Spring 4-25-2014

Exploring the Socially Responsible Leadership Capacity of College Student Leaders Who Mentor

Seth R. Barnes
University of Nebraska-Lincoln, sbarnes20@gmail.com

Exploring the Socially Responsible Leadership Capacity of

College Student Leaders Who Mentor

by

Seth Riley Barnes

A THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of

The Graduate College at the University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment of Requirements

For the Degree of Master of Arts

Major: Educational Administration

Under the Supervision of Professor James V. Griesen.

Lincoln, Nebraska

April, 2014

Exploring the Socially Responsible Leadership Capacity of

College Student Leaders Who Mentor

Seth Riley Barnes, M.A.

University of Nebraska, 2014

Adviser: James V. Griesen.

The purpose of this study was to examine how participation as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program influences socially responsible leadership capacity. Previous studies have shown mentoring to influence gains in socially responsible leadership capacity of college students; however, these studies only examined college student who were *being mentored*. This study addresses this gap by examining college students who *serve as mentors.*

Using the Social Change Model of Leadership as a guiding theoretical framework, the socially responsible leadership capacity of college students who serve as mentors in a leadership-based mentoring program at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Data was collected using the SRLS-R2, and scores of mentors were compared to: (1) national averages from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, and (2) college student leaders who do not mentor.

Results from independent samples means tests demonstrate that college students who mentor have significantly higher capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership on all eight scales of the Social Change Model (*consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship,* and *change*) when compared to national averages. When compared to

college student leaders who do not mentor, college mentors scored significantly higher on the *consciousness of self* scale. These findings suggest serving as a mentor is a factor that influences growth in socially responsible leadership capacity and personal identity development.

Acknowledgements

       This thesis is dedicated to all those who have served as mentors to me throughout my life. Without the guidance and support from those priceless people who have taken a special interest in recognizing and developing my potential, I would be nothing. Although there are many worthy of recognition, the following people have been especially influential in my life and during the thesis process:

       First, to my wife and best friend, Niki, for teaching me daily how to be selfless, invest in the lives of others, and never settle for anything less than my best. You help keep me grounded when I get impulsive ideas, and pick me up when I question my ability. Most of all, you love me, and even though sometimes I wonder why, I am always thankful.

       Next, to my parents, Randy and Roberta, for your love, support, and patience over the years. Dad, you are the hardest working person I know and I've never heard you complain. When I start to feel overwhelmed with all that I have to do, the example you've set helps me keep things in perspective. Mom, your unconditional support and independent nature have encouraged me to pursue my passions and do whatever it takes to make them happen. Those car rides alone with you to Columbus or Grand Island caused me to think in a way that was beyond my years. All the crafts you taught me have inspired me to be constantly creating, whether it's physically with woodworking projects, intellectually through ideas and learning, or interpersonally through making differences in the lives of others. Thank you both for all you've done for me.

       To Dr. Lindsay Hastings for recognizing talent in me, teaching me how to focus my efforts in investing in human potential, and being the epitome of a difference maker. Scholars could finally agree on a definition of mentoring if they would simply cite your name as a reference.

       To Jack Ehrke for being with me every step of the way, not only through the thesis process, but also throughout my development in college. You constantly inspire me to better myself and grow in my faith.

       To the participants of this study for making this project possible, and specifically to those in NHRI. Serving as a mentor in NHRI was one of the most significant experiences of my life, and I know that those involved have committed themselves to making a difference in the lives of others. Thanks to all those who continue the Ripple.

       Finally, to my advisor, Dr. James Griesen, for all of your guidance through the thesis process. Although I may have forced you to practice "getting angry" to kickstart my motivation, your patience, support, and flexibility were truly a blessing. I feel so fortunate for the opportunity to learn from you in classes and be advised by you. Your legacy at UNL has impacted me in so many ways, and I only hope that I can continue this legacy through my work with others as a professional.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1

Introduction

With ever-increasing advancements in globalization, technology, and societal developments, it is imperative that leaders have the capacity to manage these changes effectively. However, as our society has grown in complexity, public confidence in leaders in various sectors of society has only increased slightly after a five year period of decline (Campbell, Smith, Dugan, & Komives, 2012; Rosenthal, Moore, Montoya, & Maruskin, 2009). If this trend continues, there will be a large gap between the societal issues presented and the collective leadership capacity available to overcome them.

Several researchers have found leadership to be a practice that is both teachable and learnable (Daloz Parks, 2005; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Rosenbach & Taylor, 1998; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2000). This positions higher education institutions as a perfect training ground to equip future leaders with the capacity to tackle the growing number of issues caused by our increasingly complex society. A large number of institutions have answered the call to provide leadership education, and it is estimated that there are over 800 leadership programs present on college campuses today (Mangan, 2002; Roberts, 2003).

Many of these leadership programs have focused their efforts on developing socially responsible leadership capacity through the Social Change Model of Leadership (Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996). In the Social Change Model, leadership is defined as "a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change" (Campbell et al., 2012, p. 601). According to HERI (1996), "a

leader is one who is able to effect positive change for the betterment of others, the community and society" (p. 16).

Although these efforts to foster growth in socially responsible leadership capacity have gained momentum, it has only been in recent years that researchers have studied the factors that influence the development of socially responsible leadership capacity (Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008; Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010). Findings of these studies have provided mixed results for leadership programs. For example, long-term leadership training programs were shown to have no significant influence on a student's capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership (Gleason, 2012; Haber & Komives, 2009). Other factors, such as precollege leadership experiences, engagement in socio-cultural conversations, and involvement in campus organizations, have been shown to relate positively to growth in leadership capacity (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan, 2006b; Gleason, 2012, Haber & Komivez, 2009)

Despite a limited amount of research on the topic, one factor that regularly emerges as a powerful predictor of gains in socially responsible leadership capacity is students' involvement in mentoring relationships (Astin, 1993; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005; Thompson, 2006). For example, Parks (2000) contends that mentoring is an integral part of young adults' understanding of leadership. The work of Campbell et al., (2012) and Gleason (2012) have further contributed to the understanding of how mentoring influences development of socially responsible leadership capacity. However, additional research needs to be conducted to further explore how mentoring might serve as a vehicle to foster leadership development.

Theoretical Framework

The Social Change Model of Leadership will serve as the theoretical framework guiding this research study. The Social Change Model was developed specifically for use in a collegiate setting by a group of leadership scholars and educators facilitated by Alexander and Helen Astin (Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996). In the social change model, leadership is defined as "a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change" (Campbell et al., 2012, p. 601). There are two core principles: (1) leadership is believed to be inherently tied to social responsibility and manifested in creating change for the common good, and (2) the model is intended to increase individuals' levels of self-knowledge and capacity to work collaboratively with others (Komives, Dugan, Owen, Slack, Wagner, & Associates, 2011). In the original formulation of the Social Change Model, students developed leadership capacity through growth in seven critical values, which are distributed over three domains. The seven values, often referred to as the Seven Cs of leadership, are *consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility,* and *citizenship*. The Seven Cs interact dynamically across three domains: Individual Values, Group Values, and Community/Societal Values.

Figure 1 provides a visual representation of the eight values and their distribution across the three domains. Note that the arrows represent the bidirectional, dynamic interaction of the domains. In this version of the model, each domain is inextricably linked to the others through "feedback loops," where development in one domain helps facilitate the leadership process in another. For example, learning the values at the individual level facilitates the leadership process in the group domain. Conversely,

participation in collaborative group efforts provides experience and feedback that

enhances understanding of values in the individual domain. Theoretically, these

bidirectional interactions exist across all domains.

Group Values

Collaboration
Common Purpose
Controversy with Civility

Change

Consciousness of Self
Congruence
Commitment

Citizenship

Individual
Values

Society / Community
Values
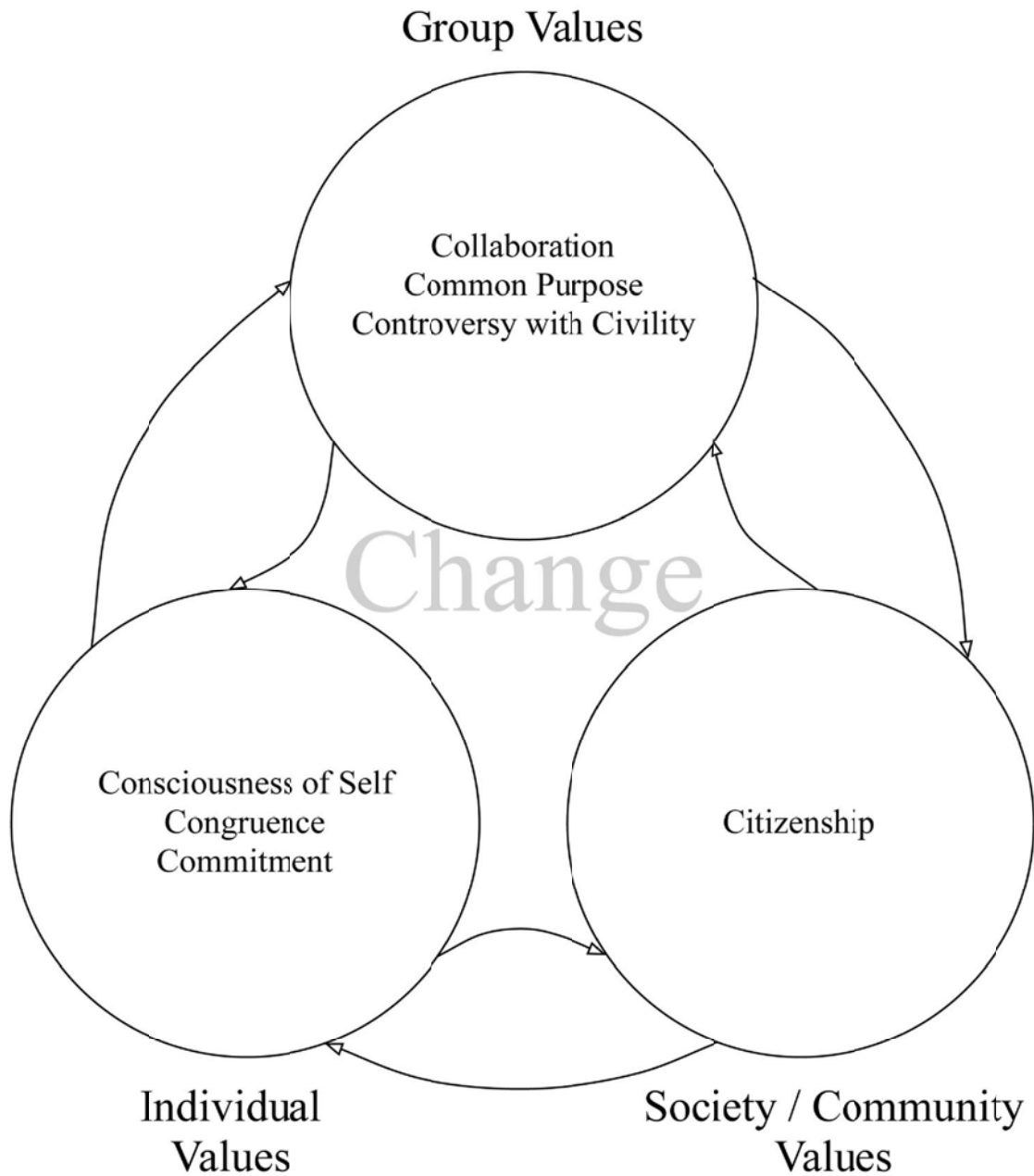
Figure 1: Social Change Model of Leadership (Komives et al., 2011, p. 47)

