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University Students' Citizenship Shaped by Service-Learning, Community Service, and Peer-to-Peer Civic Discussions

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UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' CITIZENSHIP SHAPED BY SERVICE-LEARNING,
COMMUNITY SERVICE, AND PEER-TO-PEER CIVIC DISCUSSIONS

by

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ABSTRACT

Citizenship is often referred to as the forgotten outcome of colleges and universities. The present study examined the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived citizenship level and different types of civic experiences (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions) and also different demographic factors (gender, race/ethnicity, and parental level of education) at a public institution using the Personal and Social Responsibility Inventory. This study used structural equation modeling and multiple regression analysis. This marks the first time these variables have been researched together. This study found a significant correlation between both community service and peer-to-peer civic discussions in relation to citizenship level. Yet, service-learning frequency was not found to be a significant factor. On the other hand, all three civic experiences together was found to be significantly correlated to citizenship aptitudes. Leading the researcher to find that a holistic (both inside and outside the classroom) approach to student citizenship is valuable for student development. Also, only one significant relationship was found between citizenship levels and any demographic variable (parental education level of doctorate or professional degree).

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother. Your love, strength, and persistence have given me the resilience to finish this journey.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to thank my family for their endless support, love, and patience. Fletcher, you have both inspired me to finish this mission, and helped me see its purpose. Art, your steadfast resolve that I should just keep pushing until the finish line has helped me in my darkest hours. Mom, Dad, and Nanny, your unyielding affection and validation is the bedrock of my success. I could not have reached this goal if it were not for you. I am truly grateful for Diana and Art Sr. (my lovely in-laws), who spent many hours playing with Fletcher when I was working on this project. I cannot express my full gratitude.

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PREAMBLE

When Aristotle said that "man is by nature a political animal" he did not mean that man invariably seeks public office or habitually engages in what we may think of as the activities of the politician. He meant, rather, that civilized man lives in a politically organized society, that only in such a society can he live a satisfactory life. He was reflecting the doctrine of his teacher, Plato, and of his teacher's teacher, Socrates, as also when he said that "virtue and goodness in the state are not a matter of chance but the result of knowledge and purpose." Not all people were, in his estimation, adapted to the highest form of civic life. But even among those whose capacities fitted them for life in society, their natural endowments were but the beginning. "All else is the work of education, we learn some things by habit and some by instruction." Like Plato and Socrates before him, he believed with unquestioning faith that education for life in organized society is essential to the well-being of the state. It is, in other words, a condition of the good life for all citizens. (Harvard University, 1945, p. 132)

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

General Background

The afore quoted passage, a product of 1945, came from an American higher
education era fraught with change. The post-World War II, G.I. Bill time left the
academy reeling and searching for answers, and the enrollment surge necessitated the
inquiry into the purpose of higher education.

Citizenship, the forgotten outcome of colleges and universities (Musil, 2013),
vanished from the forefront of American higher education. The focus shifted toward
"narrow careerism" and "upward mobility of individuals" (Sullivan, 2000, p. 21),
resulting in "a society which is increasingly polarized and fragmented, with little sense of
being united by shared values, or of participation in a common enterprise" (Ehrlich,
2000).

The current American higher education landscape, like the post-World War II era,
surges with many more students than in previous generations. Since antiquity, instructors
have taught students civic knowledge, values, and, commitment. "Our society requires
civic engagement to realize the potential of its citizens and its community…. education
[is] the key to that engagement" (Ehrlich, 2000, p. iii). Modern academic theorists
continually observe the inextricable connection between education and citizenship (Colby
& Shulman, 2003; Ehrlich, 2000). An important method of instruction for civic life is
higher education.

"American democracy is at risk. The risk comes not from some external threat but from disturbing internal trends: an erosion of the activities and capacities of citizenship" (Macedo & Alex-Assensoh, 2005, p.1). It is imperative that the American higher education system refocus on cultivating these skills (Sax, 2004). Researchers discovered several effective ways of infusing citizenship in higher education. Three of those ways are course-based service-learning, co-curricular community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions. Studying these civic experiences may help higher education focus on citizenship.

It should be noted that this study uses the term service-learning to exclusively refer to academic course-based community engagement experiences. The term service-learning is used to mean many different things throughout the academic literature. Yet, this study will use service-learning to indicate only the experiences that are tied to an academic course.

Statement of the Problem

An unclear relationship exists among curricular service-learning, co-curricular community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions and associations with student active citizenship as an outcome. While both curricular service-learning and co-curricular community service enhance student capacities, reflection maximizes learning above all else (Eyler, 2002). Creation of a collective consciousness by students talking to each other about their shared experiences also offers an opportunity for reflective practice (Rhoads, 1998). Mitchell, Gillon, Reason, and Ryder (2016) note that other researchers

study these peer-to-peer civic discussions as a mitigating factor to civic experiences, yet they have not been looked at as a stand-alone factor of the acquisition of civic competencies. Studies indicate these types of civic experiences correlate with student development, yet a paucity of empirical studies that investigate their mutual relationship to active citizenship exists (Finley, 2012).

Gayles, Rockenbach and Davis (2012) noted much research on this topic focuses on private institutions and suggests that public institutions should also be studied. This disparity exists because many private institutions have an explicit civic mission. In many cases, a civic mission ties directly to religious doctrine. Researchers study private institutions more often because of the clearly enacted values and the effects of those values.

Course-based service-learning relates more closely to student learning than community service (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). Yet community service does produce a significant relationship with citizenship outcomes. This does not suggest that service-learning should serve as the primary focus; it means both play a critical role as pieces of the civic learning puzzle for undergraduates. Similarly, peer-to-peer interactions more profoundly influence student learning than student-to-faculty interactions (Strayhorn, 2008). This suggests that all three of these civic experiences play a role in student citizenship attainment.

More scholarly research exists on the topic of service-learning while other forms of civic experiences are being overlooked. The current literature supports the effectiveness of service-learning as a higher education practice that supports student

citizenship, yet research lacks a holistic approach regarding student citizenship attainment (Mitchell et al., 2016). The present study examines the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived citizenship level and different types of civic experiences (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions) at a public institution.

There is a scarcity of research that disaggregates the effects of specific civic pedagogies on specific demographic groups of students (Carnegie Foundation of the Advancement of Teaching and CIRCLE, 2006). Yet, one study (Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, & Terenzini, 2004) found that while volunteer work had a positive influence on cognitive and psychosocial development of students whose parents attended college, it had a negative impact on first-generation college students. There is little research that delineates these effects among different demographics, thus type of research is warranted.

Significance of the Study

The field of citizenship in higher education includes studying the importance of preparing students for participation in civic life, raising the campus community awareness of societal problems, and strengthening undergraduate education focus on solving those problems (Musil, 2013). Many scholars note the civic mission of higher education institutions in the United States (Gutmann, 1987; Hamrick, 1998; Hurtado, 2007; Reason, 2011). Yet others also note the lack of follow through on achieving this mission (Glass, 2013; Clayton, Bringle, & Hatcher, 2013).

The Personal and Social Responsibility Inventory (PSRI), one of many assessment, evaluation, and research tools created because of the deficit of students' citizenship levels, measures campus climate and student attainment of citizenship (Musil, 2013). The PSRI, a nationally recognized tool, has not been used by scholars to study the relationship between citizenship and these civic experiences (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions) together.

Universities implement civic experiences for their students because of the espoused value of creating skillful, knowledgeable, and committed citizens (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). This study took a holistic approach and looked at civic experiences within the classroom setting, through co-curricular means, and those that happen organically. No single study has looked at all three types of civic experiences (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions) in the past.

Also, the topic of citizenship is timely. The recent concerns about our national financial and political leadership demonstrate the need for citizenship learning opportunities. "One need only to look at recent troubling Wall Street practices to realize the necessity in having a sense of ethics and social responsibility and an ability to think critically to accompany a deep knowledge of business that many students hope to gain in college" (O'Neill, 2013, p. 2).

Freshmen entering higher education are coming to college unprepared to engage in civic duties. High school seniors, on average, scored below the basic level in civics knowledge on standardized examinations (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010). Entering university students are underprepared in citizenship. The development

of civic proficiencies is a valuable research agenda. This study investigated the relationship between undergraduate students' citizenship levels and their civic experiences.

Scholars hotly debate the topic of citizenship (O'Neill, 2012). It is important to colleges and universities as stated in their public missions (Reason, 2011). This study used the PSRI to focus on this apt, important subject through a new lens. It looks at citizenship through an inclusive approach of including co-curricular, curricular, and spontaneous civic experiences. These variables have not been researched together (Mitchell et al., 2016).

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and the frequency with which they participate in service-learning, community service, or peer-to-peer civic discussions?

2. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and gender, race/ethnicity, and parental level of education?

Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by the work of Eyler and Giles (1999) who surmised that students' progress through a development path over time toward being a more responsible citizen.   The research that developed this model focused only on service-learning experiences. In this study, the model also measured students who participated in community service and peer-to-peer civic discussions. Recurring themes exist in all three

areas of research (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic

discussions). It may be found that The Five Elements of Citizenship (Eyler & Giles,

1999) needs modification for application with other types of civic experiences.

THE FIVE ELEMENTS OF CITIZENSHIP
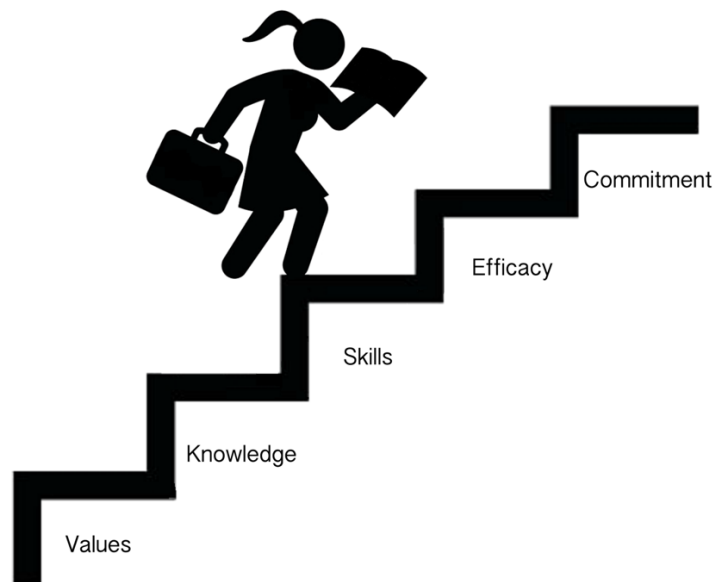
Note. Image Copyright by Haley Groves Winston © 2017

Figure 1. The Five Elements of Citizenship Model by Elyer and Giles (1999)

The Five Elements of Citizenship model suggests that students' obtainment of

citizenship progresses in a linear fashion. The five elements in sequential order are (1)

values, (2) knowledge, (3) skills, (4) efficacy, and (5) commitment (Elyer & Giles, 1999).

This study was grounded using all five dimensions, all of which are measured on the

PSRI. The Five Elements will be comprehensively discussed in Chapter 2.

Limitations of the Study

This study does have several factors that limit its scope. The first constraint is that the data are self-reported by students and centered exclusively on their personal perceptions of skills and behaviors. Therefore, the degree to which the subjects exhibit these citizenship qualities is not directly measured.

The PSRI is a nationally used instrument. The Research Institute for Studies in Education (RISE) has a repository of data that they give to those conducting research in this area for free. The use of the instrument for this study alone would be cost prohibitive and unnecessary. Secondary data analysis does not allow for the collection of omitted data. It also does not allow for proposing additional questions to the participants. The PSRI has been used at multiple institutions, but the current study was collected at only one university; because of this, the findings are not generalized to all colleges and universities.

