Female x Cultural	917	3.93	0.85
Female x Social	7,453	3.74	0.86

Table 15.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "I believe my work has a greater purpose for the larger community."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	37.48	37.48	62.60*	.004
Membership Type	1	31.78	31.78	53.08*	.004
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.42	0.42	0.71	.000
Within Groups	12,853	7,696.50	0.59		
Total	12,856	7,809.32			

Note. N = 12,857
* p < .0001

Table 15.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "I believe my work has a greater purpose for the larger community."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	3.84	0.78
Gender			
Men	4,487	3.74	0.83
Women	8,370	3.90	0.74
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	3.99	0.79
Social	11,407	3.82	0.78
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	3.86	0.88
Male x Social	3,954	3.72	0.82
Female x Cultural	917	4.06	0.72
Female x Social	7,453	3.88	0.74

Table 16.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Performed community service."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	53.94	53.94	89.73*	.006
Membership Type	1	0.25	0.25	0.43	.000
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.65	0.65	1.09	.000
Within Groups	12,853	7,727.46	0.60		
Total	12,856	7,839.12			

Note. N = 12,857
* *p* < .0001

Table 16.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Performed community service."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,857	3.10	0.78
Gender			
Men	4,487	2.98	0.82
Women	8.370	3.17	0.75
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	3.12	0.84
Social	11,407	3.10	0.77
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.97	0.90
Male x Social	3,954	2.98	0.80
Female x Cultural	917	3.21	0.80
Female x Social	7,453	3.17	0.75

Table 17.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Acted to benefit the common good or protect the environment."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	29.33	29.33	40.54*	.003
Membership Type	1	13.90	13.90	19.22*	.001
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.52	0.52	0.73	.000
Within Groups	12,852	9,300.43	0.72		
Total	12,855	9,400.87			

Note. N = 12,856
* p < .0001

Table 17.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Acted to benefit the common good or protect the environment."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,856	2.91	0.86
Gender			
Men	4,487	2.80	0.89
Women	8.369	2.97	0.83
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	3.00	0.88
Social	11,406	2.90	0.85
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.91	0.91
Male x Social	3,954	2.78	0.88
Female x Cultural	917	3.05	0.86
Female x Social	7,452	2.96	0.83

Table 18.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Been actively involved with an organization that addresses a social or environmental problem."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	6.67	6.67	5.74	.000
Membership Type	1	215.87	215.87	185.46	.014
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	9.27	9.27	7.96*	.000
Within Groups	12,849	14,955.88	1.16		
Total	12,852	15,228.99			

Note. N = 12,853
*p = .0048

Table 18.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Been actively involved with an organization that addresses a social or environmental problem."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,853	2.45	1.09
Gender			
Men	4,484	2.36	1.09
Women	8.369	2.50	1.09
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	2.80	1.03
Social	11,403	2.40	1.09
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.81	1.02
Male x Social	3,951	2.30	1.08
Female x Cultural	917	2.80	1.04
Female x Social	7,452	2.46	1.09

Table 19.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Been actively involved with an organization that addresses the concerns of a specific community (ex. academic council, neighborhood association)."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	3.04	3.04	2.31	.000
Membership Type	1	200.85	200.85	151.88*	.011
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	3.15	3.15	2.39	.000
Within Groups	12,850	16,993.77	1.32		
Total	12,853	17,221.08			

Note. N = 12,854
* $p < .0001$

Table 19.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Been actively involved with an organization that addresses the concerns of a specific community (ex. academic council, neighborhood association)."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,854	2.32	1.16
Gender			
Men	4,485	2.27	1.14
Women	8.369	2.35	1.16
Membership			
Cultural	1,449	2.67	1.12
Social	11,405	2.28	1.15
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	532	2.67	1.08
Male x Social	3,953	2.21	1.14
Female x Cultural	917	2.67	1.15
Female x Social	7,452	2.31	1.16

Table 20.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Communicated with campus or community leaders about a pressing concern."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	13.61	13.61	11.71**	.000
Membership Type	1	126.46	126.46	108.76*	.008
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.65	0.65	0.56	.000
Within Groups	12,851	14,943.04	1.16		
Total	12,854	15,133.21			

Note. N = 12,855
* $p < .0001$
** $p = .0006$

Table 20.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Communicated with campus or community leaders about a pressing concern."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,855	2.16	1.09
Gender			
Men	4,487	2.24	1.10
Women	8.368	2.11	1.08
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	2.45	1.10
Social	11,405	2.12	1.08
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.51	1.08
Male x Social	3,954	2.20	1.09
Female x Cultural	917	2.42	1.11
Female x Social	7,451	2.07	1.07

Table 21.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Took action in the community to try to address a social or environmental problem."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	0.04	0.04	0.04	.000
Membership Type	1	195.22	195.22	192.17*	.014
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	1.11	1.11	1.10	.000
Within Groups	12,851	13,055.39	1.01		
Total	12,854	13,259.09			