Recent research has focused on empirically testing the theoretical structure of the Social Change Model and relationships between each domain. Dugan's (2014) findings suggest that development across the model happens more sequentially, beginning with growth in the Individual Values Domain and culminating in the Society/Community Values Domain. Dugan (2014) also found that Social Perspective Taking, or the ability to recognize alternative perspectives and infer the thoughts and feelings of others, is a significant mediating variable for growth between the Individual and Group domains. Figure 2 provides a visual representation of this revised Social Change Model.
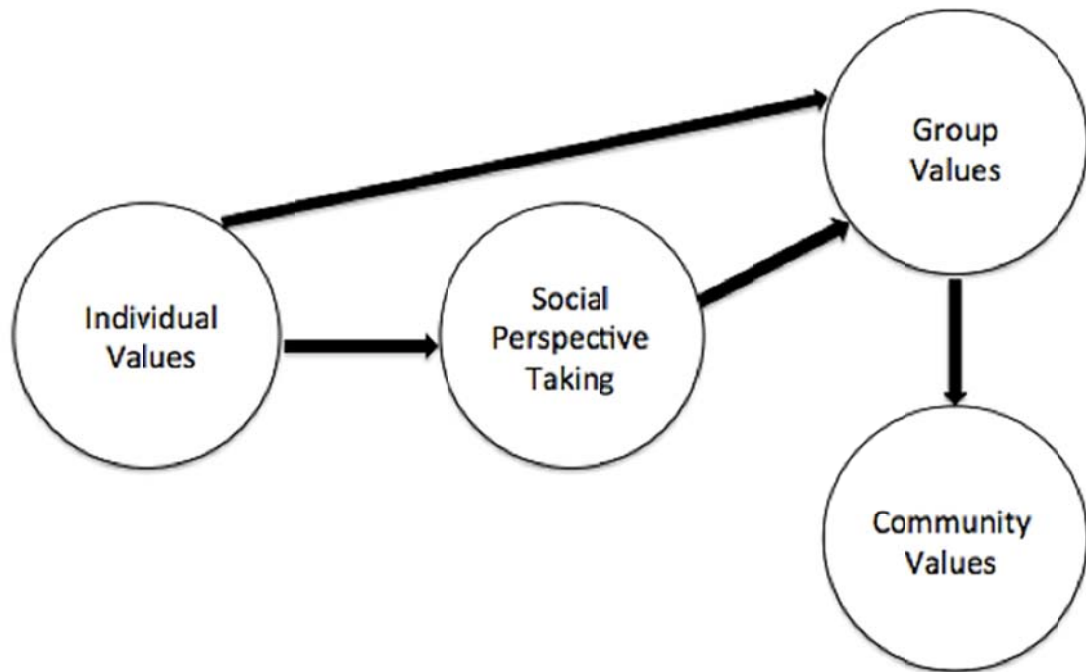
Figure 2: Revised Social Change Model Incorporating Social Perspective Taking as a Mediating Variable (Dugan, Bohle, Woelker, & Cooney, 2014, p. 8).

Research Problem

Over the past two decades, studies have been conducted to determine influences on the socially responsible leadership development (development along the SCM of college students). Findings suggest that mentoring relationships with peers, faculty members, and student affairs professionals play a significant role in fostering growth in the socially responsible leadership capacity of college students (Campbell, Smith, Dugan & Komives, 2012; Dugan, 2005; Gleason, 2012). However, these findings only observe the leadership development of students when they are the protégé, or serve as the less-experienced person in a mentoring relationship. These studies did not explore the effects on the leadership capacity of students who *serve as a mentor* to others.

Hastings (2012) found that college student leaders who serve as mentors display higher levels of generativity than their peers. Since generativity has been found to be the highest predictor of social responsibility (Rossi, 2001), it is likely that college student leaders who serve as mentors will display higher levels of socially responsible leadership capacity when compared to the national aggregate data of their peers. It is also likely that college student leaders who serve as mentors will show greater capacities in certain domains of the Social Change Model of Leadership when compared to college student leaders who do not mentor. However, although the work of Hastings (2012) suggests college student leaders are more likely to engage in socially responsible behavior, these findings have not been supported by empirical evidence. This study seeks to explore this topic further to see if there is evidence to support a higher capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership among college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program.

Significance of Study

    Further development of this research could have important implications on leadership

development programs at colleges and universities. If leadership-based mentoring

programs prove to impact a student's growth in socially responsible leadership capacity,

student affairs and leadership development departments could focus funding and

programming efforts towards these types of programs. Students in primary and

secondary schools could also realize these benefits as well, as the positive outcomes of

being mentored have already been previously established. This would enhance the

precollege knowledge and experience of these students, which has proven to be beneficial

to leadership development in college (Gleason, 2012; Komives et al., 2011).

Programming of this nature would allow for greater return on investment for all students

involved, and could drastically impact the leadership development of generations to

come.

Purpose Statement

    The purpose of this survey study is to examine, using the Social Change Model of

Leadership (HERI, 1996), how participation as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring

program influences socially responsible leadership capacity for college students at the

University of Nebraska-Lincoln. The independent variable, participation as a mentor in a

leadership-based mentoring program, will be defined as active involvement in the

Nebraska Human Resources Institute (NHRI) as a mentor to a younger student leader in

primary, middle, or secondary school. The dependent variable, socially responsible

leadership capacity, will be defined as the ability to engage in a collaborative process that

effects positive social change, and is measured by students' scores on the revised version of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS-R2).

Research Questions

The overarching research question guiding this study was:

1. Is there a significant relationship between participating as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program and students' capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership?

To answer the overarching research question, two specific research questions were developed:

1. Is there a significant difference in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership between college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the national norms from the Multi-Institutional Study for Leadership (MSL) published by the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP) (Dugan & Komives, 2007)?

2. Is there a significant difference in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership between college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and college student leaders who do not mentor?

Specific sub-questions were developed for each of the specific research questions, which correspond with each of the eight values of the Social Change Model of Leadership:

1a. On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1b. On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1c. On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1d. On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1e. On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1f. On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1g. On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1h. On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

2a. On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2b. On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2c. On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2d. On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2e. On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2f. On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2g. On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2h. On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who

   participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from

   college student leaders who do not mentor?

Hypotheses

   To answer the specific research sub-questions, the following hypotheses will be

explored, which are stated in the null form for statistical testing purposes:

H_0(1a): On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist

   between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

   mentoring program and the national norms published by the NCLP.

H_0(1b): On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

   the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

   mentoring program and the national norms published by the NCLP.

H_0(1c): On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

   the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

   mentoring program and the national norms published by the NCLP.

H_0(1d): On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

   the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

   mentoring program and the national norms published by the NCLP.

H_0(1e): On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist

   between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

   mentoring program and the national norms published by the NCLP.

H_0(1f): On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist

   between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the national norms published by the NCLP.

H_0(1g): On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the national norms published by the NCLP.

H_0(1h): On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the national norms published by the NCLP.

H_0(2a): On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H_0(2b): On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H_0(2c): On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H_0(2d): On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H_0(2e): On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H_0(2f): On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist

between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

$H_0(2g)$: On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

$H_0(2h)$: On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

Definitions of Terms

Counselor—A college student selected for the Nebraska Human Resources Institute

(NHRI). This student is paired with a junior counselor and is responsible for taking on the

role of the investor and building an investment relationship with his or her junior

counselor. This student works with his or her junior counselor for approximately three

years.

Generativity—"primarily the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation"

(Erikson, 1950, 1963, p. 267).

Human Relations Capital—The ability to significantly influence the thoughts, feelings,

and behaviors of others in a positive way (Dodge, 1986).

Investment Relationships—When one person invests time in another person on an

individual basis, resulting in lasting, significant differences. These results are only

possible when the investor's human relations capital is equal to or greater than the needs

of the investee (Hall, ca. 1965, p. 56).

Investor—One whose role is to discover the needs and potential of the investee and create stimulus situations in order to build competency in the talents of the investee (Dodge, 1986).

Junior Counselor—A K-12 student selected for the Nebraska Human Resources Institute. This student is paired with one counselor for a three-year period. This student is considered the investee in the relationship. A junior counselor can conceivably have upwards of four counselors between kindergarten and 12th grade.

Mentor— the more experienced person in an mentoring relationship who serves in roles such as role model, tutor, sponsor, motivator, facilitator and coach.

Mentoring—an intentional, reciprocal relationship where a more experienced person provides support and guidance to a less-experienced person (Gleason, 2012; Hastings, 2012; Kram, 1985).

Protégé—the less experienced person in a mentoring relationship.

Ripple Effect—When an investee becomes an investor.

Socially Responsible Leadership Scale: measures the core values of the Social Change Model: *consciousness of self*, *congruence*, *commitment*, *collaboration*, *common purpose*, *controversy with civility*, *citizenship*, and change (Tyree, 1998).

Social Responsibility—The "ethical and moral obligations of the citizens of a society to each other and to the society itself" (Imada, 2004, p. 84).

Stimulus Situation—A contrived situation that encourages the junior counselor to utilize his or her identified talents in a way that makes a positive difference in the lives of others.

Delimitations

Delimitations are considered factors that preclude the author from asserting that the current study's findings are true for all people in all times and in all places (Bryant, 2004). Similar to Hastings (2012), this study focused on participants involved in a highly selective leadership-based mentoring program located at a large, research institution in the Midwest. Because of the varying nature of mentoring programs in terms of structure, purpose, and scope, the findings of this study may not apply to all mentoring programs. Additionally, the leadership-based mentoring program is highly selective, and since this study did not control for participants' initial leadership capacities, the extent to which the findings can be attributed to the effects of the leadership-based mentoring program cannot be determined. Finally, due to the relative homogeneity of participants in the sample, especially in terms of race (98 percent White/Caucasian), age (M=20.18, s.d.=0.95), and academic ability (78 percent of participants with a cumulative GPA between 3.5-4.0), findings cannot be generalized to more diverse student populations.

Limitations

Limitations, in comparison to delimitations, are considered restrictions on the study based on the author's methodological choices (Bryant, 2004). Limitations of this study include those related to a cross-sectional survey research design and time constraints of a thesis project. One of the major limitations inherent in a survey research design is the nature of self-reported data (Mertens, 2010). Participants were asked to provide their own estimations of abstract internal concepts, such as self-esteem, personality, and personal values; as well as situation-dependent behaviors, such as openness to change, comfort with conflict, and commitment to contributing to group

efforts. Each participant's response may be quantifiably different based on perception of his or her degree of fit to each item.

Consistency of data collection procedures among the different groups included in the study was also a limitation. Every effort was taken to ensure similar data collection methods between the experimental group and control group of college student leaders who do not mentor. However, one minor oversight may have affected the quality of responses from the control group. Data from the experimental group were collected at the beginning of their weekly meetings whereas data collected from the control group were collected at the end of a two-hour leadership session held early on a Saturday morning. The only thing separating control group participants from their break was the completion of the survey instrument, which may have decreased participants' motivation to provide thoughtful, calculated responses.

A lack of access to the individual data from the national study can also be considered a limitation. This prevented the use of analysis of variance between groups (ANOVA) to analyze interaction among the different scales used in the study. As a result, an independent samples t-test was used to analyze the data in this study.

Another limitation of this study was its cross-sectional design. To effectively measure growth in leadership capacity, a longitudinal study would have been more appropriate. However, due to time constraints of a research project appropriate for a Master's thesis project, a longitudinal study was unreasonable to undertake. For this reason, a cross-sectional research design was chosen.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

The purpose of this study is to examine how participation as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program influences socially responsible leadership capacity. This chapter will present the existing literature related to college student leadership development and mentoring. First, literature related to college student leadership theories will be provided, including a description of the Social Change Model of Leadership, which serves as the theoretical framework for this study. This is followed by an overview of factors related to growth in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership. Next is a presentation of the literature related to mentoring, including mentoring theory, types of mentoring, stages of mentoring, and research related to mentoring in the context of higher education. Then, literature linking mentoring to growth in college student leadership capacity is provided. The chapter will conclude with an analysis of the gaps in the existing literature and how this study will address these gaps.