Another limitation of this is the omission of community voice. This study focuses on students' civic experiences, yet no data was collected from the community partners with which the aforementioned students interacted. These civic experiences have more outcomes than purely student learning. Other domains include community, service, and social change (Stoecker, 2016).

Definitions of Terms

Below are listed the terminology and their corresponding definitions as used in this manuscript.

Citizenship: The undertaking of people who actively contribute to civic, political, and/or social undertakings. This description does not exclude those who may not have permanent legal status (Carnegie Foundation of the Advancement of Teaching, 2006).

First-Generation College Student: Any undergraduate students who indicates that neither of their parents have obtained a bachelor's degree.

Private Institution: "An educational institution controlled by a private individual(s) or by a nongovernmental agency, usually supported primarily by other than public funds, and operated by other than publicly elected or appointed officials. These institutions may be either for-profit or not-for-profit" (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017).

Public Institution: "Although in the past funding for higher education differed markedly between public and private institutions, today those differences are becoming increasingly blurred" (Barr & McClellan, 2011, p. 13). In general, public institutions receive more money from the state governments than private institutions.

Undergraduate: A student enrolled in a Bachelor's degree program (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017).

Summary and Organization of the Study

This chapter has presented an introduction to the civic engagement of higher education in America and student learning. It also posits research questions, defines key terms, states the purpose of the study, explains the conceptual framework, and discusses the limitations of the study. The next chapter presents a historical context of civic

responsibility and higher education, a review of Eyler and Giles' (1999) model of

citizenship, and a description of the PSRI.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Contextualizing the larger milieu of citizenship is necessary before exploring citizenship as it relates to service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions. General citizenship as well as its relationship with higher education as an outcome and assessable variables are addressed in the first section of the literature review. The next section focuses on the background of service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions in American higher education. The third section will discuss the literature concerning personal and social responsibility using the PSRI dimensions. The last section will examine the five levels of citizenship as defined by Eyler and Giles (1999).

Origin of Citizenship

The concept of citizenship means different things to different to groups. A universal definition of citizenship does not exist. The ancient Greeks, specifically the Spartans, constructed the early Western notion of this idea. The term civic republican classified the ancient concept of citizenship. A just form of government supported by its citizenry defines a civic republic.. During this time, a state guided by a constitution and not an arbitrary rule of a monarch or tyrant indicated a just government. It should also be noted that the idea of a citizen was tied to a politically virtuous man, and the distinction of citizen was withheld from some group members (Heater, 2004).

The phrase liberal tradition classifies the contemporary view of citizenship. Starting in the seventeenth century and growing stronger ever since, citizenship is viewed as not only encompassing civic and political rights, but also social rights. This began with the French Revolution (Heater, 2004). Under the modern interpretation, the state is compelled to uphold the rights of its citizens; in fact, the state exists for this purpose. This tradition also includes the idea that all people are entitled to equal treatment under the state.

This document will use the term citizenship to refer to efforts being made to actively contribute to civic, political, and/or social undertakings. This description does not exclude those who may not have permanent legal status.

Citizenship Timeline

A table that displays the major movements, ideas, and events within citizenship education is included as Appendix A: CITIZENSHIP TIMELINE. This timeline is framed within a Western lens and is American centric. It starts with the founding of Harvard and culminates with current movements. This table is delineated by Gieger's (2005) Ten Generations of American Higher Education because this framework is widely known and helps to put these events into historical context. The timeline serves to help the reader gain context for the events and movements explored in this chapter.

Notable Scholarship

Creating informed and engaged citizens is a key component of why colleges and universities exist. Even as far back as the 1830s, an esteemed foreigner commented on

the active citizenship that Americans exhibited. In his exulted treatise on democracy,

Alexis de Tocqueville (1835/1966) noted that Americans were forming change in their

communities. This shows that our history is entrenched with transformation coming from

its community members and not a top down form of leadership.

"Tocqueville's account of civil society is meant to demonstrate that once

individuals get involved in civic life, civic practice itself has a transformative effect on

their motives and ends" (Atanassow, 2013, p. 176). He crafted his own development

model of citizenship "first by necessity and then by choice; what was calculation

becomes instinct; and by dint of working for the good of one's fellow citizens, one finally

picks up the habit and taste of serving them" (Tocqueville, 1835/1966, p. 488). While

Tocqueville made loose ties between formal education and civic outcomes, he did believe

that being engaged in the democracy was a learned skill and synonymous with American

life.

Like his predecessor Tocqueville, James Bryce (1888/1959), a British national,

observed the American commonwealth. Unlike Tocqueville, Bryce vowed that he would

not add personal insights or opinions into his text. He wrote observations about civic life

in America. The product of the Morrill Act of 1862 was featured prominently; the State

Finance section focused on the tax dollar appropriations to these colleges and

universities. Bryce also highlighted American colleges debating societies as a training

ground for civic discourse and education. He saw a connection between democracy and

education (Bryce, 1888/1959).

John Dewey took this notion a step farther; he believed that democracy and education were inextricably linked. Dewey championed and advocated for higher education to rally around its civic mission. He declared that democracy required engagement and educating citizens would achieve this (Dewey, 1916/1966). Dewey (1897/2012) posited that education and citizenship were indivisible. He concurred with many Jeffersonian ideals and extensively wrote about Thomas Jefferson's educational agenda. While Jefferson saw a classical education as a general strategy to strengthen an active citizenry, Dewey went a step further.   He wanted American educational systems specifically teaching scholars the skills they needed to be civic change agents (Dewey, 1939).

While Dewey provided practical guidance through an American lens, social commentary illuminated by foreign scholars exhibits the execution of democracy in America best. Another outsider, Gunnar Myrdal (1944), exposed the tenets of what he termed the *American Creed*. Myrdal focused on the Jeffersonian ideas of equality and liberty. Interracial relations between black and white people in the U.S. and the subsequent improved opportunities for black Americans remained the goal of his research. He saw the relationship between education and civic action. His work, *An American Dilemma* (Myrdal, 1944), was cited as powerfully influential in the Supreme Court's 1954 ruling of Brown v. Board of Education, proving that education and scholarly works can have civic implications (Magat, 2005).

Myrdal's effort set the stage for Ernest Boyer's work: The *Scholarship of Engagement*. Boyer (1996) envisioned higher education's return as the foremost

institution for solving society's challenges. Many historic events serve as proof for his

argument that American higher education has been the lynchpin in creating a more just

and civil nation. Boyer pushes against the idea that higher education is a private

commodity. Higher education was once seen as the solution; now it is viewed as the

problem, he quips (Boyer, 1996). To Boyer, the challenge is to help higher education

focus on its mission to create a better society.

<u>Governmental Initiatives</u>

The second Governor of Virginia (and later, the third President of the United

States of America), Thomas Jefferson, had some very clear ideas about the link between

education and active citizenship. He championed "four educational objectives—

elementary education, residential secondary grammar schools, university education (all

three paid by the state), and the establishment of a true university" (Snelgrove, 2011, p.

203). Jefferson equated the need for education to establish a strong democracy with

creating a literate citizenry.

After Jefferson failed to reform of his alma mater, The College of William and

Mary, into his ideal university, he established the first American state university─ the

University of Virginia─ in 1825 (Jefferson, Koch., & Peden, 1998). Established as the

pride of the state, the university was funded by taxpayers' money. Jefferson believed that

students should govern themselves and set up the notion of a student government. One

key component this University prepared its graduates for was a life of active citizenship

(Brubacher & Rudy, 1997).

During the throes of the Civil War, the Morrill Act of 1862 ushered in the

expansion of state universities. This Congressional Act provided 30,000 acres of land for

universities to develop. The second Morrill Act (1890) provided more finances for these

state institutions (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). This legislation provided an educational

route for lower socioeconomic status citizens. These state funded institutions trained

students to meet the needs of the state (Cole, 2009). With all this taxpayer money going

towards funding education, the production of well-informed citizens was clearly an

intended byproduct of this financial venture. The more educated the citizen were, the

more able they would be to contribute to society.

Another piece of legislation that highly affected the landscape of higher education

in America was the Serviceman's Readjustment Act of 1944. Colloquially known as the

G.I. Bill, this law gave World War II veterans financial resources to attend the college of

their choice. This bill extensively altered colleges and universities not only because it

resulted in their enrollment doubling between 1938-1948, but also because it focused

higher education on its public mission (Cole, 2009).

This sudden increase in enrollment led President Truman to establish the first

federal working group that investigated the American higher education system—the

Presidential Commission on Higher Education. Convened in 1946, this committee

produced the *Higher Education for American Democracy* report. The commission

suggested diminishing the lines between liberal arts and vocational training. They

advised all higher education institutions to embrace the ideals of general education. The

committee recommended citizenship knowledge and democratic training as an enacted

objective of colleges and universities. While stating the economic impact of higher

education degree attainment as a positive result, the report noted that a citizenry that was

attuned to global and national politics, possessed social awareness, and had ample

opportunity to cultivate their own personal sense responsibility was critical to the

prosperity of American society (Reuben & Perkins, 2007).

<p style="text-align:center">Student Movements</p>

Since the early days of Harvard, college students have been advocating for their

needs. The creation of collective consciousness between student peer groups went

through several iterations. The first wave (1636-1840) of student movements were self-

interested riots (Ellsworth & Burns, 1970).   The second wave (1840-1950) focused on

charity (Morton & Saltmarsh, 1997). The 1950's to present is the third wave, which was

motivated by social consciousness (Rhoads, 1998).

<p style="text-align:center">Self-Interested Riots</p>

Shortly after the establishment of American's first college (Harvard), students

began advocating on their own behalf. Peer-to-peer civic discussions motivated these

students. Early forms of student activism took the shape of riots. These riots provided a

glimpse into the lack of basic needs being met. Many of these rebellions focused on

discipline being too harsh or food being of low quality (Ellsworth & Burns, 1970).

Harvard was not the only college where students advocated for their voices to be

heard (e.g. Princeton). The University of Virginia faced many of these types of riots. The

1836 Military Company Riot developed from a student concern that they were not being

<p style="text-align:center">17</p>

taught about carrying arms on campus. The students fought the administration to form

their own organization where they would teach each other military skills (Bowman &

Santos, 2013).

After this rebellion, every year the students would celebrate its success. In 1840,

a law professor, John A.G. Davis was shot and killed by a student during this revel. This

event catalyzed a shift in student movements. Students turned their focus from self-

interested riots into caring about the community outside of their student cohorts. From

this point, students start looking at how their actions can affect others (Bowman &

Santos, 2013).

Charity

The creation of campus activities aided in this shift from student riots to the

creation of the charity movement. The founding of Greek-Letter Organizations,

collegiate athletics, literary magazines and other student activities also facilitated the

move from concentrating on urgent and basic needs. The students were engaged with the

world outside of the ivory tower and they became more personally fulfilled (Ellsworth &

Burns, 1970).

Jane Addams, a colleague of Dewey, took the idea of civic education a step

farther and advocated for community interaction. Addams was the co-founder of Hull

House, the most famous settlement house in the U.S. The settlement house movement

forced interaction between college or university students/staff and community members

(Stoecker, 2016). "We are under a moral obligation in choosing our experiences, since

the result of those experiences must ultimately determine our understanding of life."

Addams (1921/2002, p. 10) made this statement in her treatise about democracy. Her

forward thinking laid the foundation for the implementation and study of students' civic

experiences (Deegan, 2010).

Another idea that Addams held dear was that it was impossible for people of

means to know the plight of those with less unless they knew them socially. She believed

that one could read many texts about social issues, but until a person truly knew those

who were affected, they could not understand the implications. This understanding was

paramount to being a wise citizen in a democracy (Addams, 1921/2002). Jane Addams

saw citizenship as "multidimensional, embracing politics, economics, and social

interaction" (Deegan, 2010, p. 232).