Note. N = 12,855
* *p* < .0001

Table 21.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Took action in the community to try to address a social or environmental problem."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,855	2.02	1.02
Gender			
Men	4,487	2.01	1.00
Women	8.368	2.03	1.02
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	2.37	1.04
Social	11,405	1.92	1.00
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.40	1.02
Male x Social	3,954	1.96	0.99
Female x Cultural	917	2.36	1.05
Female x Social	7,451	1.99	1.01

Table 22.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Worked with others to make the campus or community a better place."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	6.95	6.95	7.25**	.000
Membership Type	1	35.07	35.07	36.54*	.002
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.09	0.09	0.10	.000
Within Groups	12,852	12,337.04	0.95		
Total	12,855	12,389.48			

Note. $N = 12,856$
* $p < .0001$
** $p = .0071$

Table 22.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Worked with others to make the campus or community a better place."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,856	2.73	0.98
Gender			
Men	4,487	2.68	0.98
Women	8.369	2.75	0.98
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	2.88	0.96
Social	11,406	2.71	0.98
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.83	0.96
Male x Social	3,954	2.66	0.99
Female x Cultural	917	2.91	0.96
Female x Social	7,452	2.73	0.98

Table 23.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Acted to raise awareness about a campus, community, or global problem."

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	R^2
Gender	1	25.61	25.61	22.18*	.001
Membership Type	1	152.07	152.07	131.67*	.010
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	3.85	3.85	3.34	.000
Within Groups	12,851	14,842.79	1.15		
Total	12,854	15,099.12			

Note. N = 12,855
* *p* < .0001

Table 23.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Acted to raise awareness about a campus, community, or global problem."

Grouping	*N*	*M*	*SD*
All Participants	12,855	2.33	1.08
Gender			
Men	4,487	2.21	1.07
Women	8.368	2.39	1.08
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	2.63	1.07
Social	11,405	2.29	1.08
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.57	1.04
Male x Social	3,954	2.16	1.07
Female x Cultural	917	2.66	1.09
Female x Social	7,451	2.36	1.08

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Table 24.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Took part in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	1.54	1.54	2.17	.000
Membership Type	1	274.25	274.25	385.08*	.029
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.87	0.87	1.22	.000
Within Groups	12,852	9,153.23	0.71		
Total	12,855	9,442.01			

Note. $N = 12,856$
* $p < .0001$

Table 24.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Took part in a protest, rally, march, or demonstration."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,856	1.56	0.86
Gender			
Men	4,487	1.57	0.87
Women	8.369	1.55	0.85
Membership			
Cultural	1,449	1.98	1.06
Social	11,407	1.50	0.81
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.02	1.05
Male x Social	3,954	1.51	0.82
Female x Cultural	916	1.95	1.07
Female x Social	7,453	1.50	0.81

Table 25.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Worked with others to address social inequality."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	2.59	2.59	2.58	.000
Membership Type	1	439.66	439.66	437.36*	.032
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	3.25	3.25	3.23	.000
Within Groups	12,851	12,918.70	1.00		
Total	12,854	13,393.69			

Note. N = 12,855
* *p* < .0001

Table 25.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Worked with others to address social inequality."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,855	1.89	1.02
Gender			
Men	4,487	1.84	1.00
Women	8.368	1.92	1.03
Membership			
Cultural	1,450	2.42	1.11
Social	11,405	1.83	0.99
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.42	1.07
Male x Social	3,954	1.76	0.96
Female x Cultural	917	2.42	1.13
Female x Social	7,451	1.86	1.00

Table 26.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Talked about different lifestyles/customs."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	33.81	33.81	49.92	.003
Membership Type	1	28.16	28.16	41.57	.003
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	4.65	4.65	6.87*	.000
Within Groups	12,848	8,703.74	0.67		
Total	12,851	8,786.94			

Note. N = 12,852
**p* = .0088

Table 26.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Talked about different lifestyles/customs."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,852	2.97	0.83
Gender			
Men	4,484	2.89	0.83
Women	8.368	3.01	0.82
Membership			
Cultural	1,449	3.12	0.82
Social	11,403	2.95	0.83
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.97	0.88
Male x Social	3,951	2.88	0.83
Female x Cultural	916	3.20	0.78
Female x Social	7,452	2.98	0.82

Table 27.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Held discussions with students whose personal values were very different from your own."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	4.67	4.67	6.68	.000
Membership Type	1	9.98	9.98	14.26	.001
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	3.99	3.99	5.71*	.000
Within Groups	12,848	8,994.07	0.70		
Total	12,851	9,013.66			

Note. N = 12,852
*p = .0169

Table 27.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Held discussions with students whose personal values were very different from your own."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,852	2.94	0.84
Gender			
Men	4,483	2.93	0.84
Women	8.369	2.95	0.84
Membership			
Cultural	1,449	3.04	0.86
Social	11,403	2.93	0.83
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.96	0.87
Male x Social	3,950	2.93	0.83
Female x Cultural	916	3.08	0.86
Female x Social	7,453	2.93	0.83