College Student Leadership Theories

Developing the next generation of leaders has always been at the heart of higher education institutions' mission (Komives et al., 2011). However, it was not until the last few decades that colleges and universities began intentionally enhancing the leadership capacity of their students through curricular and cocurricular programs. As the call for greater emphasis on student leadership development increased, more focus was placed on establishing a research framework to support these efforts. This framework followed the

trend in leadership theory and research, which moved from an industrial paradigm based on individual achievement, management, and position, to the more contemporary post-industrial paradigm that focuses on transformational influence, reciprocal relationships, complexity, and authenticity (Komives et al., 2011). Now, there are theories specifically designed to model and enhance college student leadership development.

Early Theories. In the early 1990's, leadership scholars began to recognize that earlier theories and research was essentially nothing more than good management. According to Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen (2005), "Leadership theories that rely on traits, behaviors, and situations to explain leadership worked well in an industrial era when the predominant goals of leadership were production and efficiency," but was no longer relevant in a complex, globalized, interconnected society (p. 593). Post-industrial theories of leadership are now more process-oriented, focused on human relations, value-centered, non-coercive, and collaborative (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan, 2006; Gehrke & Schuh, 2008).

Initially, leadership models such as Greenleaf's (1970) Servant Leadership and Kouzes and Posner's (1987) Leadership Challenge, which were intended for the business sector, were incorporated into college leadership courses and programs (Komives et al., 2011). The Relational Leadership Model (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007) was one of the first leadership models developed specifically for college students and is comprised of five key components: purposefulness, inclusiveness, empowerment, ethical practices, and a process orientation (Komives et al., 2011). This model defined leadership as "a relational and ethical process of people together attempting to accomplish positive

change" (Komives et al., 2007, p. 74). Although the Relational Leadership Model serves as the basis of certain leadership identity research, it is still emerging as a theory used by student affairs practitioners.

Social Change Model of Leadership. The main theory used by student affairs professionals in collegiate leadership development programs is the Social Change Model of Leadership, which was developed in a conference of leadership scholars and educators facilitated by Alexander and Helen Astin in 1996 (Komives et al., 2011). In the social change model, leadership is defined as "a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change" (Campbell et al., 2012, p. 601). There are two core principles: (1) leadership is believed to be inherently tied to social responsibility and manifested in creating change for the common good, and (2) the model is intended to increase individuals' levels of self-knowledge and capacity to work collaboratively with others (Komives et al., 2011).

In the social change model, there are seven critical values that assist in developing college students' leadership abilities. These critical values (commonly referred to as the 7 C's) are *consciousness of self*, *congruence*, *commitment*, *collaboration*, *common purpose*, *controversy with civility*, and *citizenship*. The 7 C's can be organized into three domains, which interact dynamically and contribute to the eighth value: *change* for the common good. The core values of the social change model are described in further detail in Table 1.

Factors Affecting Socially Responsible Leadership Capacity

Prior to developing the contemporary college student leadership theories, such as

the social change model and relational model of leadership, much research was

conducted on the factors that influence a students overall success in college (Komives et

al., 2011). Astin (1993), co-facilitator of the conference that spawned the social change

model, was a major contributor to this movement. In Astin's (1993) book, *What Matters*

Table 1

Core Values of the Social Change Model

Individual Values	
Consciousness of Self	Being self-aware of the beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate one to take action.
Congruence	Acting in ways that are consistent with one's values and beliefs. Thinking, feeling, and behaving with consistency, genuineness, authenticity, and honesty toward others.
Commitment	Having significant investment in an idea or person, both in terms of intensity and duration. Having the energy to serve the group and its goals.
Group Values	
Collaboration	Working with others in a common effort, sharing responsibility, authority, and accountability. Multiplying group effectiveness by capitalizing on various perspectives and talents and on the power of diversity to generate creative solutions and actions.
Common Purpose	Having shared aims and values. Involving others in building a group's vision and purpose.
Controversy with Civility	Recognizing two fundamental realities of any creative effort: 1) that differences in viewpoint are inevitable, and 2) that such differences must be aired openly but with civility.
Community Values	
Citizenship	Believing in a process whereby an individual and/or a group become responsibly connected to the community and to society through some activity. Recognizing that members of communities are not independent but interdependent.
Change	The SCM is grounded in the belief in the importance of making a better world and a better society for oneself and others. A key assumption of the SCM is that the ultimate goal of leadership is positive social change.

Note: Adapted from Komives et al., 2011, p. 46.

In College: Four Critical Years Revisited, he summarized his findings from his research on 24,847 college students to include what he found to be the most influential factors that affect a student's development in college. He noted certain environmental factors, such as faculty-peer interactions, peer groups, as well as activities like involvement in student organizations have a significant impact on student development.

Since then, other scholars in student affairs have continued to research the effects of the college environment and other factors that influence the development of students in college. Leadership theorists began focusing on how these factors influence a college student's capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership. Over the years, a multitude of factors have been identified. This section will provide an overview of most relevant findings, which will be categorized into two areas: individual characteristics and developmental influences.

Individual Characteristics. Certain attention has been given to explore the unique characteristics, both social and psychological, that enhance an individual's ability to develop their leadership capacity. The most consistent indicator of leadership capacity identified in the research is a student's precollege leadership knowledge and experience (Komives et al., 2011). Intuitively, the more exposure students get to leadership opportunities prior to college translates into their ability to engage in leadership activities in college.

Studies examining gender differences in leadership capacities show women have an advantage when leadership is defined by contemporary theoretical principles such as collaboration, relational orientations, democratic values, and social responsibility (Dugan,

Komives, & Segar, 2008; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan, 2006b). When studied in more positional, leader-centric terms, there exist no significant differences between genders (Komives et al., 2011).

Differences in racial identification on leadership capacity have also been a focus of research. Quantitative studies report limited to no difference in overall leadership capacity (Komives et al., 2011). However, differences in racial identification do exist among certain constructs of the social change model (Dugan et al., 2008; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Gleason, 2012). Dugan and Komives (2010) found that students who identified as African America/Black and multiracial demonstrated a significant positive relationship on the measure of *change*, while students who identified as Latino/a or Asian Pacific American related to higher scores on the scale of *collaboration*.

In terms of psychological factors that influence the leadership identity development of college students, self-efficacy has been a prominent source of research. Leadership capacity and leadership efficacy are distinct concepts, where leadership efficacy is individuals' judgment of their capacity to perform specific tasks or processes (Bandura, 1997). According to Dugan and Komives (2010), students' levels of self-efficacy explain up to 13 percent of the differences in students' ability to engage in socially responsible leadership (p. 540). This suggests that the way students perceive their leadership ability has a significant impact on their leadership development.

Developmental Influences. Like Astin (1993), recent research has shown a number of environmental factors that influence a college student's leadership development (Komives et al., 2011). However this research suggests that these

environmental influences have more to do with students' experiences instead of traditionally measured structural influences of the institution (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Komives et al., (2005) found that "The essential developmental influences that fostered the development of a leadership identity included adult influences, peer influences, meaningful involvement, and reflective learning" (p. 596).

Adult influences prove to be especially important, as students are always looking up to their elders as role models. Often, adults serve as sources of motivation, encouragement, and affirmation (Komives et al., 2005). Many of the values espoused by college students are instilled by parents, teachers, coaches, or other significant adult members in their lives.

In college, there are many sources that cite the importance of faculty influence (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Based on data provided by college student leaders, faculty influences were very important as they served as models, meaning-makers, mentors, and at times evolved into friends (Komives et al., 2005). Dugan and Komives (2005) found that mentoring relationships with faculty had a significant influence on the leadership development outcomes of the social change model.

Peer interactions were also determined to be influential in developing a college student's leadership identity (Komives et al., 2005, Komives et al., 2011). Similar to adult influences, peers served as positive role models and sources of affirmation, motivation, and support for individuals in early stages of their leadership identity development (Komives, 2005). Interacting with peers across lines of difference was also shown to be valuable in the developmental process. According to Dugan and Komives

(2010), "The strongest of these [factors affecting leadership outcomes] was the degree to which students reported engaging in socio-cultural conversations with their peers" (p. 538). Additionally, peer mentoring had a significant impact on *commitment* and *citizenship* outcomes of the social change model (Dugan & Komives, 2010).

Another important developmental factor that influences the leadership development process is meaningful involvement. Engaging in groups or organizations allowed students to practice their leadership skills, clarify their personal values, learn more about themselves, and interact with diverse peers (Komives et al., 2005). These activities allowed students to develop interpersonal skills, such as listening and team building. They also provided opportunities to engage in meaningful discussions with peers to "uncover their passions, integrity, and commitment to continual self-assessment and learning" (p. 598). Membership in clubs or organizations had significant impacts on specific outcomes of the social change model, including *collaboration* and *common purpose* (Dugan & Komives, 2010).

Participation in service-learning activities has been an area of special interest in student development, as there is a greater push to develop the civic identity of college students. These service related activities contribute to achieving a number of outcomes for student development, including cognitive development, skill development, and identity development (Chesbrough, 2011). According to Dugan and Komives (2010), "involvement in community service played a positive, influential role in the development of each of the leadership outcomes except *consciousness of self* and *change* (pp. 538-539).

The final main developmental influence noted by college student leadership development scholars is reflective learning. By providing structured opportunities for reflection either through journaling or meaningful conversations, students given a chance to uncover their passions and make a commitment to continual self-discovery and learning (Komives et al., 2005).

Mentoring

Mentoring Theory. Like leadership development theories, the concept of mentoring has undergone a series of paradigm shifts in the last half century (Campbell et al., 2012). Prior to the 1970's, mentoring was largely considered a means of developing an apprenticeship, whereby the understudy would be indoctrinated into a certain set of values necessary for a task or trade. This way of viewing mentoring transitioned into a way to develop management skills in predecessors. Both of these paradigms involve a sense of hierarchy and distinct power structure, where wisdom is imparted to naïve protégés by a sage-like advisor (Campbell et al., 2012).

Since the late 1980's, the concept of mentoring has shifted to a learning-centered, developmental approach (Gleason, 2012; Kram, 1985). Defining mentoring using the current paradigm has been an elusive task for researchers, as the term can have different meanings in different contexts (Eby, Rhodes, & Allen, 2007). In this study, mentoring will be defined as a developmentally-oriented, reciprocal relationship between a less experienced person more experienced person (Jacobi, 1991; Kram, 1983). The more experienced person in the mentoring relationship is referred to as the mentor, and the less experienced person is called the protégé.

The mentor usually serves as a role model, tutor, sponsor, motivator, facilitator and coach (Jacobi, 1991; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). Key elements of mentoring include recognition, support, challenge, inspiration, and accountability (Daloz Parks, 2008). Additionally, mentoring relationships are considered to be developmental in nature and focused on goal attainment and personal growth (Campbell et al., 2012).

The reciprocal nature of mentoring is a fundamental element of these relationships, and distinguishes them from other types of similar associations, such as advising or training (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006). This reciprocity suggests that each member of the relationship benefits from the partnership. The benefits to the protégé include a developed sense of professionalism, greater awareness of personal strengths, and increased competence in his or her abilities and performance (Blinn-Pike, 2007; Reich, 1986). For the mentor, this individual gains a sense of personal satisfaction, sharpened challenges, and purpose (Allen et al., 2006; Erikson, 1950; Levinson et al., 1978).

Inherent in the practice of mentoring is the concept of generativity, which is defined as the concern and commitment to the well-being of future generations (Hastings, 2012; Mavrinac, 2005). Gaining a sense of generativity is often a motivating factor for mentors, which drives them to seek out and develop protégés to instill a set of values and ensure future success (Erikson, 1950; Levinson et al, 1978). Leffel (2008) developed the concept of relational generativity, which is both a motive and the capacity to develop the strengths of another individual. In relational generativity, a distinction is made between

caring for and *taking care of* another individual, where the former does not guarantee that personal development takes place. Only in relationships where a person is *taking care of* another individual is development able to occur.