One notable example of the promotion of volunteer service during college is the

story of Mary Harriman Rumsey. As a student at Barnard College in 1901, Harriman

Rumsey was inspired to get involved in volunteer work by lecture about the settlement

movement. She formed a coalition of her female friends (including the young Eleanor

Roosevelt) and began to fundraise and do direct service at New York settlement houses.

This was the origin the Junior League, a volunteer training society. This is an early

example of students organizing to gain knowledge, skills, and values around social issues

(Logue, 2001).

The Charity Organization Movement of the 1880s was based on character

building. Mostly female Protestants from the middle class would visit those who were

deemed in need of charity and would teach them to be frugal and prudent. For Addams,

this turned the population into two factions: us and them. It also assumed that those in need were responsible for their own poverty. Addams and Dewey reframed this paradigm to be about social justice and human dignity (Morton & Saltmarsh, 1997).

Peer-to-peer civic discussions on college campuses facilitated the spread of knowledge about the reality of World War I, the Great Depression and World War II. These civic experiences turned this paradigm of charity into social awareness. This generation of students used written and spoken word to express their frustrations about inequality. Students felt discontent; this led to another shift within student movements (Ellsworth & Burns, 1970).

Social Consciousness

One well-known student movement was the Freedom Summer Project. This endeavor was a response to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Almost 1,000 college students volunteered to go to the American South to primarily register black voters and secondarily to educate them for social change. Freedom Summer was a time when college students were getting experiential learning about the democratic progress. They were also being exposed to different communities and risking their lives to act (Clark, 2009).

The 1960s is famously known for student engagement in civic practices. Likewise, the 1990s was a time fraught with students expressing their voices though community engagement, expressly though activism. A few key examples include "the 1993 Chicano Studies movement at UCLA, the Mills College strike of 1990, the 1993-96

American Indian Protests at Michigan State University, gay liberation activities at Pennsylvania State University form 1991to 1993, and African American protests at Rutgers University in 1995" (Rhoads, 1998, p. viii). These movements were started by the formation of collective consciousness. The peer-to-peer dialogues about their civic experiences resulted in students participating in the democracy. They used the safe environment of their campuses as a place to unravel social problems (Rhoads, 1998).

Two current movements college students are a part of are Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) movement/Dreamers and Black Lives Matter movement. These movements are focused around marginalized populations. Historically these youths participate in traditional democracy less frequently. Universities' missions support civic participation and diversity. Therefore,

> universities must shoulder the responsibility to support student development in alignment with the institutional mission. Institutional support can manifest in two related ways. First, student services practitioners might consider a thoughtful integration of social justice themes in curricular (e.g., service-learning courses) and cocurricular (e.g., living-learning communities) civic engagement initiatives. (Hope, Keels, & Durkee, 2016, p. 212)

A prerequisite to this wave of student activism was the infusion of concern about society and politics among college students. Peer-to-peer civic discussions created "sophisticated insights" (Rhoads, 2016, p. 199) into how others experience in the world. These students "serve as agents of campus change as well as broader social change" (Rhoads, 2016, p. 199).

<center>Citizenship as a Higher Education Outcome</center>

The 1880s ushered in a new paradigm of civic learning. While the 19th century institutions of higher learning taught students what their civic and moral duty was, the 20th century colleges and universities adopted curriculum that emphasized free choice and critical rationality. This shift established the ideal of democracy and individualism, yet many forgot the civic purpose of higher education. During which time, students were advised to choose their own political stances based on personal research. This resulted in the topic of citizenship being largely uninvestigated because it seemed unscientific (Carnegie Foundation of the Advancement of Teaching, 2006).

Harvard University's Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society (1945) posited that "schools will not fulfill their duty to society unless they help their students understand the nature of the problems and responsibilities of the society in which they must live and which they should help govern" (p. 135). These educators propose preparing students for their civic lives as tantamount to any other higher education outcome. They point to the holistic approach of general education as means to this end.

The focus on civic outcomes of higher education specifically focused on voter engagement during the 1950s and 1960s (Carnegie Foundation of the Advancement of Teaching, 2006). This area of research has found that generally the more education a person has, the more likely the person is to register to vote. It is also well documented that students are increasingly more likely to vote as their level of formal education increases (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

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Formal education has been consistently found to be the highest predicting factor for a person to engage in citizenship practices. Campbell and Converse (1972) note that level of education is an unwavering prognostic variable. They particularly were looking at voting and political engagement.

Jennings and Niemi's (1981) longitudinal study found that students who are predisposed to be civically engaged were more likely to attend and complete higher education. They found the parent political knowledge influenced their children, which led to their temperament for civic action. This resulted in students who were more involved in their communities and more likely to attend college.

Levine (2014) made the argument that high demand field employability should not be the focus of higher education. He noted that the highest predictor that a community would successfully combat unemployment was the engagement of its citizenry. Successful communities were adept at creating deliberation, collaboration, and relationships that spanned across subsections of the population.

Citizenship has been linked to the American university system as an intentional outcome for many years. Currently, there is resurgence in this area of interest (Gayles et al., 2012). Service-learning through curricular and co-curricular programs has been popular in recent years (Levine, 2007). There has been research done in these areas, yet gaps remain where academic research can explore this topic, especially within the relationship between community engagement and the development of civic responsibility (Ehrlich, 2000; Clayton, Bringle & Hatcher, 2013; Carnegie Foundation of the Advancement of Teaching, 2006).

High-Impact Practice

Since George Kuh's 2008 publication about high-impact educational practices, many student affairs and academic affairs practitioners have touted "Service Learning, Community-Based Learning" a research-based, proven means of affecting student learning (p. 11). This seminal text led the term *high-impact* to be a colloquial expression. Many administrators mandate the implementation of high-impact practices because of their link to retention (Jacoby & Howard, 2015).

Scholars like Komives (2011) have publicized the function that high-impact practices have in student growth and development. These practices are used to help students connect to the campus community. They also are heavily connected with student leadership development.

AAC&U's Core Commitments

While the public rhetoric emphases the notion of employment as the sole outcome of higher education, the Association of American Colleges & Universities (AAC&U) Core Commitments make a case that educating students for civic life should be at the center of a college education (Musil, 2013).

In 2007, AAC&U issued a report from the National Leadership Council for Liberal Education & American's Promise (LEAP) called *College Learning for the New Global Century*. One of the Essential Learning Outcomes was personal and social responsibility which included civic knowledge and engagement. This facet of LEAP's

report was christened "the orphan outcome" and this led to AAC&U's release of the *Core Commitments: Educating Students for Personal and Social Responsibility* (Musil, 2013).

<p style="text-align:center">A Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy's Future</p>

Student learning through citizenship is a growing area of interest for higher education. These opportunities allow students to cultivate critical thinking skills, to clarify values, and to create a commitment to their community. The active citizens produced from these experiences have enhanced critical thinking skills and higher grade point averages. The AAC&U (National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement, 2012) put out a call to action for teaching civics to students in their report *A Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy's Future*, "with a sense of urgency running from its title though the final sentence" (Stoecker, 2016, p. 83). The report sets forth the goal of guiding institutions of higher education in their efforts to teach students about civic principle and put in action what they have learned. They will work on problems that face communities now and in the future.

A Crucible Moment proposes four dimensions of civic-mindedness where institutions of higher learning should place their efforts. The first aspect is civic ethos. This idea refers to the campus culture. This characteristic is explained as the way the college or university exhibits its regard for citizenship. The next element is civic literacy, which refers to students' ability to understand civic principles. Thirdly, the report calls for civic inquiry. The goal for this movement would be that all graduates would have the ability to intelligently interact with current civic discourse. The recommendation of this

report is that civic learning should be a requirement for all majors and a part of general education. The final dimension is civic action. This is defined as a lasting practice for all students as they leave the institution and enter the workforce. The notion is that students who are well versed in civic are also given the innate drive to be an active citizen for life (National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement, 2012).

Universities and colleges make mission-based community commitments in many ways. Each area of the trilogy (teaching, research, and service) is used to engage in the community (Fitch, Steinke, & Hudson, 2013). Boyer (1996) defines scholarship broadly. His four scholarship domains are: discovery, integration, application, and teaching. Specific examples of these activities include: needs assessment projects, segmentation analyses, oral histories, workshop filiations, and capitol rising initiatives. Classroom experiences and extra-curricular activities provide opportunities for students to learn active citizenship skills. Utilizing faculty and staff expertise to engage in the community allows for these learning opportunities for students (Fitch et al., 2013).

In this time of financial strain, institutions of higher education should seek to show their worth to the general population by using resources to mitigate social issues. This can help prove their worth through providing public good. The civic mission of American higher education should be enacted to help resolve economic stresses and to not be seen as an added expense that can be unfunded in the times of budget constraints (Mlyn, 2013).

Regional accreditation also plays a role in defining the civic mission of institutions. Accrediting bodies ask for evidence that colleges and universities

incorporate civic education into teaching, research, and service, though, this is definitely

seen as tertiary to other portions of the accrediting materials. On the other hand, the

Carnegie Foundations for the Advancement of Teaching Community Engagement

Elective Classification is focused on these principles almost exclusively (Paton,

Fitzgerald, Green, Raymond & Borchardt, 2014).

Two-year and four-year public institutions have an obligation to provide service

to society. Service is one of the pillars of the higher education. This call to action falls in

line with the outcome that colleges and universities are trying to create a better society.

The Five Elements of Citizenship

Eyler and Giles' studied students who engaged in service-learning courses in their

seminal text, *Where's the Learning in Service Learning?* (1999). Their research resulted

in the creation of a student development model- The Five Elements of Citizenship. This

model suggested that students progress through a serious of plateaus, each indicating a

citizenship element that is needed to reach the final stage. Each element represents a new

level of maturity for students. The elements build on each other and each represents

more growth than the previous stage. The following sections describe each citizenship

element in order.

Values

The first step is about values. The student in this step sees what they should do.

This initial part starts when the student feels they are connected to the community, and

they start to form a sense of the importance of social justice, which becomes coupled with

a commitment of service (Eyler & Giles, 1999). This step is seen primarily as where college students begin their journey. Most students come to college in the values stage. It is instilled in them during their time in secondary school (Denson, Vogelgesang, & Saenz, 2005).

A review of the current literature about higher education and the production of engaged citizens researches primarily first-year college students. Mayhew and Engberg (2011) did a study of service-learning in first-year success courses. They compared students who did service-learning as a part of their curriculum and those who did not. They found that the first-year students who engaged in service-learning developed chartable responsibility but not social justice responsibility. They postulate that the students were not at the developmental stage where they could understand that their power and privilege could be used to create social change.

Knowledge

The next stage is knowledge. During this time, the student understands what they should do and why they should do it. Throughout this step, students are gaining the knowledge that will help them make informed action plans. Students are learning about social issues and developing the cognitive ability to critically think through the challenges of these problems.

Civic knowledge does not refer merely to knowing dates, facts of historical events, or even democratic processes. It is a much deeper understanding of public issues and their root causes. Many times, this learning is happening through interactions with

community members and being supplemented through classroom learning (Battistoni, 1997).

Students seeking knowledge often find more about community context and how change has been implemented in the past. This aids in students' understanding of how communities function. It also means that community members and students are working together to create meaning. There is no need for the expert (professor) to create all the valued knowledge (Battistoni, 2013).

Skills

Next, the student cultivates skills. Very savvy students who know about social issues need strategic knowledge and interpersonal skills to enact change. Service-learning gives students experience and knowledge of how community agencies work. Additionally, students are able to see how an issue may have many stakeholders and that everyone needs to be at the table to create social change. Students are also developing their communication skills from this setting. It can be a challenge for students to understand how to engage with different populations, but service-learning provides them an opportunity to learn how to effectively communicate.