Table 28.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Discussed major social issues such as peace, human rights, and justice."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	0.48	0.48	0.59	.000
Membership Type	1	32.50	32.50	39.10	.003
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	5.25	5.25	6.32*	.000
Within Groups	12,846	10,681.37	0.83		
Total	12,849	10,732.80			

Note. N = 12,850
*p = .0120

Table 28.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Discussed major social issues such as peace, human rights, and justice."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,850	2.68	0.91
Gender			
Men	4,482	2.71	0.91
Women	8.368	2.67	0.91
Membership			
Cultural	1,448	2.85	0.93
Social	11,402	2.66	0.91
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	532	2.79	0.94
Male x Social	3,950	2.69	0.91
Female x Cultural	916	2.88	0.92
Female x Social	7,452	2.65	0.91

Table 29.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Held discussions with students whose religious beliefs were very different from your own."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	0.28	0.28	0.33	.000
Membership Type	1	13.32	13.32	15.43*	.001
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	0.97	0.97	1.13	.000
Within Groups	12,847	11,097.65	0.86		
Total	12,850	11,115.33			

Note. N = 12,851
* p < .0001

Table 29.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Held discussions with students whose religious beliefs were very different from your own."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,851	2.66	0.93
Gender			
Men	4,484	2.67	0.93
Women	8.367	2.66	0.93
Membership			
Cultural	1,449	2.76	0.95
Social	11,402	2.65	0.93
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.74	0.96
Male x Social	3,951	2.66	0.93
Female x Cultural	916	2.78	0.95
Female x Social	7,451	2.65	0.93

Table 30.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	6.20	6.20	7.57	.000
Membership Type	1	207.16	207.16	252.68	.019
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	5.24	5.24	6.40*	.000
Within Groups	12,844	10,530.60	0.81		
Total	12,847	10,779.40			

Note. N = 12, 848
*p = .0114

Table 30.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Discussed your views about multiculturalism and diversity."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,848	2.61	0.92
Gender			
Men	4,482	2.60	0.92
Women	8.366	2.62	0.91
Membership			
Cultural	1,447	3.00	0.91
Social	11,401	2.56	0.90
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.91	0.95
Male x Social	3,949	2.56	0.91
Female x Cultural	914	3.05	0.89
Female x Social	7,452	2.57	0.90

Table 31.1

ANOVA Summary Table for "Held discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from your own."

Source	df	SS	MS	F	R^2
Gender	1	0.02	0.02	0.03	.000
Membership Type	1	14.53	14.53	18.09	.001
Gender x Membership Type Interaction	1	4.57	4.57	5.69*	.000
Within Groups	12,846	10,322.51	0.80		
Total	12,849	10,343.69			

Note. N = 12,850
*p = .0171

Table 31.2

Means and Standard Deviations for "Held discussions with students whose political opinions were very different from your own."

Grouping	N	M	SD
All Participants	12,850	2.90	0.90
Gender			
Men	4,482	2.93	0.90
Women	8.368	2.89	0.89
Membership			
Cultural	1,449	2.82	0.95
Social	11,401	2.91	0.89
Interaction			
Male x Cultural	533	2.78	0.97
Male x Social	3,949	2.95	0.89
Female x Cultural	916	2.84	0.94
Female x Social	7,452	2.89	0.89

APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL LETTER

![WKU logo]

A LEADING AMERICAN UNIVERSITY WITH INTERNATIONAL REACH
OFFICE OF COMPLIANCE

DATE: July 24, 2012

TO: Gary Wiser
FROM: Western Kentucky University (WKU) IRB

PROJECT TITLE: [358151-1] Examining the Differences in Civic Engagement Behaviors Among
                    Members of Social and Cultural Fraternities and Sororities Using the Multi-
                    Institutional Study of Leadership
REFERENCE #:   13-006
SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: APPROVED
APPROVAL DATE: July 24, 2012

REVIEW TYPE: Exempt from Full Board Review

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The Western Kentucky University
(WKU) IRB has APPROVED your submission for data analysis. This approval is based on an appropriate
risk/benefit ratio and a project design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be
conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

This submission has received Exempt from Full Board Review based on the applicable federal regulation.

Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be approved by this office prior to
initiation. Please use the appropriate revision forms for this procedure.

All UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risks to subjects or others and SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED
adverse events must be reported promptly to this office. Please use the appropriate reporting forms for
this procedure. All FDA and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

All NON-COMPLIANCE issues or COMPLAINTS regarding this project must be reported promptly to this
office.

This project has been determined to be a Minimal Risk project.

Please note that all research records must be retained for a minimum of three years after the completion
of the project.

If you have any questions, please contact Paul Mooney at (270) 745-2129 or paul.mooney@wku.edu.
Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

Generated on IRBNet

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Western Kentucky University (WKU) IRB's records.

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