  Types of Mentoring. This current paradigm of mentoring is usually categorized into two types: psychosocial and career (Kram, 1985). Mentoring can also be differentiated by whether the relationship forms naturally in an informal manner or occurs in a more structured, formal mentoring program. Further description of each type of mentoring and its related literature will be presented in this section.

  In psychosocial mentoring, the mentor serves as a counselor, friend, and advocate who provides guidance, acceptance, and serves as a role model for the protégé (Kram, 1985). The focus of this type of mentoring is to help the protégé develop personally. When mentoring is directed towards psychosocial development, individuals experience increases in their sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in a professional role (Kram, 1985).

  Under the umbrella of psychosocial mentoring exists two related, but distinct approaches: (1) mentoring for personal development (Campbell et al., 2012), and (2) investment relationships (Hall, 1965; Hastings, 2012). In recent studies, mentoring for personal development has been used as the construct to operationalize psychosocial mentoring. According to Cambell et al. (2012), mentoring for personal development "mirrors closely the psychosocial mentoring orientation" (p. 616). This mentoring approach focuses on helping protégés identify areas for self-improvement, increase self-

awareness, and live up to their perceived potential (Campbell et al., 2012; Gleason, 2012).

Investment relationships are another form of psychosocial mentoring, and can be characterized by (1) the intentional identification of talents, (2) development of those talents into strengths through *stimulus situations* - specific activities provided by the mentor to isolate one or more of the protégé's talents - and (3) directing the protégé to invest talents in the process of developing others (Hall, 1965; Hastings, 2012). According to Hastings (2012), "investment relationships are a purposeful effort to achieve higher self-realization of the greatest resource—the human resource" (p. 47). The hallmarks of investment relationships, which differentiate them from other forms of mentoring, are the intentional focus on developing individual talents and emphasis on reinvestment in others to instill a sense of generativity. The focus on developing future generations becomes integrated into the lives of both mentors and protégés (Hastings, 2012).

Career mentoring is more focused on outcomes related to job performance, cultivating political capital, establishing collegial relationships, and nurturing organizational commitment. This is achieved through the mentor providing vocational coaching, sponsoring, visibility, and networking to the protégé (Kram, 1985). This type of mentoring is typically found in a working environment, but can also be used in higher education as faculty or student affairs professionals develop students' skills and abilities associated with their future careers to increase marketability in the job search and success when hired.

Mentoring for leadership empowerment has been used in recent studies to operationalize career mentoring (Gleason, 2012). In this type of mentoring, the mentor directs the protégé toward engaging specifically in leadership activities, encouraging others to engage in leadership, and to practice ethical leadership (Campbell et al., 2012; Gleason, 2012). However, reasons for operationalizing career mentoring as mentoring for leadership empowerment were not clearly identified by the authors of the studies, as well as a lack of validity to show that the items pertaining to the construct achieved their purpose.

Another way to distinguish types of mentoring is whether the relationships occur in a formal program or are derived naturally in a more informal manner. Mentoring is often thought of in the latter form, as college students or new professionals seek guidance from more experienced individuals; or as experienced persons, driven by a sense of generativity, adopt a protégé to guide him or her through an unfamiliar experience. Formal mentoring can be defined as a mentoring relationship that is assigned by an organization for a specific purpose over a predetermined period of time (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007).

Researchers have explored the outcome differences between formal and informal mentoring programs. Ragins and Cotton (1999) found that protégés in informal mentoring relationships perceived their mentors as more effective in their role and attained greater benefit when compared to protégés in formal mentoring programs. The findings of Baugh and Fagenson-Eland (2007) echo these results. They found that "formal relationships, while beneficial, are not truly on par with informal relationships

with respect to individual outcomes, whereas the organizational-level outcomes have rarely been assessed" (p. 267). Egan and Song (2008) found that formal mentoring programs brought several positive outcomes to the individual and organization.

Stages of Mentoring. Mentoring relationships are dynamic and develop over time. A number of researchers have attempted to model the way in which mentoring relationships progress through a series of stages. The three models most relevant to this study were developed by Kram (1983), Zachary (2000), and Hastings (2012) and are outlined in Table 2. Kram's (1983) study focused on 18 mentoring relationships in a corporate setting with the purpose of discerning the important psychological and organizational factors that influence the type and timing of mentoring provided. Through this study, there emerged four phases of mentoring relationships: initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition.

In Zachary's (2000) model, the phases of a mentoring relationship are more focused on the behaviors necessary to move through each stage than lengths of time or psychological milestones. The model is also intended for mentoring relationships that occur over a shorter time-span, which allows for more focus on behaviors exhibited in the early stages of relationship development. The four stages of Zachary's (2000) model are: preparing, negotiating, enabling, and closing.

Table 2

Stages of Mentoring

| Kram, 1985 | | Zachary, 2000 | | Hastings, 2012 | |
Phase	Description	Phase	Description	Phase	Description
Initiation	6-12 months where relationship develops; mentee has mentor on pedestal; mentors sees mentee as one with high potential	Preparing	"Till the soil"; Discover each other; clarity of role responsibilities	Building Friendship	Focus on establishing trust, building friendship; Occurs through asking questions and finding commonalities
Cultivation	2-5 years; expectations are tested; career and psychosocial functions develop	Negotiating	"Plant the seeds"; Agree to learning goals, ground rules; when and how to meet	Transition to Mentorship	Focus on strengths recognition and development; Reciprocity; Reinvestment
Separation	Significant changes in functions provided by relationship to one or both members; can be structural or psychological	Enabling	Longest phase; Implementation of relationship	Friendship X Mentorship	Friendship and mentorship occur simultaneously; Total openness, honesty, high levels of trust; Emergence of being a true difference maker
Redefinition	Several years later; usually evolves into informal friendship	Closing	Celebrate achievements and move on; Often uncomfortable separation for one or both	Generativity Integration	Mentors are more intentional about investing in all relationships; Become more others-centered; Desire to establish a legacy

Note: Descriptions of Kram's (1985) and Zachary's (2000) model have been modified from Collins-Shapiro, 2006, p. 7

Hastings' (2012) model focused specifically on the relationship development of investment relationships of college students participating in a formal, leadership-based mentoring program. Using a phenomenological research design, Hastings (2012) used in-depth semi-structured interviews to explore the investment relationship development process of nine mentors who had served as mentors for at least three years in the program. Hastings' (2012) model includes four stages: building friendship, transition to mentorship, friendship X mentorship, and generativity integration.

Mentoring in Higher Education. Mentoring has been associated with a number of outcomes within the higher education setting. Most commonly researched is the relationship between faculty mentors and students (Erkut & Mokros, 1984; Light, 2001; Wallace, Abel, & Ropers-Huilman, 2007). Light (2001) found that for many faculty members, mentoring is an important element of academic advising, and that one-on-one faculty-to-student mentoring has a significant and positive influence on students.

Research has also shown relationships between mentoring and specific educational outcomes. Campbell and Campbell (1997) found mentoring to significantly influence academic success in terms of GPA. Research also shows that mentoring relationships help promote vocational discernment among college students (Daloz Parks, 2000).

Along with being associated with success in college, mentoring has also been shown to support students through the challenges they may face while pursuing higher education. Outcomes related to the support provided by mentoring relationships include students' decisions to persist in college (Campbell & Campbell, 1997) and overall

retention efforts (Brawer, 1996). Haring (1999) found that mentoring was especially

beneficial towards the retention of historically underrepresented students.

Mentoring and College Student Leadership Capacity

Among other outcomes of mentoring explored by researchers, those related to

leadership development have been of particular interest in recent years. Numerous

research studies have shown that participation in mentoring is a powerful predictor of

leadership gains (Astin, 1993; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000;

Komives, Owen, et al., 2005; Thompson, 2006). Scandura and Williams (2004) found

mentoring to promote transformational leadership development. Komives et al. (2006)

found a positive impact of mentoring on leadership identity development. Additionally,

and especially relevant to this study, Campbell et al. (2012), Dugan et al. (2008), and

Jabaji, Slife, Komives, and Dugan (2008) found mentoring to influence socially

responsible leadership capacity.

However, according to Campbell et al. (2012), "Despite the strong assertions of

many scholars regarding the potential of mentoring as a medium for developing

leadership capacity, less is known about exactly how mentoring relationships lead to

growth in leadership capacity" (p. 595). In their study on mentors and college student

outcomes, Campbell et al. (2012) found that psychosocial mentoring was effective in

influencing socially responsible leadership capacity.

Determining type of mentor that is most influential in promoting growth in

college students' leadership capacity has produced conflicting results. Campbell et al.

(2012) found that when compared to faculty and peer mentors, student affairs

professionals were more effective at developing socially responsible leadership capacity. Gleason (2012) noted that students typically identify faculty members and student affairs staff as most influential mentors, and that these mentors are more likely to be female. However, Gleason (2012) found that the demographic background and type of mentor (faculty member or student affairs professional) are not significant in achieving growth in socially responsible leadership capacity. Instead, it was the type of conversations between mentors and protégés that made a significant difference. Both Gleason (2012) and Campbell et al. (2012) found that mentoring for personal development is more effective than mentoring for leadership empowerment at developing socially responsible leadership capacity.

Although the work of Campbell et al. (2012) and Gleason (2012) make important contributions to understanding the influence of *being mentored* on the growth of leadership capacity of college students, they do not address the similar effects on college students who *serve as mentors*.

Hastings (2012) sought to address this deficiency by studying the generativity of college student leaders who mentor as compared to college student leaders who do not mentor and the general student population. Her findings suggest that students who serve as mentors in a leadership-based mentoring organization are more generative than the general student body in all areas of generative concern, generative action, and generative commitment. When compared to other college student leaders who do not mentor, college student leaders who mentor score higher in the construct of generative concern as it relates to passing on knowledge to the next generation and in the area of generative

commitment. Using the findings of Rossi (2001), who found that higher levels of generativity are predictive of engaging in socially responsible behavior, Hastings (2012) was able to conclude that college student leaders who mentor are more likely to engage in socially responsible behavior.

However, although Hastings' (2012) findings suggest that college student leaders who mentor are more likely to engage in socially responsible behavior, this connection has not been formally addressed by reasearch. Hastings (2012) also does not use a model that adheres to contemporary theories of college student leadership development.

This study seeks to address these limitations by exploring the socially responsible leadership capacity of college student leaders who mentor using the Social Change Model of Leadership as a contemporary guiding framework. To do so, the following research question will be addressed: Is there a significant relationship between participating as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program and students' socially responsible leadership capacity as measured by scores on the SRLS-R2?

Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the relevant literature related to mentoring and developing the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership. Additionally, the chapter has identified the gaps in the literature related to studying how *serving as a mentor* influences growth in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership that will addressed in this study. Chapter 3 will provide an overview of the methods used in this research study.

Chapter 3

Methods

The purpose of this study is to examine the hypothesis that the process of mentoring creates unique outcomes for college students in terms of growth in socially responsible leadership capacity. As noted in Chapter 2, there is a substantial amount of research findings documenting that *being mentored* increases college student leadership capacity (Campbell, Smith, Dugan, & Komives, 2012; Gleason, 2012), but little research has been conducted to explore the influence of *being a mentor* on a student's socially responsible leadership capacity. This research study seeks to address this issue.

The methodological approach used in this research study will be described in this chapter. First, an overview of the methodological design, research questions, and research paradigm will be presented. Next, there will be a description of the participants, including a detailed account of the treatment group and associated intervention, the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor, and the control group of students used in a national study. The chapter will conclude with an overview of the sampling procedure and processes used to analyze the data.

Methodological Approach

The current study used a post-positivist, quantitative research design. A survey methodology was used to explore the research questions through the collection of cross-sectional data. This was the preferred method of data collection because it aligns with previous research on mentoring and socially responsible leadership capacity of college

students (Campbell et al., 2012; Gleason, 2012). Further description and rationale of the research methods employed in this study will be presented.

Research Questions

The overarching research question guiding this study was:

1. Is there a significant relationship between participating as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program and students' capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership?