Kirlin (2003) categorized civic skills in to four distinct classifications: organization, communication, collective decision making, or critical thinking. Organizing skills include planning and working through administrative processes. Communication skills are the most commonly cited outcomes and includes writing, oral presentations, and persuasion. Decision making includes interactions with others that resulst in conclusions

made for the common good. The last category is critical thinking. This involves a student analyzing, synthesizing, and formulating stances.

It is the opinion of Kirlin (2003) that many service-learning programs do not reach their desired impact. She believes this is due to the lack of civic skill training. Kirlin (2003) suggests that research on the acquisition of civic skills is needed.

Efficacy

Efficacy is the next element. During this step, students understand that they can make change, and what they produce makes a difference. This portion is about confidence. The student learns to be confident in his or her own abilities to influence change. The student also becomes assured that the community can solve its own problems. Service-learning coupled with diversity exposure and reflection can assist in this process.

One source of proof that college influences the democratic engagement of its participants is the 2008 United States Presidential election. College students represented 39% of Americans that were between the ages of 18-24. These students made up 48% of the voter turnout for their age group. On election day, 70% of university students were registered to vote, and 87% of those who were registered voted (The Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement, 2012). Voting in elections shows efficacy. This element of The Five Elements of Citizenship model includes feeling that an individual can make a difference. This is the opposite of voter apathy (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Jones and Hill (2001) studied students' perception of diversity after they engaged in the community. They found that face-to-face interactions increased empathy and compassion. Civic efficacy was also found to be cultivated through one-on-one interactions with others who have different experiences from the students. This efficacy gave students confidence that they could lead social change.

<div align="center">Commitment</div>

The last phase of the model is commitment. A person in this element might say "I must and will do." This is the ultimate outcome that service-learning is looking to produce. This step is accompanied by a sense of urgency to create change in their community (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Those who are in this step feel personally rewarded by being engaged in the community. This step is the long-term behavior that is the outcome of college. It serves the goal of what civic education will create. Commitment is about post-college actions (Denson, Vogelgesang, & Saenz, 2005).

West (2004) delineates student civic commitment into the three traditions: Socratic questioning, prophetic justice, and tragicomic hope. These types of commitments lead activists to educate others about the injustices of the status quo. He notes that commitment leads to students continuing to develop by seeking new experiential learning mechanisms.

When looking at service-learning, it seems shallow to think that student development should stop at merely helping them cultivate their values. Kendall (1990) sets forth pedagogy that service-learning should help students move beyond the notion of

charity and toward the mindset of promoting social justice. This ideology is in line with the core mission of creating involved and informed citizens.

Jones and Abes (2004) found that students who participated in community engagement developed a sense of socially responsible commitment to the community they served. This falls in line with The Five Elements of Citizenship model. It also states that the end goal is to move students into the realm of social commitment to their community (Eyler & Giles, 1999). This notion takes what could be simply providing a service to the community toward the concept of reciprocity where the student becomes a better citizen and the community receives a needed service.

This model is very helpful to use as a lens when looking at research on higher education and citizenship. If a student sees each step as a component of how to produce an active citizen, then he or she can put the studies in to context. The different elements correspond to different dimensions that have been studied.

<u>Personal and Social Responsibility Inventory (PSRI)</u>

The objective of the PSRI is to measure personal and social responsibility on university and college campuses. The data produced by this tool is aimed to help administrators make informed decisions about resource allocation and help analyze variances in educational experiences (Bertram, 2011).

The PSRI was created as a component of the AAC&U's initiative entitled Core Commitments: Educating Students for Personal and Social Responsibility. This instrument was designed by L. Lee Knefelkamp in 2016. During the development, she

consulted with Richard Hersh and had research assistance from Lauren Ruff. For several years, it was housed out of the University of Michigan under the direction of Eric Dey. The PSRI was first used in 2007 at 23 partner campuses. Dey also made some changes to the instrument. After Dey's death, the PSRI was transferred to the Research Institute for Studies in Education (RISE) under the leadership of Robert Reason. The PSRI's current home is still the RISE at the Iowa State University. Reason also altered the instrument into its current form. Currently, AAC&U is still a part of the propagation of the PSRI. This research is supported by a John Templeton Foundation grant. (Bertram, 2011; Musil, 2013)

The ideas of personal responsibility and social responsibility can be discussed separately, yet this movement links them as inextricable. While the dimensions of *striving for excellence* and *cultivating academic integrity* more closely related to personal development, and *contributing to a larger community* and *taking seriously the perspectives of others* are more closely related to the idea of social responsibility, there are many overlaps in their nature. The fifth dimension of AAC&U's Core Commitments is *developing competence in moral and ethical reasoning and action*. This final competency clearly shows the intersection between personal and social skills. Moral and ethical reasoning is a personal trait, yet it cannot exist without social interaction. Cultivating these skills in students requires them to explore personal attributes, values, and aptitudes while simultaneously testing them with social interactions. This dimension also calls for *action*. By acting, students would be demonstrating these skills in a public arena, an undoubtedly social endeavor (Musil, 2013).

Service-Learning

The first recorded used of the term service-learning is in 1966 when Oak Ridge Associated Universities used it to describe their program that connected students and faculty to entities in the community (Brown, Corrigan, & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2012). From there, service-learning has become a mainstay of higher education. One reason that service-learning courses are so ubiquitous on college campuses is because they are deemed a high-impact practice (Kuh, 2008). This practice was also exulted in *Student Success in College* (Kuh, 2005).

Service-learning is often seen as a pedagogy that is used to teach a specific subject area. There is a movement to transform service-learning and community engagement into its own discipline (Butin, 2010). Service-learning can have many different intended outcomes. This study is focused on citizenship as an outcome. It is important to note that not all faculty intend this as the product of their service-learning courses.

Quality of Service-Learning

Service-learning has two main objectives: to increase student-learning and to create social change. Butin (2010) suggests that service-learning is a dream of the academy, but has yet to succeed in real world social justice for those it claims to serve. Most service-learning research focuses on student learning. There is a clear lack of research on community impact.

Iverson and James (2009) studied students who were in a teaching education course. The course was focused on a change-oriented service-learning assignment. The study found that while the intended outcome of moving the students through The Five Elements of Citizenship model (Eyler & Giles, 1999) did occur, the students still had a simplistic view of citizenship. The researchers found that the students saw themselves as personally responsible for contributions to the community, but they did not see the required need of cooperative community action. The conclusion of this study indicates that the Eyler and Giles (1999) elements do not go far enough. It promotes the idea that students must see themselves as a part of a group and not merely as individual activists.

Stoecker (2016) notes that there are more outcomes than just student learning produced by student civic experiences. The focus of his work is that community should be at the center of service-learning. He does make it clear that focusing on student learning is the only way to ensure the quality of service.

<p style="text-align:center;">Community Service</p>

A perceived lack of reflection is one reason why co-curricular community service is viewed as less impactful on student learning (Jacoby & Howard, 2015). *The Civic and Political Health of the Nation*, a report disseminated by The Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) in 2002, suggested "19 core indicators of engagement" (Keeter, Zukin, Adolina, & Jenkins, 2002, p. 3). These indicators were divided into three subcategories: civic, electoral, and political voice.

Young people were reported to participate in community service at higher rates than all other categories.

One major trend in community service is episodic volunteering. Episodic volunteering is when a person volunteers with an organization and has a defined start and end date, usually for a day or a short amount of time. This type of volunteering is on the rise because it fits into the modern busy schedule (Burkham & Boleman, 2005).

Community service often results in a higher impact on its participants when coupled with training. This training may include an orientation to the non-profits goals or acquisition of skills needed to complete the required tasks. Trained volunteers are more personally fulfilled and are retained at a higher rate (Louge, 2001). This form of community service is also linked to higher rates of political engagement (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995; Nie, Junn, & Stehlik, 1996).

In their aforementioned study, Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) found one area where community service had stronger effect than service-learning: efficacy. This finding points to the fact the both civic experiences increase students' self-efficacy with community engagement, but community service has the larger impact. The researchers attribute this to faculty failing to create good placements for their students.

Reflection

Heifetz and Linsky (2002) use the metaphor of moving from the dance floor to the balcony. This represents being in the act of community engagement and then taking time to reflect on what was learned from the experience. While on the dance floor, it is

difficult to see what is happening, but when one takes the time to step up to the balcony, a unique perspective on the service emerges. It is up on the balcony where students can put together the idea of values, skills and knowledge.

Reflection is a key component of service-learning. Classrooms that employ this pedagogy are highly involved in reflection activities. Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) note that course based service-learning gets it power from reflection. They also note that co-curricular service could have the same outcome if reflection was structured with student affairs professionals. Ultimately, their longitudinal study found that service-learning's benefits outweighed those of community service.

On the side of what the student gains from their experience in the community, service-learning has been found to increase the academic performance of students. Also, students become more concern about social issues and seek out involvement with these social problems. Another outcome is that students become more effective political participants. When service-learning courses provide, students challenging placements or systematic and intentional reflections, they develop morally and civically. Reflection on the student's experience is a reoccurring theme in this literature on service-learning, and this is also expressed in the theme of efficacy (Eyler, 2002).

Peer-to-Peer Civic Discussions

Service-learning change advocate Randy Stoecker (2016) illuminates the notion that the most "intellectually rich and explicitly civically engaged" (p. 15) time in American higher education history has been the 1960s due to the student activism. He

notes that it was not the officially sanctioned, apolitical programs of the Corporation for National and Community Service where service and learning were thriving; it was the grassroots student activism. Stoecker (2016) makes the case that powerful learning does not have to come from institutionalized programs. Students can gain critical citizenship values, knowledge, efficacy, and commitment from other methods. Peer-to-peer civic discussions can happen anywhere. They can be happing in classrooms with faculty instruction, or with students talking on their own.

Feminist and social activist bell hooks (1994) points to peer-to-peer discussions as powerful. She notes that they can help break down barriers of gender, race, social class and other differences. hooks remarks that these dialogues can disrupt assumptions and serve as beneficial interventions.

Mitchell et al. (2016) found when peer-to-peer civic discussions were used as a mediating variable, they double the outcomes of community based learning experiences.

Through her study of undergraduate fraternal organizational members, Barnhardt (2014) found that peer-to-peer civic discussions were not a factor positively associated with growth in personal and social responsibility. She posits that this may be true only for fraternity members, leaving this topic open for study in general populations of students.

In a later study of undergraduate students, Barnhardt, Sheets, and Pasquesi (2015) found that having "meaningful discussions with other students about the need to contribute to the greater good" (p. 628) was associated with a gain in civic commitments. This look at students in the general population substantiates Barnhardt's (2014) earlier

prediction. The finding opens the door for other scholars to see if peer-to-peer civic

discussions were linked to gains in citizenship practices.

<p align="center">Impacts of Citizenship Participation</p>

The 1990s brought about an increased focus on research in civic involvement and

community engagement (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Modern educators create

opportunities to educate students for citizenship; Dewey saw it as more broadly

integrated. The practice of service-learning and co-curricular community engagement are

heavier handed in the idea of the production of active citizens than Dewey suggested, yet

student participants do not connect them as experiences that will help them be better

citizens (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Even without specific interventions to create graduates who are engaged in the

democratic process, positive outcomes have been found. College graduates are more

likely to vote than their high school graduate counterparts. They are also more likely to

participate in political activities. College graduates have been found to participant in

more dialogues about political discourse. Their participation in community leadership

positions or just being involved with community groups is at a higher level than those

who did not attend college (Knox, Lindsay, & Kolb, 1993).

It has also been found that institutional characteristics did not have significant

effects on the students' citizenship once they left the college or university (Knox et al.,

1993). That outcome coincides with the fact that many institutions of higher learning

have the creation of active citizens as a core part of their institutional mission.

<u>Demographic Factors</u>

The Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (Kawashima-Ginsberg & Thomas) 2013 report found that female students participate in civic experiences at a higher rate than their male peers. Other studies suggest that female students gain more citizenship skills than males (Escorza, Escorza, Medina-Aguilar, Cordero-Diaz, Martinez, & Leon, 2014). These studies point to the discrepancy between the civic outcomes of students of different genders.

Pascarella, Wolniak and Terenzini's (2004) research on first-generation college students found that volunteer work was negatively associated with this population's development, but promoted development for their peers. They attributed this to the fact that volunteer work took students away for on-campus interactions and resulted in less peer-to-peer interaction. These interactions are associated with more development for first-generation college students.

<u>Summary</u>

This literature review provides a comprehensive summary of the variables and issues that mold the concept of citizenship in college students. In addition, it discusses the theoretical framework and the instrument that was used to conduct the study. Chapter 3 will describe the proposed methodology for this study.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to determine the impact of civic experiences (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions) on the level of citizenship (values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, commitment) of undergraduate students at a public four-year metropolitan research university (MRU) in the southeast region of the United States. The chapter provides information about the population, and describe the PSRI instrument, research variables, design, and the proposed data analysis method.

Research Questions

This study investigated the following research questions by exploring students' perceived level of citizenship and the relationship to their civic experiences.

1. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and the frequency with which they participate in service-learning, community service, or peer-to-peer civic discussions?

2. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and gender, race/ethnicity, and parental level of education?

Population

The PSRI was administered in the March and April of 2014 at the MRU in the southeast region of the United States. The MRU's undergraduate population was roughly 50,000 when the data were collected. The student population was appoximately 60%

women and 40% men. The MRU was a Predominantly White Institution (PWI), but was quickly approaching at Hispanic Serving Institution (HSI) status with over 20% of student self-identifying as Hispanic. The university also hosted about 10% African-American students. The MRU also had a robust LGBTQ community.

  While this instrument was used at many different campuses of higher learning, this study focuses on the data collected at one institution. This is in line with the purpose of the study─ holistic approach regarding student citizenship attainment at one institution. The participants in this study were undergraduate students.

Setting

  The setting of this study was at the MRU. The institution was selected for this study because it was featured in the article *Infusing Personal Responsibility into the Curriculum and Cocurriculum: Campus Examples* (O'Neill, 2013). The MRU had designated service-learning courses as well as co-curricular community service opportunities for students. The co-curricular experiences were hosted by student organizations and campus agencies. Service-learning was not a part of the general education requirements, but some majors required these courses for graduation. This institution had an optional residential component, which is typically a catalyst for peer-to-peer civic discussions. The MRU did host university sponsored educational events that provided students a space for learning and talking about different social issues. This public university provided support for all three components of this study (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions). The institution

specifically offered 41 designated service-learning courses and a total of 267 service-learning classrooms. The MRU offered these opportunities, yet most of the onus to partake was left to the student. This gives the study a wide variety of data to examine.

Sample

The study was done using archival data. Secondary data analysis is useful because it can help with data quality and sample size (Barrett, 2006). Non-probability sampling (a subset of purposeful sampling) was used. This allowed for the study of only subjects who meet pretermitted criteria. In this case that criteria would be college students at the MRU. RISE at Iowa State University provided the research sample. It consisted of only respondents who attended the MRU. RISE removed all sensitive personally identifiable information.

There were 897 MRU students who partook in the inventory, yet the research population encompassed for this study will be only those who completed the survey (275 participants). This study analyzed the responses from subjects who identified themselves as undergraduate students. Cases were omitted if the participant did not fully complete all items used in this study.

Instrumentation

The PSRI is delineated into five dimensions. These categories came out of the Core Commitments movement. They are titled (a) striving for excellence, (b) cultivating personal and academic integrity, (c) contributing to the larger community, (d) taking seriously the perspectives of others, and (e) developing competence in ethical and moral

reasoning and action (Musil, 2013). This study used five subscales based on The Five Elements of Citizenship: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, and commitment (Elyer & Giles, 1999).

The instrument consists of around 150 items. A sample view is included in Appendix B: PSRI SAMPLE VIEW. There are three different types of questions: attitudinal, behavioral, and open-ended. It also collects demographic information from participants including their campus experiences. The PSRI is a web-based survey (Barhardt, Antonaros, Holsapple, Ott, & Dey, 2010).

<center>Instrument Reliability and Validity</center>

The PSRI is used to assess personal and social responsibility in college students. The individual items and the inventory have been verified to measure these constructs. The instrument was piloted and evaluated for reliability. During these tests the PSRI was proven reliable. The reliability values for this construct are "$\alpha = 0.883$, 5 items mean = 0.021 sd = 0.677" (Barnhart et al., 2010, p. 24). This instrument has been rigorously tested and this demonstrates quality and credibility (Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer, & Tourageau, 2009).

The content validity of the PRSI has been tested by consultations with experts. The construct has also been tested and proven accurate. "Validity testing using factor analysis has tested the relationships between the dimensions and individual survey items and shown consistency in the strength and direction of these relationships" (Ryder & Mitchell, 2013, p. 44-45).

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Study Variables

Independent Variables

   This study used two groups of independent variables. The first group was civic experiences (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions). The second group was demographic data consisting of gender, race/ethnicity, and parental education level.

   The inclusion of three different types of civic experiences reflects the holistic approach regarding student citizenship attainment. These non-manipulated, categorical variables were selected by the study participants. Selected based on a broad review of germane scholarly research, these variables that are proven to be link to students' citizenship growth (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000; Mitchell et al., 2016). The civic experiences were each assessed by a survey question that was measured on a 5-point scale (1= Almost never, 2=Not very often, 3= Occasionally, 4= Often, 5= Almost always). This scale also included a sixth option as "No basis for judgment". The table below shows the instrument items and the variable with which they responded.

Table 1

PSRI Variable and Label: Civic Experiences

Type of Experience	Item	PSRI (code)	Measure	Research Question
Service-Learning	SCOMM_14	I participate in community-based projects that are officially connected to a course	1= Almost never 2= Not very often 3= Occasionally 4= Often 5= Almost always 99= No basis for judgment	1
Community Service	SCOMM_15	I participate in community-based projects that are not officially connected to a course	1= Almost never 2= Not very often 3= Occasionally 4= Often 5= Almost always 99= No basis for judgment	1
Peer-to-Peer Civic Discussions	SCOMM_16	I have meaningful discussions with other students about the need to contribute to the greater good	1= Almost never 2= Not very often 3= Occasionally 4= Often 5= Almost always 99= No basis for judgment	1

The demographic data were comprised of three parts with each part having multiple levels. Gender was split into four levels— female, male, transgendered/gender nonconforming, and rather not say. Race/ethnicity was delineated into Hispanic of any race, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, and White. Parental education consisted of nine levels. These levels relate only to the parent or guardian with the highest degree attained. The options on the instrument that are be considered to be first-generation college students are as follows: no high school, some high school, high school graduate, some college, Associates or Technical degree. The items that correspond to non-first-generation college students are Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, and Doctorate or Professional degree.

Dependent Variables

Operationally defined, level of citizenship is the total score that results from the combination of each of The Five Elements of Citizenship: (1) values, (2) knowledge, (3) skills, (4) efficacy, and (5) commitment (Elyer & Giles, 1999). These five elements make up the theoretical framework for this study. The highest possible score is 25. Each 5-point increment corresponds to an element (i.e. values: 0-5, knowledge 6-10, skills: 11-15, efficacy: 16-20, commitment 21-25). This construct was used in each to answer all three research questions. This theory proposes that undergraduate students gain competency in each of these areas until they reach the highest obtainable level of active citizenship.

Elements are each assessed by a survey question that is measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale. This scale also includes a sixth option as "No basis for judgment." Except the element of efficacy which is measured on a frequency scale (from never to everyday). The subsequent table shows the instrument items, the PSRI code, measure, and the corresponding citizenship element.

Table 2

PSRI Variable and Label: Citizenship

Citizenship Element	Item	PSRI (code)	Measure
Values	SCOMM_6	I came to college with a strong commitment to contribute to the greater good	1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree somewhat 3= Neutral 4= Agree somewhat 5= Strongly agree 99= No basis for judgment
Knowledge	SCOMM_7	My experiences at this campus have helped expand my awareness of the importance of being involved in the community and contributing to the greater good	1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree somewhat 3= Neutral 4= Agree somewhat 5= Strongly agree 99= No basis for judgment
Skills	SCOMM_8	My experiences at this campus have helped me learn the skills necessary to effectively change society for the better	1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree somewhat 3= Neutral 4= Agree somewhat 5= Strongly agree 99= No basis for judgment
Efficacy	mhc4	In the past 2 weeks, how often did you feel that you had something important to contribute to society	0= Never 1= Once or Twice 2= About Once a Week 3= 2-3 times a Week 4= Almost Every Day 5=Every Day
Commitment	SCOMM_9	My experiences at this campus have helped me deepen my commitment to contribute to the greater good	1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree somewhat 3= Neutral 4= Agree somewhat 5= Strongly agree 99= No basis for judgment

Research Approach and Design

Research Approach

As a researcher investing human behavior, it is unrealistic to assume that a substantial level of control over participants' actions can be attained.

The result is that any intervention (e.g., service-learning course or program) that attempts to influence human behavior (e.g., civic engagement, prosocial behavior) must account for numerous influential factors on the target behavior that are

outside of experimenter control (e.g., whether students are tired, whether students have prior volunteer experience)" (Richard, 2017, p. 222-223).

While many service-learning researchers note that qualitative research methods align succinctly with the constructivist origins and values of the field, others including Steinberg, Bringle, & McGuire (2012), note that quantitative research adds rigor. Utilizing quantitative methods for service-learning research can contribute to the refinement of theories in a qualitative-saturated discipline (Richard, 2017).

Research Design

Due to the lack of control over extraneous variables that might affect the study, a quasi-experimental design was used in this study (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). This type of research design does not seek to prove or refute theory; it seeks to reject or fail a hypothesis. This quasi-experimentally designed study strives to be aware of its limitations.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data Collection

First the researcher requested approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the MRU and the request for the PSRI data collected in March and April of 2014 was submitted and approved by the subject institution's administration and the RISE. Cases were verified to confirm completeness (i.e. all items used in this study are answered).

SmartPLS and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) were used to analyze the data.

Data Analysis

This study used a quantitative research design. Structural equation modeling, partial least squares, was used to investigate the complex relationship between variables (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). The first research question was analyzed using structural equation modeling. Multiple regression, a simple linear regression, was used to predict the significance of one variable based on the value of other variables (Creswell, 2009). Research question two was evaluated using multiple regression analysis. There are eight assumptions that must be met to use multiple linear regression. The primary assumption of this statistical method is that the independent and dependent variables have a linear relationship. It should also be assumed that there are not significant outliers, high leverage points or highly influential points because they can affect the analysis. The third assumption is that the dependent variable measures a continuous scale (in the case the construct of citizenship: measures from 0-25). Another assumption is that there are two or more independent variables (in this study each research question investigates a civic experience that is delineated into six levels). The presence of independence of observations is the fourth assumption. Also it is assumed that the data will not show multicollinearity. There should also be homoscedasticity in the data. The last assumption is that the residuals are approximately normal. (Laerd Statistics, 2013)

This study seeks to examine the relationship between civic experiences and citizenship using a multiple regression analysis. Citizenship was the dependent variable (outcome variable) and the civic experiences (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions) were the independent variables (predictive variables).

Authorization to Conduct Research

The University of Central Florida IRB works to safeguard the rights of human participants during and after their involvement with research. All studies that involve human participants conducted at UCF must obtained approval. The IRB approval letter is attached as Appendix C: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPOVAL.