To answer the overarching research question, two specific research questions were developed:

1. Is there a significant difference in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership between college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the national norms from the Multi-Institutional Study for Leadership (MSL) published by the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP; Dugan & Komives, 2007)?

2. Is there a significant difference in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership between college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and college student leaders who do not mentor?

Specific sub-questions were developed for each of the specific research questions, which correspond with each of the eight values of the Social Change Model of Leadership:

1a. On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1b. On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1c. On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1d. On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1e. On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1f. On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1g. On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

1h. On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norms published by the NCLP?

2a. On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2b. On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2c. On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2d. On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2e. On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2f. On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2g. On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2h. On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

Participants

Participants for this study were primarily students at the University of Nebraska – Lincoln (UNL) during the 2013-2014 academic year. The study also utilized aggregate data from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) published by the National Clearinghouse of Leadership Programs (Dugan & Komives, 2007) as a comparison group. There were three groups used in this study: (1) intervention group of Nebraska Human Resources Institute (NHRI) mentors, (2) national comparison group of results published from the MSL, and (3) an institutional control group of college student leaders who do not mentor. Descriptions for the intervention group and treatment will be provided first, followed by descriptions of sample used in the MSL and the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor.

Intervention Group. Participants in the treatment group are all members of NHRI, a leadership-based mentoring organization at UNL. College students who exhibit exceptional leadership potential and high *human relations capital* – a significant capacity to positively influence the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of others – are selected as *counselors* (mentors) (Dodge, 1986). Once selected for membership, NHRI counselors

are paired in one-to-one mentoring relationships with identified leaders at the primary and secondary level (grades 1-12) from the local school district. The younger students are referred to as *junior counselors*, which denotes the difference in age but emphasizes their similar ability to reciprocate investment in the mentoring relationship. The current study focused on the college student leaders involved in NHRI.

NHRI Counselors undergo a unique selection process to gain membership in the organization. Potential members are typically enrolled in their first year at UNL and may be nominated by other students, UNL faculty, or UNL staff for exemplary leadership potential and/or high human relations capital. Students who are nominated for NHRI go through structured qualitative interviews to assess their leadership and relationship-building qualities in terms of 13 assessment areas. These assessment areas are: mission, empathy, rapport drive, listening, individual perception, investment, position, activation, gestalt, focus, work ethic, acceptance, and diversity appreciation. The selection interview consists of 65 questions, with 5 questions loaded onto the 13 assessment areas. Approximately 55-65 students are selected for NHRI each year. Since selected college students are in the program for three years, NHRI has approximately 185 college students in the program at any given time. At the time this study was conducted, there were 186 mentoring pairs in NHRI. Not all NHRI were present at the meetings where survey instruments were distributed, and less than 5 students chose not to participate. Therefore, the intervention group consisted of 119 participants who completed the instrument and met participation requirements for the study.

Treatment. NHRI was established at UNL in 1949 by Dr. William E. Hall and

Dr. Donald O. Clifton, who were both faculty members in the Educational Psychology

department, and went on to be recognized leaders in the positive psychology and

strengths-based psychology movements. Dr. Clifton's experience with studying effective

investment relationships – or intentional mentoring relationships focused on talent

development and reinvestment in others – provided the foundation to guide his creation

of the Clifton StrengthsFinder test.

For 65 years, NHRI has been studying the development of effective investment

relationships, and is guided by the following mission and basic assumptions as posted on

their website:

Mission:

- To **Discover** individuals with exceptional capacity to positively influence the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of others
- To **Explore** the dimensions of human leadership and ways in which this potential can be maximized
- To **Develop** leadership potential through one-to-one investment relationships
- To **Direct** developed leadership toward reinvestment in others
- To **Document** positive leadership development
- And to **Communicate** this information

Basic Assumptions:

- The greatest resource is the human resource
- Establishing positive human relationships is the best way to develop this resource
- Positive human relationships are maximized when one individual with considerable human relations capital invests in another
- Investment in human relationships nourishes positive leadership development (Source: nhri.unl.edu/mission, n.d.)

There are three core components of a NHRI counselor's involvement in the

program: (1) meeting weekly with junior counselor to develop an investment relationship,

(2) meeting weekly with other counselors who mentor students of similar age, school, or other characteristics, and (3) learning about investment relationship development techniques through the NHRI Counselor Training Course. Although the mentoring relationship with the junior counselor is the focal point of the program, the other components are also influential in developing the leadership abilities of NHRI counselors.

As previously mentioned, each counselor in NHRI is paired in a one-to-one investment relationship with an outstanding student leader in grades 1-12 from a local school. Counselors are charged with the objective of identifying the talents of their junior counselors and creating stimulus situations to help develop those talents into strengths. Stimulus situations are intentional activities that provide junior counselors with the opportunity to express a specific talent and further understand how it can be productively applied in a leadership situation. For example, if a counselor recognizes his or her junior counselor has a talent for including others, the counselor can challenge the junior counselor to sit next to a student who typically eats alone at lunch. The ultimate goal of these investment relationships is to direct the leadership potential of the junior counselor towards making a difference in the lives of others. This is referred to as the Ripple Effect, where the counselor invests in the junior counselor with the intent that the junior counselor will then invest in someone else. This process is depicted in Figure 3.

In addition to the weekly meetings with their junior counselors, NHRI counselors are also grouped into projects based on the age, school, or other characteristics of their junior counselors. The purpose of these projects is to study the development and
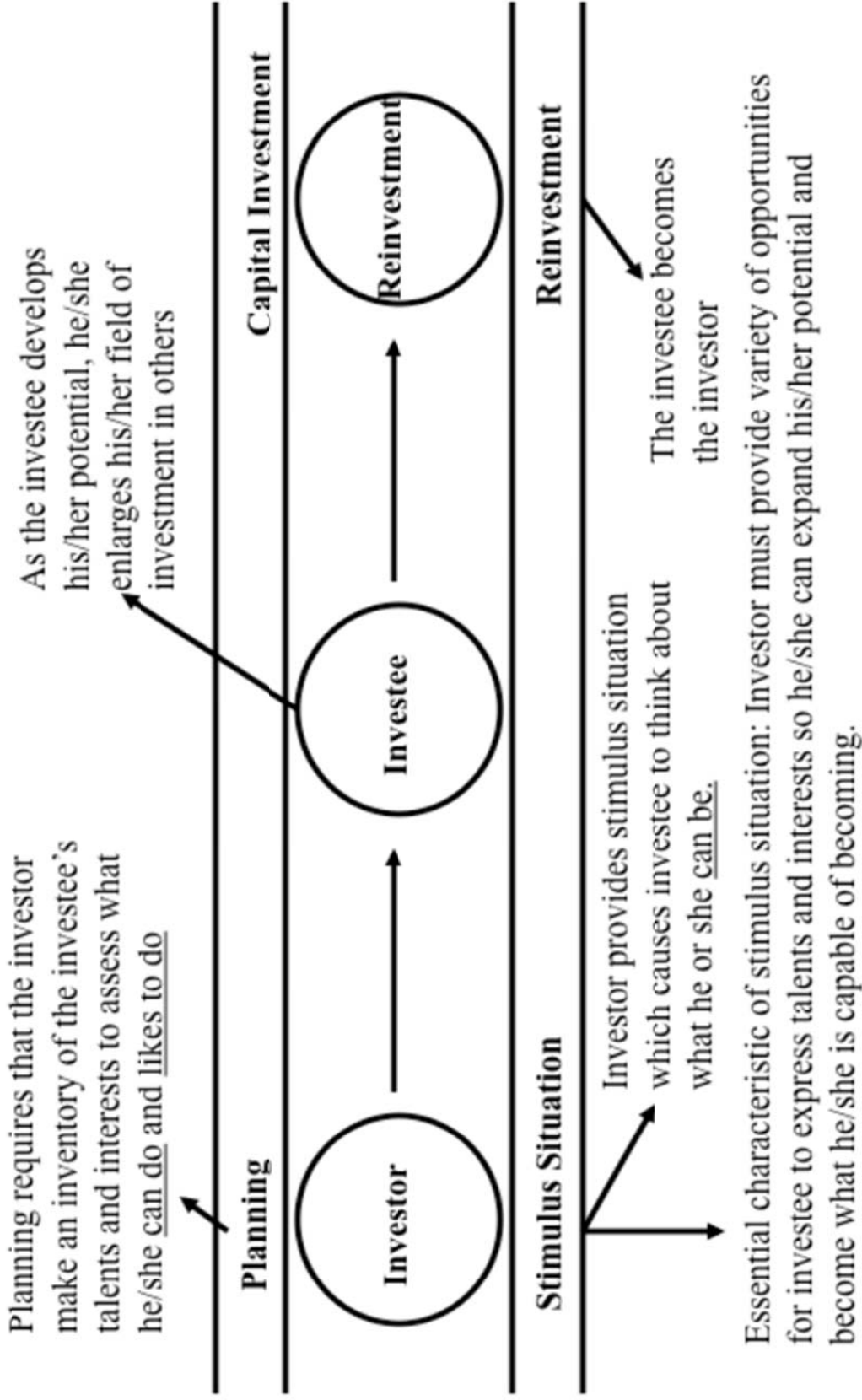
Figure 3. Investment relationships and the ripple effect (Dodge, 1986).

outcomes of each investment relationship, as well as sharing knowledge, experiences, and best practices among counselors working with similar junior counselors. Investment relationships are also created between counselors within the project, as more experienced counselors mentor newer members through the process of establishing effective investment relationships with their junior counselors. Reflection and shared dialogue are important components of project meetings to encourage intentionality of identifying junior counselors' strengths and planning stimulus situations.

The final major component that contributes to the experience of being a NHRI counselor is the NHRI Counselor Training Course. Although this is not a requirement of the program, nearly all students decide to take the course. In the course, instructed by the Director of NHRI, students are taught the essential techniques necessary to build effective investment relationships. Counselors who take the course engage in scholarly discussions of positive psychology principles such as empathy, active listening, investment relationships, values, and self-concept. The course also teaches methods of harnessing personal strengths, identifying strengths in others, and creating synergistic teams based on the strengths present among individuals in a group. Each week, counselors react to concepts and reflect on how they could be applied in relationships with others. Counselors keep an additional reflection journal of their weekly meetings with their junior counselor, and compile these reflections into a final project that analyzes the application of course concepts into the relationships.

Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) was a national study of leadership programs conducted in 2006 and

coordinated by the National Clearinghouse of Leadership Programs (NCLP) (Dugan & Komives, 2007). The study used the revised version of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS-R2), among other scales, to assess the leadership capacity of college students across the nation. Of the 150 institutions that agreed to participate, 55 campuses were purposefully chosen to be included in the sample based on specified characteristics that would assure a representative sample of the diversity of institutions within the United State higher education system. Of about 165,000 students who were included in the sample, over 63,000 completed the study for a response rate of 37 percent. After a review of the completed surveys, the final sample was comprised of 50,378 students. Averages from this national study were published by Dugan and Komives (2007), and used as a comparison sample in this research study.

College Student Leaders Who Do Not Mentor. A control group of college student leaders who do not mentor was composed of students in the Greek system at UNL who served as chapter presidents for their respective fraternity or sorority. Selection for this position varies from chapter to chapter, but typically involves a nomination process where a slate of candidates is identified and the person earning a majority of the votes from other active chapter members is elected president. At UNL, there are a total of 51 Greek organizations: 25 Interfraternity Council organizations, 15 Pan-Hellenic Council organizations, 4 Multicultural Greek Council organizations, and 7 National Pan-Hellenic Council organizations. Not all presidents were present for the leadership summit where surveys were distributed. Additionally, of those who were present, less than 8 chose not to participate, 3 were actively involved in NHRI, and others

were involved in similar mentoring organizations. For the current study, the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor included 29 participants who completed the survey instrument and met the criteria for the study.

Greek presidents were chosen as a control group for this study because they were identified as leaders by their peers and would be similar in age, experiences, and demographic variables to the intervention group. Additionally, this group was large enough to provide an appropriate sample size for comparison and could be conveniently accessed by the researcher.