Before IRB will approve a study the researcher must successfully complete the Collaborative IBR Training Initiative (CITI) online modules. These 16 web-based modules cover content on social and behavioral research with human subjects. The foci of these segments is the ethical treatment of both participants and data (Pearson, Parker, Fisher, & Moreno, 2014).

Originality

The dissertation chair of this study submitted this manuscript to iThenticate. This is a web-based program to review work for originality. The chair of this dissertation discussed the resulting index with the other members of the committee at the defense on September 25, 2017.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine and describe the relationship between civic experiences and citizenship of undergraduate students. Secondary data from the PSRI was analyzed from 267 participants from a public four-year metropolitan university. This quasi-experimental quantitative design was deployed to predict the relationship between the dependent variable (citizenship) and the independent variables (civic experiences).

The posited research questions pursue the relationship between service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions and students' citizenship. Multiple regression analysis will be performed on each civic experience type. This provided a holistic approach to understanding citizenship attainment.

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of this study. These findings stem from the statistical analysis completed in efforts to answer the two research questions that guided this study. The data analysis provided in this chapter was conducted using SmartPLS and IBM SPSS Statistic 24 web application. The inferential statistics were analyzed using an $\alpha = .05$ significance level.

Participants

This study analyzed the responses from 275 participants. All participants were current undergraduate students at the MRU. Though 897 students participated in the PSRI at the MRU, only 267 of them submitted answers for the items that were analyzed in this study. Only the responses from the participants who completed all items used in this analysis were used. This data set was provided to the researcher by the RISE at Iowa State University.

The demographic characteristics of the participants are provided in Table 3. More participants indicated that they were female (65.5%) than male or gender nonconforming. Also, the majority of participants identified as white (70%). The population was closely split between first-generation college students and those who were not first-generation college students, with 52.2% being non-first-generation college students and 47.2% first-generation college students. These two groups do not account for all participants,

because .7% did not know their parent's level of education. This demographic profile is

consistent with the institutional profile presented in Chapter 3.

Table 3

Participant Demographic Data (N = 267)

Demographic Characteristics		N	%
Gender	Female	174	65.2
	Male	83	31.1
	Transgender/Gender Nonconforming	5	1.9
	Rather Not Say	5	1.9
Parental Education	Do not know	2	.7
	No high school	4	1.5
	Some high school	9	3.4
	High school graduate	50	18.7
	Some college	33	12.4
	Associate's/Technical degree	30	11.2
	Bachelor's degree	81	30.3
	Master's degree	41	15.4
	Doctorate or professional degree (e.g., PhD, JD, MD, DDS)	17	6.4
Race/Ethnicity			
	Hispanics of any race	47	17.6
	American Indian or Alaska Native	3	1.1
	Asian	15	5.6
	Black or African American	27	10.1
	Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	3	1.1
	White	187	70

Note. Total does not equal 100% because Hispanic is not considered a race, but an ethnicity, and is not mutually exclusive to any racial group.

What is the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and the frequency with which they participate in service-learning, community service, or peer-to-peer civic discussions?

This research question strove to establish whether any of these specific civic experiences were a good predictor for students perceived level of citizenship. Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to analyze this question. PLS-SEM is used to ascertain any significant weight or relevant effect of each variable. Table 4 presents the outer loadings of each variable and shows the convergence validity. The citizenship construct was analyzed as formative because the theoretical framework suggested that each element is a separate facet of citizenship.

Table 4

Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) Outer Loadings

Citizenship Element/Type of Experience	Item	PSRI (code)	Outer Loadings
Values	SCOMM_6	I came to college with a strong commitment to contribute to the greater good	0.721
Knowledge	SCOMM_7	My experiences at this campus have helped expand my awareness of the importance of being involved in the community and contributing to the greater good	0.877
Skills	SCOMM_8	My experiences at this campus have helped me learn the skills necessary to effectively change society for the better	0.816
Efficacy	mhc4	In the past 2 weeks, how often did you feel that you had something important to contribute to society	0.646
Commitment	SCOMM_9	My experiences at this campus have helped me deepen my commitment to contribute to the greater good	0.891
Service-Learning	SCOMM_14	I participate in community-based projects that are officially connected to a course	Single item
Community Service	SCOMM_15	I participate in community-based projects that are not officially connected to a course	Single item
Peer-to-Peer Civic Discussions	SCOMM_16	I have meaningful discussions with other students about the need to contribute to the greater good	Single item

The R-squared represents the relationship between citizenship and the civic experiences. Weight (R^2) can be any number between -1 and +1. This means any negative number has a negative relationship, any number close to 0 has a weak relationship, and the closer to +1 the stronger the positive relationship (Hair et al., 2013).

These weights can be interpreted as percentage of influence. For example, if the weight was +1 you would say it had 100% of the influence over that construct. Table 5 displays the weights, *t*-values, and *p*-values. Here you can see that service-learning explains only

6.1% of citizenship level and by the *p*-value (*p*=0.340, *p*>.005) it is not statically

significant. Community service explains 22.6% of the effect and is statically significant

(*p*=0.002, *p*>.005). However the strongest effect comes from peer-to-peer civic

discussions (35.3%). It has the most statistical significance (*p*=0.000, *p*>.005). One can

also interpret that all three types of experiences together account for 29.7% of the effect

(*p*=0.000, *p*>.005). The effects and bootstrapping are shown in Figure 2.

Table 5

Civic Experiences and Citizenship Level R-Squared, t-Values, p-Values

Second-order construct	First-order construct	R^2	t-Values	p-Values
Citizenship	Service-Learning	0.061	0.954	0.340
	Community Service	0.226	5.318	0.002
	Peer-to-Peer Civic Discussions	0.353	3.090	0.000
	Service-Learning> Community Service> Peer-to-Peer Civic Discussions	0.297	6.633	0.000
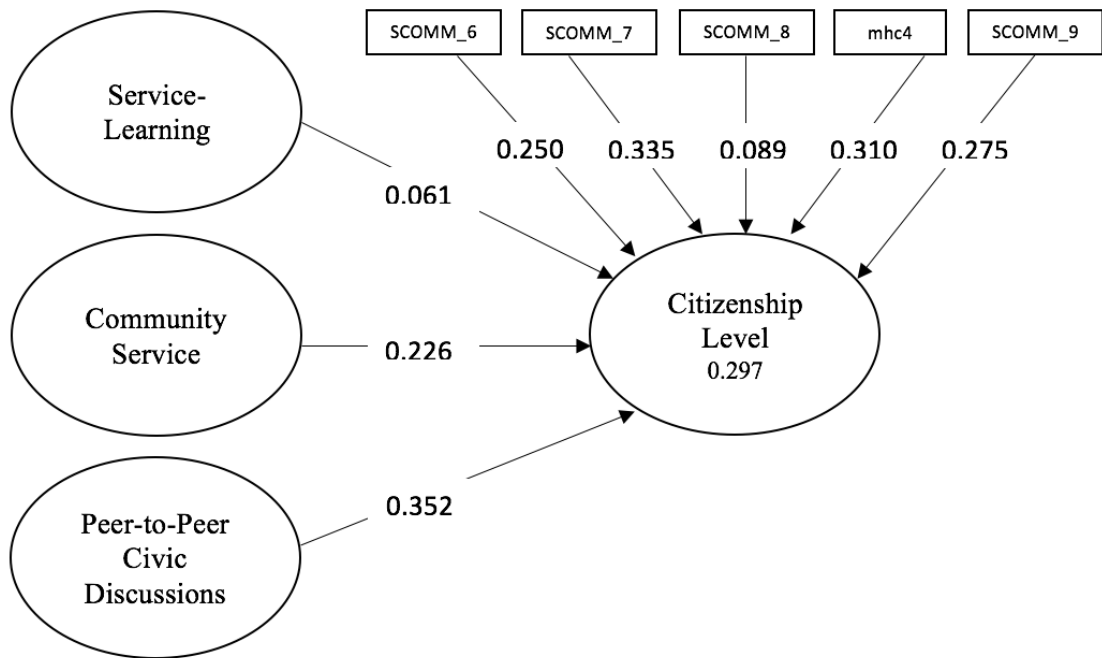
Figure 2 Structural Model Results

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and gender, race/ethnicity, and parental level of education?

The second research question related to the demographic characteristics of the students at MRU. Multiple regression analysis was used to investigate this question. Tables 6, 7, and 8 show the findings about perceived citizenship and gender, race/ethnicity, and parental level of education, respectively. Only one of the characteristics proved to be statistically significant— parental education of doctorate or professional degree (e.g., PhD, JD, MD, DDS).

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Table 6

Multiple Regression Analysis of Gender on Perceived Citizenship

Variable	B	SEB	t	Sig.
Female	.178	.086	1.413	.159
Male	-.165	-.078	-1.260	.209
Transgender/Gender Nonconforming	.210	.029	.472	.637
Rather Not Say	-.790	-.109	-1.776	.077
R	.133			
R^2	.018			
Adjusted R^2	.007			
Std. Error of the Estimate	.98072			

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analysis of Race/Ethnicity on Perceived Citizenship

Variable	B	SEB	t	Sig.
Hispanics of any race	-.088	-.034	-.381	.704
American Indian or Alaska Native	-.897	-.096	-1.555	.121
Asian	-.452	-.106	-1.553	.122
Black or African American	-1.25	-.038	-.446	.656
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	.261	.028	.448	.655
White	-.696	.448	-.162	.121
R	.176			
R^2	.031			
Adjusted R^2	.009			
Std. Error of the Estimate	.97970			

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analysis of Parental Level of Education on Perceived Citizenship

Variable	B	SEB	t	Sig.
Do not know	.543	.048	.769	.443
No high school	.143	.018	.283	.777
Some high school	-.101	-.019	-.292	.771
High school graduate	.139	.055	.784	.434
Some college	.064	.022	.316	.752
Associate's/Technical degree	-.003	-.001	-.016	.987
Bachelor's degree	-.159	-.075	-1.218	.224
Master's degree	.270	.099	1.427	.155
Doctorate or professional degree (e.g., PhD, JD, MD, DDS)	.520	.129	1.972	.049
R	.155			
R^2	.024			
Adjusted R^2	-.006			
Std. Error of the Estimate	.98705			

Summary

In conclusion, these research questions examined the relationship between students' civic experiences or demographic characteristics and their perceived level of citizenship. Level of citizenship was a construct that was based on The Five Elements of Citizenship (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Peer-to-Peer civic discussions had the strongest relationship to perceived level of citizenship, followed by community service, which had a weaker relationship. Service-learning did not have a statistically significant relationship. The investigation into the effects of demographic characteristics proved to have no statistically significant relationship to students' perceived level of citizenship.

CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION

Introduction

This study examines the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived citizenship level and different types of civic experiences (service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions) at a public institution using the PSRI. The Five Elements of Citizenship model (Elyer & Giles, 1999) was used as the theoretical framework and the basis for the citizenship construct. The analysis completed for this study was designed to look at the relationship between student civic experiences or demographic characteristics and their perceived level of citizenship. This chapter provides a summary of the research. It also examines the relationship between the current literature and the findings, and is followed by a discussion of unanticipated results. Then a critique of the study is presented, and the chapter ends with recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Research Study

This secondary data analysis was done using archival data and non-probability sampling. The research sample consisted of 267 participants. Nonresponse error is unlikely in this study because the participants mirror demographic characteristics of the population (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). This quantitative study investigated student perception of citizenship aptitudes, frequency of civic experiences and demographic characteristics through the research questions below.

1. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and the frequency they participate in service-learning, community service, or peer-to-peer civic discussions?

2. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and gender, race/ethnicity, and parental level of education?