Sampling Procedure

This study used a cross-sectional research design to collect data from each sample. Although a longitudinal research design would have been more appropriate to truly assess growth in leadership capacity, a cross-sectional research design was chosen due to the time constraints of the thesis process.

As previously mentioned, data were collected or obtained from three different samples: (1) intervention group, (2) college student leaders who do not mentor, and (3) students who participated in a national study. Participants for the intervention group were members of NHRI (n=119). Participants for the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor consisted of presidents of UNL Greek organizations (n=29). Data from the intervention group and the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor were collected directly by the researcher. Data from students participating in the national study were previously collected and published as aggregate data by Dugan and Komives (2007).

To collect data from the intervention group, NHRI students were approached during their weekly project meetings and presented with the opportunity to participate in the current study. For NHRI students who chose to participate, data were collected via paper-and-pencil questionnaire. After answering any questions and distributing questionnaires to participants, the researcher left the room to reduce the possibility of coercion. Completed surveys were collected in a manila envelope.

Data collection for the intervention group occurred over a two-week period to allow the researcher time to visit each project meeting. After data collection for the intervention group concluded, the researcher entered completed surveys individually into Qualtrics, an online survey management tool. Quality checks were conducted for each survey to ensure that the responses were entered correctly.

To maintain consistency between data collected from the intervention group and control group of college student leaders who do not mentor, data collection procedures were kept as similar as possible for both collection periods. Greek presidents were approached during a session specific to their position at a Greek Leadership Summit held by UNL. Allowing for the potential that some of the Greek presidents may serve as members of NHRI or other mentoring organization, students were instructed to not complete the survey if they participated in a formal mentoring program. The only other difference in the data collection procedure was that the offer to participate in the study was made at the end of a session before a ten-minute break, whereas NHRI students were approached at the beginning of their project meetings. The lure of a break after attending a long session on a Saturday morning may have influenced Greek presidents' motivations

to carefully consider each item of the questionnaire to the same degree as NHRI

members. Input of data, including quality checks, followed the same procedure as with

the intervention group.

Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

The survey instrument used in this study was the revised version of the Socially

Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS-R2; Dugan, 2006c) to measure the socially

responsible leadership capacity of participants. The SRLS was originally formulated to

create a set of statistically reliable and valid scales that would measure the critical values

of the Social Change Model (SCM) (HERI, 1996).

Tyree (1998) developed the initial version of the SRLS in her dissertation work,

which included 104 question-items distributed over the eight critical values of the SCM.

The process of conceiving this initial version of the instrument included the use of focus

groups and pilot studies to identify valid measures of each construct. After thorough

review of the literature, Tyree (1998) created 291 potential items that were presented in

random order to a focus group of students and leadership experts, including founding

members of the SCM. Raters in the focus group sorted each item into the construct they

determined to be the best fit. Discussions were also held about the wording of each item.

Analysis produced 202 items that were used in a pilot study of 101 undergraduate

students in 6 settings. Response options on these self-report scales took the form of a

five-point Likert scale with response items that ranged from 1=strongly disagree to

5=strongly agree. Data from the pilot study were used to determine test-retest reliability,

internal-consistency reliability, and construct validity (see Table 3 for reliability). A

factor analysis was also used to determine accuracy of measurement, which led to the

deletion of 98 items. The remaining 104 items comprised the original version of the

SRLS.

Table 3

Reliability Levels for Versions of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

Reliability Levels for All Scales	SRLS	SRLS-R2
Consciousness of Self	0.82	0.78
Congruence	0.82	0.79
Commitment	0.83	0.83
Collaboration	0.77	0.80
Common Purpose	0.83	0.81
Controversy with Civility	0.69	0.72
Citizenship	0.92	0.90
Change	0.78	0.82

Note: SRLS reliability scores from Tyree (1998), SRLS-R2 from Dugan (2006).

In an effort to increase the response rate of participants in a national study, Dugan

(2006c) used a factor analysis of the data from the pilot test of the MSL to reduce the

number on the SRLS of items to 68 while maintaining reliability. This reduction resulted

in the SRLS-Revised Version 2 (see Table 3 for reliability). Like the original SRLS, the

SRLS-R2 also employs a Likert response scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to

5=strongly agree. A number of negative items were included, which were reverse scored.

It should be noted that the scale of *change* used in the SRLS-R2 measures transition or

comfort with change, not social change conceptualized in the SCM (Dugan et al., 2014;

Dugan & Komives, 2007). Sample items and number of items per construct in the SCM

can be found in Table 4.

Table 4

Socially Responsible Leadership Scale – Revised Version 2 Sample Items

Value	Number of Items	Sample Items
Consciousness of Self	9	• Self-reflection is difficult for me. (reverse scored) • I could describe my personality.
Congruence	7	• My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs. • My actions are consistent with my values.
Commitment	6	• I hold myself accountable for the responsibilities to which I agree. • I am willing to devote time and energy to the things that are important to me.
Collaboration	8	• I actively listen to what others have to say. • Collaboration produces better results.
Common Purpose	9	• I work well when I know the collective values of a group. • I contribute to the goals of a group.
Controversy with Civility	11	• When there is conflict between two people, one will win and the other will lose. (reverse scored) • Greater harmony can come out of disagreement.
Citizenship	8	• I believe I have responsibilities to my community. • I have the power to make a difference in my community.
Change	10	• I am open to new ideas. • Change makes me uncomfortable. (reverse scored)

Note: Adapted from Campbell et al. (2012)

Data Analysis

After the instruments were collected from participants in the intervention group and control group of college student leaders who do not mentor, survey responses were entered into Qualtrics, an online survey management tool to make data more convenient to work with. Data screening occurred prior to data entry to ensure that each survey included in the data set was (1) at least 90 percent complete and (2) completed by a student who was at least 19 or older to comply with Institutional Review Board

requirements. Data from the intervention group and the control group of college student leaders were entered into separate survey collection banks to ensure data could be easily distinguished.

At the completion of data entry into Qualtrics, data were download into SPSS v. 22 to complete data analysis procedures. An analysis of internal consistency was conducted to obtain Cronbach's alpha levels and ensure the scores were internally consistent. A descriptive analysis of the participants was also performed. Finally, means comparison tests were conducted between the three independent samples of this research study. This process occurred in two phases: (1) comparing the mean scores on individual scales of the SRLS-R2 of participants in the intervention group to those published in the MSL, and (2) comparing the mean scores on individual scales of the SRLS-R2 of participants in the intervention group to those of the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor. The decision to use independent sampling t-tests was made because samples were from three independent groups that were compared based on a single independent variable (participation as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program). This is consistent with the suggestions of Mertens (2010). Results were analyzed to determine statistical significance at both the 0.05 and 0.01 alpha levels.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the methods used in this research study. This included a thorough description of the participants, including the intervention group and related treatment, a detailed account of the data collection process, and

overview of how data was analyzed. Results of the data collection and analysis process

will be presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

Results

The purpose of this study is to examine how participation as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program influences socially responsible leadership capacity. Chapter 4 is organized to explicitly report the results of the study. As there are comparisons to two control groups in this study – (1) college student leaders who do not mentor and (2) participants from a national study – the results will be presented in individual sections related to each. First, the research questions and associated null hypotheses will be presented, followed by a presentation of the variables used in the study and demographic characteristics of participants.

Research Questions

The overarching research question guiding this study was:

1. Is there a significant relationship between participating as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program and students' capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership?

To answer the overarching research question, two specific research questions were developed:

1. Is there a significant difference in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership between college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the national norms from the Multi-Institutional Study for Leadership (MSL) published by the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP; Dugan & Komives, 2007)?

2. Is there a significant difference in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership between college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and college student leaders who do not mentor?

Specific sub-questions were developed for each of the specific research questions, which correspond with each of the eight values of the Social Change Model of Leadership:

1a. On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norm published by the NCLP?

1b. On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norm published by the NCLP?

1c. On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norm published by the NCLP?

1d. On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norm published by the NCLP?

1e. On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norm published by the NCLP?

1f. On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norm published by the NCLP?

1g. On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norm published by the NCLP?

1h. On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from the national norm published by the NCLP?

2a. On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2b. On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2c. On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2d. On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2e. On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2f. On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2g. On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

2h. On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, are the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program significantly different from college student leaders who do not mentor?

Hypotheses

To answer the specific research sub-questions, the following hypotheses will be explored, which are stated in the null form for statistical testing purposes:

H_0(1a): On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the national norm published by the NCLP.

H_0(1b): On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based mentoring program and the national norm published by the NCLP.

$H_0(1c)$:   On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the national norm published by the NCLP.

$H_0(1d)$:   On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the national norm published by the NCLP.

$H_0(1e)$:   On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist

between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-

based mentoring program and the national norm published by the

NCLP.

$H_0(1f)$:   On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences

exist between the scores of college students who participate in a

leadership-based mentoring program and the national norm published

by the NCLP.

$H_0(1g)$:   On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the national norm published by the NCLP.

$H_0(1h)$:   On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the national norm published by the NCLP.

$H_0(2a)$:   On the *consciousness of self* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist

between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-

based mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not

mentor.

H$_0$(2b): On the *congruence* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H$_0$(2c): On the *commitment* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H$_0$(2d): On the *collaboration* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H$_0$(2e): On the *common purpose* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist

between the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-

based mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not

mentor.

H$_0$(2f): On the *controversy with civility* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences

exist between the scores of college students who participate in a

leadership-based mentoring program and the college student leaders

who do not mentor.

H$_0$(2g): On the *citizenship* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

H$_0$(2h): On the *change* scale of the SRLS-R2, no differences exist between

the scores of college students who participate in a leadership-based

mentoring program and the college student leaders who do not mentor.

Variables

The variables used in this study were (1) participating as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program and (2) socially responsible leadership capacity. The former served as the independent variable and participants were assigned to the intervention group based on participation as a mentor in the Nebraska Human Resources Institute (NHRI). A control group of college student leaders consisted of Greek presidents who were not mentors in NHRI, or other similar mentoring organization. A comparison group was formed from participants from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), a national study of leadership capacity among college students (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

Socially responsible leadership capacity served as the dependent variable in this study. The capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership was measured by participants' scores on the revised version of the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS-R2; Dugan, 2006c).

Data Screening

A total of 155 surveys were collected by the researcher during the data collection process. Prior to data entry, each survey was screened to ensure that the survey was sufficiently completed and participants were of age to take part in the study. Even though students were given the choice to skip any item they felt uncomfortable answering, a criterion was set prior to the data collection process that surveys must be at least 90

percent complete to be included in the data set. A total of five surveys (two collected

from the intervention group and three from the control group of college student leaders

who do not mentor) did not meet this criterion and were omitted from the data set.

Additionally, although students were informed they must be at least 19 years of age or

older to participate in the study, there were two participants (one from the intervention

group and one from the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor) who

indicated they were 18 on the survey. Because these students did not meet the age

requirements set by the Institutional Review Board for participation in this study, the data

from their surveys were omitted from the data set.

Participant Information

Overall, there were 148 participants in this study (not including participants of the

Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, n=50,378). The intervention group had 119

participants, and the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor had 29.

According to the Director of NHRI, there are currently 186 college students participating

as mentors. However, not all NRHI mentors were present at the meetings where survey

instruments were distributed. Less than 5 students chose not to participate and 2 did not

meet the age criteria for this study. Based on this information, the response rate for the

intervention group was 94.4 percent. Additionally, at the time of this study there were 51

active Greek organizations at the University of Nebraska - Lincoln, each with presidents.

Similar to data collection from NHRI students, not all members were present at the time

data was collected. Of those present, less than 8 student chose not to participate,

approximately 5 were involved as mentors, and 3 did not meet the criteria for

participation in the study. Based on this information, the response rate for college student leaders who do not mentor was 64.4 percent.