The Five Elements of Citizenship (Elyer & Giles, 1999) were used to design the research questions. This theoretical framework explains the linear progression that undergraduate students make as they develop citizenship proficiencies. The five elements in successive order are (1) values, (2) knowledge, (3) skills, (4) efficacy, and (5) commitment. Table 2 shows the connection between the instrument (PSRI) and the construct of citizenship. These research questions are a result of a review of the current relevant literature. Researchers (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000; Jacoby & Howard, 2015; Butin, 2010; Iverson & James, 2009; Stoecker, 2016) have studied undergraduates' civic experiences and citizenship aptitudes, yet there has not been a study that combined service-learning, community service, and peer-to-peer civic discussions (Mitchell et al., 2016). This study was deliberate in taking a holistic approach, therefore adding to the scholarly arena of civic research.

Results of the Study in Relation to the Literature

Research question number one asked if there was a relationship between certain kinds of civic experiences and students' self-perceived citizenship levels. The study found statistically significant correlations between community service frequency (0.002;

p>.005) and peer-to-peer civic discussions frequency (0.000; *p*< .005). There was no coloration with service-learning frequency and citizenship levels (*p*=0.340; *p*>.005). A review of the literature did not find any other instances where researchers investigated these three types of civic experiences in one study.

Yet, Vogelgesang and Astin (2000) did concurrently look at citizenship aptitudes as a result of community service and service-learning. They concluded that course-based service-learning helped students develop more active citizenship proficiencies than community service. This study did find a significant relationship between community service and citizenship level, while it did not find any relationship between service-learning and citizenship level. The authors did find that community service was more strongly correlated with self-efficacy and leadership abilities than service-learning. Their conclusion was this was happening because the quality of service-learning classes was low. The researchers (Rosing, Reed, Ferrari, & Bothne, 2010) point to community placements in service-learning courses that do not work out for the students, as one major limitations that can effect the self-efficacy of students. This may be why community service shows significance in this study. Students have more control over their co-curricular service placements.

Mitchell and Associates (2016) found that undergraduate students who participated in peer-to-peer civic discussions had greater development of their personal and social responsibility, as well as a belief that contributing to the community was important. This study supports their finding. The analysis concluded that peer-to-peer civic discussions had the greatest influence over students' citizenship level. Cooks and

Scharrer (2006) suggest that community-based learning takes place when communication with others is happening. Scholars have criticized the quality of service-learning courses (Butin, 2010; Iverson and James ,2009; Stoecker, 2016), and pointed to the lack of intention behind the community placement, and quality and quantity of conversations about the experiences as a misstep in this field. These critiques may point to the findings of this study. This study did not find a correlation between service-learning and citizenship levels, but it did find a strong correlation with community service and a stronger correlation with peer-to-peer civic discussions. It also found a strong effect when all three experiences were practiced together as seen in Table 5 ($R^{2=}0.297$).

One of the most powerful finding was that there was a significant correlation between all three civic experiences together and citizenship. Therefore, when a student has all three types of experiences frequently, they are more likely to have a high citizenship level. This finding it important, because this study sought to look at this holistically. This finding shows that all three types of civic experiences are correlated with civic learning.

Moreover, the second research question focused on the relationship between demographic variables and students self-perceived citizenship levels. This study found only one significant relationship between gender, race/ethnicity, and parental education and citizenship levels. The demographic characteristic that was found to have a significant relationship was parental level of education as doctorate or professional degree (e.g., PhD, JD, MD, DDS). This question was posed because the Carnegie Foundation of the Advancement of Teaching and CIRCLE (2006) illumined the paucity

of research that explores the civic attainment of undergraduate students from different racial/ethnic backgrounds. This question also sought explore the finding of Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, and Terenzini (2004), who found that community service had a positive influence on cognitive and psychosocial development of non-first-generation college students, but a negative impact on first-generation college students. Kawashima-Ginsberg and Thomas (2013) and Escorza, Escorza, Medina-Aguilar, Cordero-Diaz, Martinez, and Leon, (2014) also found discrepancy between the civic engagement and proficiencies of students with different genders.

This study found for this specific population of undergraduate students at a public four-year metropolitan research university in the southeast region of the United States, there was no significant correlations between gender or race/ethnicity and citizenship levels. It did find that the demographic characteristic of having parent who has a doctorate or professional degree was correlated with citizenship level.

<center>Unanticipated Results</center>

Each research question in this study resulted in unanticipated findings. It is particularly interesting that, in research question one, service-learning was not correlated to The Five Elements of Citizenship (Eyler & Glies, 1999), because the model was created as a result of a study about students who took service-learning courses. The initial assumption was that service-learning would yield the highest correlation to citizenship levels, and the other two civic experiences would correlate to a lesser degree. The opposite was found in the current study. This may be a symptom, not of the fact that

service-learning cannot help students grow civically, but that service-learning at the MRU is not cultivating a space for students to talk about their civic experiences, nor giving students suitable placements.

It is significant to note that when service-learning is paired with peer-to-peer civic discussions and community service it is significantly correlated.   When looked at holistically, service-learning can help to counterbalance learning that is happening outside of the classroom. This study found that all three types of civic learning together account of significant student gains in civic aptitudes.

Similarly, the second research question resulted in unexpected results. Only one significant correlation was found for any of the tested demographic characteristics. This is contrary to the findings and predictions of other researchers (Kawashima-Ginsberg & Thomas, 2013; Escorza et al., 2014, Carnegie Foundation of the Advancement of Teaching & CIRCLE, 2006). This study found that civic experiences, not demographic background, predicts the citizenship level of students. This is more specific than Pascarella and associates (2004) finding. Not only was there no significant correlation between any of the first-generation characteristics there was no significant correlation with two of the non-first-generation characteristics. It was found that specifically only parental education level of doctorate or professional degree has a significant correlation. This finding shows that for this population that it is not just non-first generation, but those who had the most highly educated parents that had high level of citizenship. Schlechter and Milevsky (2010) found that the more education a parent had the more likely students were pursue higher education because of societal expectations. This may

be related to the finding of this study. These students may feel societal pressure to excel and thus are more conscious of citizenship aptitudes.

Conversely, first-generation college students may not have a significant correlation with citizenship, because they are less likely to have an understanding of the purpose and the mechanisms of higher education (Pelco, Ball, Lockeman, 2014). This may prove to be significant because if first-generation college students are approaching higher education as a means of credentialing only, then they may not be as ready to gain citizenship aptitudes.

Critique of Study

One critique of this study is that the data were collected in 2014. Using historical data always poses a risk that the findings will not match current practice. This should be particularly noted in this study, because the subject matter is civic competencies and the United States of America recently went thought an intensely rousing presidential election cycle. This may have sparked students to be more apt to engage in these aptitudes.

Another critique of this study is that peer-to-peer civic discussions are so loosely defined. The PSRI item states "I have meaningful discussions with other students about the need to contribute to the greater good." While this language is precise about the peer-to-peer and civic nature of the discussions, it leaves much of the interpretation of when and where these dialogues occur. This makes it difficult for researchers to draw conclusions about what type of peer-to-peer civic discussions promote student growth the

most. This study does not delineate between institutionalized programs (such as

conscious diversity dialogues) or spontaneous student discussions.

Likewise, this study does not discriminate between community service that is

institutionalized or individualized. The MRU does offer student and staff led community

service opportunities for students that also include intentional reflection. The instrument

did not specify if the community service was guided or not. This makes it difficult to

determine if the students' growth was a result of an experience they cultivated on their

own or with guidance of student affairs trained students, faculty or staff.

One glaring omission of this study is the lack of community voice. The research

questions are focused on the student learning aspect of civic experiences, but it is

important to note that community engagement activities should not be done for the sole

purpose of student learning. A narrow interpretation of undergraduates' civic

experiences as the only learning opportunities for students is dangerous and can

propagate toxic charity that may hurt those they intend to help (Lupton, 2011).

Implications for Practice

The most transparent implication this study reveals is with the practice of service-

learning. This study defines service-learning as academic course based community

service learning (CSL). Although the theoretical framework that was used in this

research was created for use in service-learning, this study did not find a statically

significant correlation between service-learning frequency and The Five Elements of

Citizenship (Eyler &Glies, 1999). Yet, peer-to-peer civic discussions and to a lesser

degree community service were statically significant. This is not an indication that

service-learning does not help students gain citizenship proficiencies. Service-learning is

well documented as an effective way of helping students grow (Butin, 2010; Iverson &

James, 2009; Battistoni, 1997; Battistoni, 2013; Kirlin, 2003; Kendall, 1990). This study

suggests that faculty members who engage in service-learning must be taught (or

reminded) about what makes the practice valuable. As far back as 1996, Eyler, Giles, &

Schmiede were touting the importance of service-learning courses to read, write, do, and

tell. Faculty and administrators need to note that the discussion of what is happening is

important. It is not enough to have students write reflection papers and then never

discuss what they are experiencing with their peers (Klofstad, 2010).

Bowdon, Pigg, and Mansfield (2014) studied service-learning through a feminist

lens. They concluded that leading students in peer-to-peer civic discussion in the

classroom would help students learn. Specifically, faculty could lead student in

conversation about "how gender is constructed and enacted in both service-learning

literature and at the students' service-learning sites." These scholars assert that these peer

discussions can assist student with unpacking gender dynamics.

Another important implication for practice is about service-learning and site

choice. Students' top concerns and complaints about service-learning courses are that the

community partners are unprepared, the sites were not up to par, and that scheduling was

an issue (Rosing, Reed, Ferrari, & Bothne, 2010). This study indicates that these issues

persist. Community service is less fraught with these challenges, because it is easier for a

student to find a community partner that they with work well. It is a nimbler process for

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a community service student to change the site they work with than it is for a service-learning student. This is due to the time constraint of the semester system, and the students' lack of experience working with community partners. Faculty members and administrators should work to cut red tape for students, and work to prepare the service sites with what students need to be able to learn. This may help students learn more citizenship skills. It should also be noted that this does not mean that student should not have any autonomy when working with community partners. If students are not allowed to do any of the work, this may affect their ability to gain efficacy (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000).

The findings of this study also imply that student community service that is not connected with a course is a significant learning opportunity for students. This suggests that faculty and administrators should encourage students to partake in these experiences. Student affairs professionals can encourage both institutionalized programs and community service that students do on their own. One great example of this type of program is an Alternative Break- a "short-term, student-run immersion service trip" (Sumka, Porter, Piacitelli, 2015, p. 8). These civic experiences allow for students to lead their peers and be in an intensive immersive community service experience while also allowing them to explore social change topics. It can also be tied to the university for risk management purposes. Programs like this can prove to be educational for students and allow for civic reflection and intentional peer-to-peer civic discussions.

Furthermore, student affairs practitioners should observe the positive effect peer-to-peer civic discussions have on undergraduate students. As mentioned before, this

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study does not discriminate between faculty or staff led discussion or spontaneous student dialogues. This leads to the conclusion that both types of peer-to-peer civic discussions have value and should be encouraged. One such program that facilitates both is types of civic discussions is Ask Big Questions. Ask Big Questions is a system of tools to help spur conversation about the big questions of our time (Bornstein, 2014). These tools range from civic dialogue facilitation guides to passive approaches (such as banners or stickers). These tools can be used by student affairs staff to encourage peer-to-peer discussions.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Future Research</div>

While this study has contributed to the literature of citizenship obtainment and civic experiences of undergraduate students, it has also brought forth more questions. The research conducted here yielded no significant correlation between any demographic characteristic and citizenship level. Yet, this does not preclude the necessity of continuing to research the effect different backgrounds may have on students' civic competencies. This type of research should be done at a different types of institutions or with a larger sample size. It might also be appropriate to conduct this type of research with a different theoretical framework. The Five Elements of Citizenship (Eyler & Giles 1999) was created to measure student civic proficiency, but it was not created specifically to research how different demographic characteristics interplay with students' citizenship levels.

As mentioned before, the 2016 U.S. Presidential election cycle was very contentious and roused many college students to take more notice of civic topics. This contrasts with the relative contentment that surrounded the 2008 election (Graham & Hand, 2010). Research that looks that the civic engagement and citizenship levels of students after this turning in point in American history might reveal other findings.

Future research could also look at subpopulation of students, such as student athletes. Fraternity and Sorority members are another area of interest (Barnhardt, 2014). Neither one of these populations were included in this study, because the number of participants who classified themselves in these subpopulations was very low.

It is also recommended that researchers conduct longitudinal studies about how each of these types of civic experiences resulted in civic action. It has been found that that peer-to-peer civic talks lead to more student civic participation (Klofstad, 2010). This study does not look at the correlations between civic experiences and long-term civic action.

In addition, researchers should do item analysis of the PSRI or citizenship models in general. This type of investigation can provide deeper knowledge about individual questions. It can offer an in-depth look at specific patterns that emerge for certain items.

One rising area of interest for many colleges and universities is alumni gifts. Though this study does not ask about this topic, it is interesting to pose the question that maybe students who gain more citizenship proficiencies might see themselves as a part of the fabric that must continue to help provide educational opportunities to others.

Therefore, future studies should investigate if there is a positive correlation between citizenship or civic experiences and alumni donor activity.

Conducting research in the field of community engaged learning and citizenship is not easy. "Those who engage in CSL [Community Service-Learning], as teachers, scholars, students, participants, and even stakeholders somewhat outside the process, all recognize that it is often messy, complex, and rarely predictable. Yet, most believe that it is valuable in spite, and perhaps because, of this messiness" (Cooks & Scharrer, 2006, p. 52). This body of literature needs to be continually explored and expanded even though it is complicated. There is still much to learn about how students learn citizenship aptitudes and how to create positive social change.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between undergraduate students' perceived level of citizenship and the frequency they participate in civic experiences or their demographic characteristics. The erstwhile research on this subject did not bring together these types of civic experiences (service-learning, community service, or peer-to-peer civic discussions) nor did it examine the effect gender, race/ethnicity, and parental level of education had on citizenship. This study found a significant relationship between community service, peer-to-peer civic discussions, and all three types of civic experiences in relation to citizenship level. On the other hand, service-learning frequency by itself was not found to be a significant factor. Also, no significant relationship was found between citizenship levels and any

demographic variable. This chapter also addresses unanticipated results, a critique of the

study, implication for practice and recommendations for future research.

POSTLUDE

Colleges and universities need to expand education for democracy so it reaches all students in ever more challenging ways. Campuses can be critical sites for honing students' civic knowledge, skills, values, and actions, and for preparing them for lives of public purpose as well as employment. Advancing reciprocal partnerships with communities both locally and globally promises to invigorate the research, teaching, and learning agendas for higher education while strengthening communities. Creative alliances with public-minded nonprofit agencies, governmental agencies, and businesses can replenish civic capital.

We therefore invite all stakeholders in America's future to join together to become civic agents of a new promissory note at this crucible moment: to use higher education and the pathways to it as "the carrier of democratic values, ideals, and processes." (National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement, 2012, p. 69)

APPENDIX A
CITIZENSHIP TIMELINE

Date	Change	Type of Movement	Sources
Reformation Beginnings			(Gieger, 2005)
1636	1636- Harvard Mission established	Institutional movement	(Brubacher & Rudy, 1997)
1638	Harvard students riot over harsh discipline	Student movement	(Ellswork & Burns, 1970)
1766	Harvard bad butter student riot	Student movement	(Ellswork & Burns, 1970)
Republic Education			(Gieger, 2005)
1776-1783	American Revolution		
1789	George Washington elected first president		
Passing of Republican Education			(Gieger, 2005)
1807	Princeton riots about suppression of rights	Student movement	(Ellswork & Burns, 1970)
1807	Harvard's Rotten Cabbage Rebellion	Student movement	(Ellswork & Burns, 1970)
Classical Denominational Colleges			(Gieger, 2005)
1825	Jefferson established UVA- First Student Government	Governmental Initiative	(Brubacher & Rudy, 1997)
1835	Alexis de Tocqueville	Notable Scholarship	(Tocqueville, 1835/1966)
1836	1836 military company riot	Student movement	(Bowman & Santos, 2013)
1840	University of Virginia Law John A.G. Davis Death- Transition moment to seeing beyond self	Student movement	(Bowman & Santos, 2013; Minor 1874)
New Departures			(Gieger, 2005)
1861-1865	Civil War		
1862	The Morrill Act of 1862	Governmental Initiative	(Brubacher & Rudy, 1997)
1888	James Bryce	Notable Scholarship	(Bryce, 1888/1959)
1890	Morrill Act of 1890/ Agricultural College Act of 1890	Governmental Initiative	(Brubacher & Rudy, 1997)
Growth & Standardization			(Gieger, 2005)

1891	The Wisconsin Idea- "is, fundamentally, about building democracy that engages the people to resist oppression, exploitation, and exclusion and collectively move toward the progressive society."	Governmental Initiative	(Stoecker, 2016)
1892	President G. Stanley Hall/Establishment of the University of Chicago- Public mission to improve communication and applied science through the creation of publication presses and libraries	Institutional movement	(Brubacher & Rudy, 1997)
1889	Addams founded Hull-House, Settlement Movement	Student movement	(Addams 1921/2002)
1901	Junior League Formed	Student movement	(Louge, 2001)
1909	Harvard's President Lowell's Inaugural Address- "The object of the undergraduate department is not to produce hermits, each imprisoned in the cell of this own intellectual pursuits, but men fitted to take their places in the community and live in contact with their fellow men"		(Lowell, 1909, pp. 497)
Hierarchical Differentiation			(Gieger, 2005)
1916	John Dewey- *Democracy in Education*	Notable Scholarship	(Dewey, 1961/1966)
1939-1945	WWII		
1944	Gunnar Myrdal	Notable Scholarship	(Myrdal, 1944)
1944	GI Bill	Governmental Initiative	(Cole, 2009)
The Academic Revolution			(Gieger, 2005)
1945	Harvard University's Committee on General Education	Institutional movement	(Harvard University, 1945)
1947	Higher Education for American Democracy Report (President's Commission on Higher Education)	Governmental Initiative	(Reuben & Perkins, 2007)
1961	PEACE Corps founded	Governmental Initiative	

1964	Freedom Summer	Student movement	(Clark, 2009)
1964	Federal Work Study	Governmental Initiative	
1964	White House Fellows	Governmental Initiative	
1964	VISTA	Governmental Initiative	
1966	First recorded use of the term *service-learning*- Oak Ridge Associated Universities		(Brown, Corrigan, & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2012)
1969	Native American Students start Red Power Movement	Student movement	(Rhoads, 1998)
1969	Movimiento Estudiantil Chicano de Aztla'n	Student movement	(Muñoz, 1989)
1970	Kent State Shootings	Student movement	(Brubacher & Rudy, 1997)
Regulation, Relevance, & Steady State			(Gieger, 2005)
1985	Campus Compact Established	Institutional movement	
1989	National Society for Experiential Education- Principle of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning	Institutional movement	(Honnet & Poulsen, 1989)
1990	National Community Service Act	Governmental Initiative	
1990	Mills College strike	Student movement	(Rhoads, 1998)
1993	Chicano Studies movement at UCLA	Student movement	(Rhoads, 1998)
1993	National and Community Service Trust Act of 1993- Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS)	Governmental Initiative	
1993-96	American Indian Protests at Michigan State University	Student movement	(Rhoads, 1998)
1991to 1993	Gay Liberation Activities at Pennsylvania State University	Student movement	(Rhoads, 1998)
1995	African American protests at Rutgers University	Student movement	(Rhoads, 1998)
1996	Boyer's Scholarship of Engagement	Notable Scholarship	(Boyer, 1996)

1999	Wingspread- Declaration on Renewing the Civic Mission of the American Research University		(Boyte & Hollander, 1999)
1999	Campus Compact- President's Delectation on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education		(Ehrlich, 1999)
1999	*Where's the Learning in Service-Learning*- The Five Elements of Citizenship.	Notable Scholarships	(Eyler & Giles, 1999)
1999	Kellogg Commission– Returning to our Roots: The Engaged Institution	Institutional movement	(Kellogg Commission on the Future of State & Land Grant Universities, 1999)
2004	Wingspread- Calling the Question: Is Higher Education Ready to Commit to Community Engagement	Institutional movement	(Brukardt, Holland, Percy, & Zimpher, 2004)
2006	Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement	Institutional movement	(The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2006)
2007	Liberal Education & American's Promise (LEAP) called *College Learning for the New Global Century*	Institutional movement	(Musil, 2013)
2007	AAC&U's Core Commitments	Institutional movement	(Musil, 2013)
2007	PSRI First used	Institutional movement	(Musil, 2013)
2009	Kettering Foundation: Democratic Engagement Whitepaper	Institutional movement	(Saltmarsh, Hartley, & Clayton, 2009)
2011	Learn and Serve American unfunded	Governmental Initiative	
2012	AAC&U: A Crucible Moment	Institutional movement	(National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement ,2012)
2012	Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) Movement/Dreamers	Student movement	(Hope, Keels, & Durkee, 2016)
2013	Black Lives Matter Movement	Student movement	(Hope, Keels, & Durkee, 2016)

APPENDIX B
PSRI SAMPLE VIEWS

How often do the following events occur at this campus?

	Almost Never	Not Very Often	Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	No Basis for Judgment
I participate in community-based projects that are officially connected to a course	○	○	○	○	○	○
I participate in community-based projects that are not officially connected to a course	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have meaningful discussions with other students about the need to contribute to the greater good	○	○	○	○	○	○

Contributing to a Larger Community

This dimension includes recognizing and acting on one's responsibility to your campus community, the local community, and the wider society, both nationally and globally. It also includes contributing to the greater good and an ability to accurately respond to the needs of others.

Please rate your level of agreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	No Basis for Judgment
The importance of contributing to a larger community is a major focus of this campus	○	○	○	○	○	○
The importance of contributing to a larger community should be a major focus of this campus	○	○	○	○	○	○
Contributing to a larger community is a responsibility that this campus values and promotes	○	○	○	○	○	○
This campus actively promotes awareness of U.S. social, political, and economic issues	○	○	○	○	○	○
This campus actively promotes awareness of global social, political, and economic issues	○	○	○	○	○	○
I came to college with a strong commitment to contribute to the greater good	○	○	○	○	○	○
My experiences at this campus have helped expand my awareness of the importance of being involved in the community and contributing to the greater good	○	○	○	○	○	○
My experiences at this campus have helped me learn the skills necessary to effectively change society for the better	○	○	○	○	○	○
My experiences at this campus have helped me deepen my commitment to contribute to the greater good	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX C
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPOVAL

NOT HUMAN RESEARCH DETERMINATION

From :   **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
            FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To   :   **Haley Winston**

Date :   **September 20, 2017**

Dear Researcher:

On 09/20/2017 the IRB determined that the following proposed activity is not human research as defined by DHHS regulations at 45 CFR 46 or FDA regulations at 21 CFR 50/56:

Type of Review:	Not Human Research Determination
Project Title:	UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' CITIZENSHIP SHAPED BY SERVICE-LEARNING, COMMUNITY SERVICE, AND PEER-TO-PEER CIVIC DISCUSSIONS
Investigator:	Haley Winston
IRB ID:	SBE-17-13410
Funding Agency:	
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	N/A

University of Central Florida IRB review and approval is not required. This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are to be made and there are questions about whether these activities are research involving human subjects, please contact the IRB office to discuss the proposed changes.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Gillian Amy Mary Morien on 09/20/2017 03:52:33 PM EDT

IRB Coordinator

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