Table 5 provides a comparison of the demographic characteristics of participants in the intervention group (NHRI mentors) and those in the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor (leaders/non-mentors).

Table 5

Comparison of Demographic Characteristics Between NHRI Mentors and Control Group of Leaders, Non-Mentors

Demographic Characteristic		NHRI Mentors		Leaders, Non-Mentors	
		n	%	n	%
Gender	Male	44	37	15	52
	Female	75	63	14	48
Race/Ethnicity	White/Caucasian	117	98	22	79
	African American/Black	1	1	0	0
	Asian American/Asian	1	1	1	4
	Latino/Latina	2	2	4	14
	Multiracial	2	2	0	0
	Not Included	0	0	1	4
Class Standing	Sophomore	45	38	7	24
	Junior	43	36	17	59
	Senior	30	25	5	17
Average GPA	3.5 – 4.0	93	78	17	59
	3.0 – 3.49	24	20	8	28
	2.5 – 3.0	2	2	4	14
Age	Mean	20.18		20.53	
	Range	19 – 23		19 – 27	

The demographic information collected from participants includes: gender race/ethnic background, current class standing, average, and age. For the intervention group (n=119), there were 75 participants who identified as female (63%), compared to

44 who identified as males (37%). In terms of race/ethnicity, the sample predominantly identified as White/Caucasian (n=117, or 98%). Students were allowed to select multiple options, which accounts for the total exceeding 100 percent. The sample was relatively evenly distributed among academic class standing, including 45 at the sophomore level (38%), 43 at the junior level (36%), and 30 at the senior level (25%). One participant did not complete this item of the survey. In terms of average GPA, a majority of the participants in the sample were in the 3.5 – 4.0 range (n=93, or 78%), while 24 were in the 3.0 – 3.49 range (20%), and 2 were in the 2.50 – 2.99 range (2%). The average age of participants in the sample was M=20.18 with ages ranging from 19 to 23 years. Participants had to be over the age of 18 to participate in the study.

For the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor (n=29), many similarities to the intervention group existed with regard to demographic characteristics. There were 14 participants who identified as female (48%), compared to 15 who identified as males (52%). In terms of race/ethnicity, the sample predominantly identified as White/Caucasian (n=22, or 79%), with a higher representation of non-white students. One participant did not complete this item of the survey. Most students identified as being at the Junior class level (n=17, or 59%), as well as 7 at the sophomore level (24%), and 5 at the senior level (17%). In terms of average GPA, a majority of the participants in the sample were in the 3.5 – 4.0 range (n=17, or 59%), while 8 were in the 3.0 – 3.49 range (28%), and 4 were in the 2.50 – 2.99 range (14%). The average age of participants in the sample was M=20.53, with ages ranging from 19 to 27 years, (however the second oldest participant was 22).

Reliability Tests

To test for reliability for each scale in the SRLS-R2, Cronbach's alphas were calculated. The Cronbach's alpha levels for the scales ranged from $\alpha = 0.624$ for the *controversy with civility* scale to $\alpha = 0.865$ for the *citizenship* scale. Overall, reliability scores were lower for each scale when compared to the published reliability scores (Dugan, 2006c). Cronbach's alpha levels for all scales can be found in Table 6.

Table 6

Tested Reliability Scores for SRLS-R2 Scales

Scales	Items Per Scale	Dugan (2006)	Barnes (2014)
Consciousness of Self	9	0.781	0.626
Congruence	7	0.793	0.731
Commitment	6	0.814	0.705
Collaboration	8	0.800	0.753
Common Purpose	9	0.813	0.790
Controversy with Civility	11	0.720	0.624
Citizenship	8	0.895	0.865
Change	10	0.816	0.812

Independent Sample Comparisons

As previously mentioned, there are two groups the intervention group was compared to: (1) national averages of leadership capacity published in the MSL (n=50,378) and (2) college student leaders who do not mentor (n=29). Since each of these samples are independent of each other, an independent samples t-test was used to

analyze mean differences (Creswell, 2009). This analysis was conducted in three phases: (1) comparing the mean scores on individual scales of the SRLS-R2 of participants in the intervention group to those published in the MSL, (2) comparing the mean scores on individual scales of the SRLS-R2 of participants in the intervention group to those of the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor, and (3) comparing the mean scores on individual scales of the SRLS-R2 of participants in the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor to those published in the MSL. Descriptive statistics for scores on the SRLS-R2 for each group can be found in Table 7. Results of each phase of analysis are presented in the following sections.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for SRLS-R2 Scores for Each Group

	Intervention Group (n=119)	MSL National Study (n=50,378)	College Leader, Non-Mentor (n=29)
Social Change Model Scale	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Consciousness of Self	4.30 (0.36)	3.95 (0.51)	4.13 (0.40)
Congruence	4.55 (0.36)	4.18 (0.46)	4.44 (0.40)
Commitment	4.69 (0.31)	4.24 (0.47)	4.71 (0.31)
Collaboration	4.38 (0.40)	3.98 (0.45)	4.34 (0.34)
Common Purpose	4.42 (0.40)	4.04 (0.42)	4.47 (0.35)
Controversy with Civility	4.10 (0.36)	3.84 (0.42)	4.04 (0.35)
Citizenship	4.47 (0.43)	3.84 (0.46)	4.44 (0.49)
Change	3.93 (0.46)	3.75 (0.47)	3.96 (0.58)

Note: MSL data from Dugan and Komives (2007)

Phase 1 Results. Analysis during Phase 1 corresponded with testing the null hypotheses $H_0(1a)$ through $H_0(1h)$. For each scale of the Social Change Model of Leadership, the mean scores of the intervention group (n=119) and those published in the MSL (n=50,378) were compared to determine if there were statistically significant differences between the two. A Levine's Test for Equality of Variances was used in each comparison and it was determined that the two groups had similar variances on each scale of the SRLS-R2. See Table 8 for a summary of the independent sample t-test results for mean comparison between the intervention group and the MSL national findings.

Table 8

Independent Sample Means Test: Phase 1 Results

Social Change Model Scale	Intervention Group (n=119) M (SD)	MSL National Study (n=50,378) M (SD)	t-value	Cohen's d
Consciousness of Self	4.30 (0.36)	3.95 (0.51)	10.61**	0.09
Congruence	4.55 (0.36)	4.18 (0.46)	11.17**	0.09
Commitment	4.69 (0.31)	4.24 (0.47)	15.76**	0.13
Collaboration	4.38 (0.40)	3.98 (0.45)	11.05**	0.09
Common Purpose	4.42 (0.40)	4.04 (0.42)	10.51**	0.09
Controversy with Civility	4.10 (0.36)	3.84 (0.42)	7.66**	0.07
Citizenship	4.47 (0.43)	3.84 (0.46)	15.78**	0.13
Change	3.93 (0.46)	3.75 (0.47)	4.25**	0.04

**p < 0.01

As noted in Table 8, independent samples means tests produced statistically significant differences on all scales of the SRLS-R2 at the 0.01 level. On each scale,

mean scores of the intervention group were significantly greater than those of the control group, and therefore, null hypotheses $H_0(1a)$ through $H_0(1h)$ were rejected.

Phase 2 Results. Analysis during Phase 2 corresponded with testing the null hypotheses $H_0(2a)$ through $H_0(2h)$. For each scale of the Social Change Model of Leadership, the mean scores of the intervention group (n=119) and those of the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor were compared to determine if there were statistically significant differences between the two. A Levine's Test for Equality of Variances was used in each comparison to determine if the two groups have similar variances. See Table 9 for a summary of the independent sample t-test results for mean comparison between the intervention group and the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor.

Table 9

Independent Sample Means Test: Phase 2 Results

	Intervention Group (n=119)	College Leader, Non-Mentor (n=29)	
Social Change Model Scale	M (SD)	M (SD)	t-value
Consciousness of Self	4.30 (0.36)	4.13 (0.40)	2.281*
Congruence	4.55 (0.36)	4.44 (0.40)	1.348
Commitment	4.69 (0.31)	4.71 (0.31)	-.253
Collaboration	4.38 (0.40)	4.34 (0.34)	.495
Common Purpose	4.42 (0.40)	4.47 (0.35)	-.818
Controversy with Civility	4.10 (0.36)	4.04 (0.35)	.717
Citizenship	4.47 (0.43)	4.44 (0.49)	.284
Change	3.93 (0.46)	3.96 (0.58)	-.534

*$p < 0.5$

Unlike the results of Phase 1, there was only one scale on the SRLS-R2 that resulted in a statistically significant difference. This occurred on the scale of *consciousness of self* where the mean score of the intervention group was 4.31 (std = 0.36) whereas those in the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor had a mean score of 4.13 (std = 0.40). Mean scores of the intervention group on the *consciousness of self* scale were significantly greater than those of the control group $(t(146) = 2.281, p < 0.05)$. Cohen's d for this test is 0.47, which is considered a medium effect size. Based on these results, the null hypothesis $H_0(2a)$ was rejected. Based on t-test results from remaining scales that did not show a statistically significant difference between mean scores, the researcher failed to reject null hypotheses $H_0(2b)$ through $H_0(2h)$.

Phase 3 Results. Analysis during Phase 3 did not correspond with tests of any of the stated null hypotheses, but was conducted to serve as a reference. Independent samples means tests were conducted between the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor and the published national averages from the MSL (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Findings were similar to Phase 1 results, where statistically significant differences were found on all scales, with the exception of the *consciousness of self* and *change* scales, in which statistically significant differences were only found at the 0.05 level. See Table 10 for a summary of the independent sample t-test results for mean comparison between the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor and the MSL national findings.

Table 10

Independent Sample Means Test: Phase 3 Results

Social Change Model Scale	College Leader, Non-Mentor (n=29) M (SD)	MSL National Study (n=50,378) M (SD)	t-value	Cohen's d
Consciousness of Self	4.13 (0.40)	3.95 (0.51)	2.45*	0.08
Congruence	4.44 (0.40)	4.18 (0.46)	3.57**	0.12
Commitment	4.71 (0.31)	4.24 (0.47)	8.17**	0.28
Collaboration	4.34 (0.34)	3.98 (0.45)	5.77**	0.20
Common Purpose	4.47 (0.35)	4.04 (0.42)	6.88**	0.24
Controversy with Civility	4.04 (0.35)	3.84 (0.42)	3.07**	0.11
Citizenship	4.44 (0.49)	3.84 (0.46)	6.53**	0.23
Change	3.96 (0.58)	3.75 (0.47)	2.21*	0.08

*p<0.05, **p < 0.01

Summary

This chapter presented the results of this research study. First, the research questions and associated null hypotheses guiding this study were presented. This was followed by a detailed description of the participants in the study. Finally the results were presented in three phases of independent sample means tests: (1) intervention group compared to MSL national findings, (2) intervention group compared to the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor, and (3) control group of college student leaders who do not mentor compared to MSL national findings. Chapter 5 will present the interpretation of these findings.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine how participation as a mentor in a

leadership-based mentoring program influences socially responsible leadership capacity.

Chapter 5 is dedicated to interpreting the results of the study and how they answer the

main research question guiding this study: *Is there a significant relationship between*

participating as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program and students'

capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership? The chapter also discusses how

these findings add to the existing literature, identifies implications for implementation

into current leadership development practices for college students and youth, and

concludes with suggestions for future research.

Overview

As previously stated, the purpose of this study was to examine how participation

as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program influences socially responsible

leadership capacity. Using a cross-sectional survey methodology, data were collected

from three sample populations: (1) students participating in the Nebraska Human

Resources Institute (NHRI), a leadership-based mentoring organization, (2) students

participating in the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL; Dugan & Komives,

2007), and (3) a control group of college student leaders who do not mentor.

Participation as a mentor in NHRI served as the independent variable. Students' capacity

to engage in socially responsible leadership served as the dependent variable, which was

quantified using scores on the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS; Dugan, 2006).

The SRLS was developed to assess leadership development along the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM) (HERI, 1996), which served as the theoretical model in guiding this study. In the SCM, leadership is defined as "a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change" (Campbell et al., 2012, p. 601). The SRLS consists of eight individual scales that correspond respectively with each value of the SCM: *consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship,* and *change*.

During the data analysis process, the mean scores of the intervention group of NHRI mentors were compared to those of each comparison group on each scale of the SRLS. In comparison to participants in the MSL national study, NHRI mentors demonstrated a higher capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership along all eight scales of the SCM. In comparison to the control group of college student leaders who do not mentor, NHRI mentors scored significantly higher on the *consciousness of self* scale of the SCM. The latter finding suggests NHRI mentors have a greater capacity to be self-aware of their personal beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate them to take action towards positive social change (Komives et al., 2011). However, the effect size for this test suggests only a medium effect (Cohen's d = 0.47), and should be interpreted within reason.

Discussion of Results

Factors that influence growth in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership have been studied extensively (Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan, 2006a). Of these factors, pre-college leadership experiences (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Gleason, 2012), college involvement (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan, 2006a, Haber & Komives, 2009), social perspective-taking (Dugan et al., 2014), and mentoring (Campbell et al., 2012; Gleason, 2012) have all been shown to be most effective in fostering this growth.

Specific to the research conducted on mentoring and the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership development, psychosocial forms of mentoring were shown to be the most effective (Campbell et al., 2012; Gleason, 2012). However, this research only focused on the leadership outcomes related to a college student who is *being mentored*, not those related to a student who *serves as a mentor*.

Hastings (2012) found that college student leaders who participate as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program are more generative than the general student body in all areas of generative concern, generative action, and generative commitment. When compared to other college student leaders who do not mentor, college student leaders who mentor score higher in the construct of generative concern as it relates to passing on knowledge to the next generation and in the area of generative commitment. Since higher levels of generativity are positively related to socially responsible behavior (Rossi, 2001), Hastings (2012) concluded that students who serve as mentors are more generative than their peers, and, therefore, more likely to engage in socially responsible leadership.

Results of the comparison to findings from the MSL national study data showing significantly higher mean scores on all values of the Social Change Model of Leadership provide confirmatory evidence to the work of Hastings (2012), and demonstrate that students who serve as mentors have a higher capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership. These findings provide initial evidence to suggest *serving as a mentor* may be a factor that influences growth in students' capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership.

When compared to other college student leaders who do not mentor, college student leaders who serve as mentors in a leadership-based mentoring program had a higher capacity to be self-aware of their personal beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate them to take action towards positive social change. From this finding, it can be concluded that there are leadership development outcomes unique to the experience of serving as a mentor. Primarily, this finding highlights the reciprocal nature of mentoring relationships (Jacobi, 1991). In psychosocial mentoring, the focus is to help protégés gain a sense of competence and clarity of identity (Kram, 1985). College students who serve as mentors may initiate the involvement with the intent to invest in a younger person and assume that the development will be unidirectional (i.e. from mentor to protégé). However, this finding suggests that the process of mentoring causes a significant amount of personal reflection and identity development for the *mentor*, as well.

Hastings (2012) found that college student leaders who serve as mentors in NHRI develop a sense of generativity that is integrated into their personal identity as a result of

their mentoring experience. According to Hastings (2012), "[NHRI mentors'] life philosophies and missions reflected a conscious commitment to investing in people and recognizing potential in others" (p. 154). This level of generative integration into an NHRI mentor's personal identity goes beyond the general identity development of one who participates in psychosocial mentoring. Findings suggest that this outcome is specific to an investment relationship, where there is a purposeful effort to achieve higher self-realization of the talents and strengths possessed by an individual (Hall, 1965; Hastings, 2012).

Results from Phase 2, which compared data from the NHRI mentors and the control group of Greek presidents, revealed limited differences between these groups. These limited differences might suggest that experiences that develop their capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership of students who serve as mentors may not be unique to the mentoring experience. In other words, one might assume from these results that serving as a mentor might not be the cause of leadership development. A theory that might explain these limited differences is that the nature of serving as a Greek president would likely put these leaders in a position of mentoring members of their respective organizations. So, although these mentoring relationships would occur in a much more informal manner, Greek presidents are actively involved in developing the potential of their fellow members to help the organization achieve its goals.

Implications

The findings of this study may hold significant promise of addressing the societal needs for developing the capacity of young people to engage in socially responsible

leadership. With rapidly decreasing resources available to provide leadership

development programs, synergies are needed across all levels of education to maximize

the return on investment in these programs. This synergy can be realized by creating a

Ripple Effect in which college student leaders invest in the leadership development of

youth through mentoring in investment relationships.

The synergistic impacts of the Ripple Effect would be realized in three ways: (1)

youth serving as the protégés would develop their leadership abilities and would be

encouraged by their mentors to reinvest in their peers at the primary or secondary level,

(2) college student leaders serving as mentors develop their capacity to engage in socially

responsible leadership, and (3) over time, both mentors protégés develop an integrated

generative identity and become more likely to make a conscious commitment to investing

in people and recognizing potential in others.

The benefits of *being mentored* have been established, specifically in terms of

enhancing social skills, increasing emotional well-being and self-efficacy, improving

cognitive skills, facilitating identity development, and reducing high-risk behaviors

(Blinn-Pike, 2007, Keller, 2007; Rhodes, 2002). Outcomes related to leadership

development have also been shown (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Popper & Lipshitz, 1993).

By focusing on enhancing the leadership development of youth in the primary and

secondary stages of education, this will likely increase students' precollege leadership

experiences, which has been shown to be the highest predictor of leadership gains in

college (Gleason, 2012). The findings of this study show that the college students'

capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership is positively related to serving as a

mentor. So, therefore, if college students experience leadership gains from *serving as a mentor* and youth experience leadership gains from *being mentored*, which better prepares them to experience leadership gains in college, this creates an effective way to maximize leadership capacity development.

Future Research

Although findings from this study hold considerable promise, they need to be replicated by future research to provide confirmation of findings and address limitations. First, as this study used a cross-sectional design, a future research study should address this limitation by exploring growth in the capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership of college student leaders who mentor over time using a longitudinal research design. Pre-test scores of leadership capacity could be obtained as NHRI students begin their mentoring experience, and then reassessed each year as they progress through the program and the development of their mentoring relationship. This data would be compared against a control group of college students who engage in other forms of leadership development activities and a second control group of college students from the general student population.

In addition to conducting a longitudinal study, other beneficial research studies would seek to identify potential antecedents to leadership gains due to participation in a mentoring. NHRI mentors go through a selection process that evaluates them on certain capacities, such as empathy, rapport drive, listening, investment, gestalt, focus, work ethic, and diversity appreciation. Correlations may exist between scores on certain scales of the selection interview and growth in leadership capacity gained from the mentoring

experience. If these capacities could be shown to be developable, it could prove

beneficial to target training in mentoring programs to foster development of these

capacities. This would also improve the selection process of mentors to ensure applicants

with the most potential to create a successful investment mentoring relationship are

identified.

Along with identification of antecedents to growth in leadership capacity from

mentoring, the mentoring relationship process could be further analyzed to distinguish

elements that also promote leadership development. Hastings (2012) identified the stages

by which investment mentoring relationship form and progress, but not specifically the

factors that influence this process. For example, mentors in NHRI have a number of

experiences that potentially aid in their leadership development, including their

investment relationship with their protégé, project meetings with other college leaders

who are mentoring protégés of a similar age or demographic, or the NHRI Mentor

Training course. Research may show that certain factors or experiences are more

influential in facilitating growth in the capacity to engage in socially responsible

leadership.

Finally, it is important to note that mentoring programs vary widely in structure,

purpose, and scope. This study was conducted on a leadership-based mentoring program

that focuses specifically on identification and development of strengths in promising

young leaders. Findings should not be generalized to all mentoring programs, and future

studies should seek to explore similar correlations between serving as a mentor and

capacity to engage in socially responsible leadership for students serving as mentors in

other formal mentoring programs. Furthermore, as mentoring relationships often occur

informally, studies should also seek to explore similar correlations in these types of

mentoring relationships.

References

Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., & Lentz, E. (2006). Mentorship behaviors and mentorship quality associated with formal mentoring programs: Closing the gap between research and practice. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(3), 567–78. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.567

Astin, A. W. (1993). *What matters in college? Four critical years revisited.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Baugh, S. G., & Fagenson-Eland, E. A. (2007). Formal mentoring programs: A "poor cousin" to informal relationships? In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work: Theory, research and practice.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Blinn-Pike, L. (2007). The benefits associated with youth mentoring relationships. In L. T. Eby, J. E. Rhodes, & T. D. Allen, *The Blackwell Handbook of Mentoring* (pp. 165-188). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Brawer, F. B. (1996). *Retention-attrition in the nineties.* ERIC. No. ED393510. Los Angeles, CA.: ERIC Clearinghouse for Community Colleges.

Campbell, C. D. (2007). Best practices for student-faculty mentoring programs. In T. D. Allen, & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach.* Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Campbell, C. M., Smith, M., Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2012). Mentors and college student leadership outcomes: The importance of position and process. *The Review of Higher Education*, *35*(4), 595–625. doi:10.1353/rhe.2012.0037

Chesbrough, R. D. (2011). College Students and Service: A Mixed Methods Exploration of Motivations, Choices, and Learning Outcomes. *Journal of College Student Development*, *52*(6), 687–705. doi:10.1353/csd.2011.0071

Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, Merrill, Prentice Hall.

Daloz Parks, S. (2008). Leadership, spirituality, and the college as a mentoring environment. *Journal of College and Character, 10*(2), 1-9.

Dodge, G. (1986). *Priceless people: A guide for human resources development*. Lincoln, NE: Metromail Corporation.

Dugan, J. P. (2006a). Explorations Using the Social Change Model: Leadership Development among College Men and Women. *Journal of College Student Development*, *47*(2), 217–225. doi:10.1353/csd.2006.0015

Dugan, J. P. (2006b). Involvement and Leadership: A Descriptive Analysis of Socially Responsible Leadership. *Journal of College Student Development*, *47*(3), 335–343. doi:10.1353/csd.2006.0028

Dugan, J. (2006c). *SRLS-Rev 2: The second revision of SRLS*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Dugan, J. P., Bohle, C. W., Woelker, L. R., & Cooney, M. a. (2014). The Role of Social Perspective-Taking in Developing Students' Leadership Capacities. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, *51*(1), 1–15. doi:10.1515/jsarp-2014-0001

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2007). *Developing leadership capacity in college students: Findings from a national study* (pp. 1–28). College Park, MD. Retrieved from www.nclp.umd.edu

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2010). Influences on College Students' Capacities for Socially Responsible Leadership. *Journal of College Student Development*, *51*(5), 525–549. doi:10.1353/csd.2010.0009

Dugan, J. P., Komives, S., & Segar, T. (2008). College student capacity for socially responsible leadership: Understanding norms and influences of race, gender, and sexual orientation. *NASPA Journal*, *45*(4), 475–500.

Eby, L. T., Rhodes, J. E., & Allen, T. D. (2007). *Definition and evolution of mentoring.* In T. D. Allen, & L. T. Eby (Eds.), The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Erikson, E. H. (1950, 1963). *Childhood and society*. New York: Norton.

Erkut, S., & Mokros, J. R. (1984). Professors as models and mentors for college students. *American Educational Research Journal, 21*(2), 399-417.

Gehrke, S. J., & Schuh, J. H. (2008). Leadership through Meaning-Making: An Empirical Exploration of Spirituality and Leadership in College Students. *Journal of College Student Development*, *49*(4), 351–359. doi:10.1353/csd.0.0014

Gleason, M. (2012). Mentoring influence on socially responsible leadership capacity based on institutional Carnegie Classification. Retrieved from http://lib.dr.iastate.edu/etd/12329/

Godshalk, V. M., & Sosik, J. J. (2000). Does mentor-protégé agreement on mentor leadership behavior influence the quality of a mentoring relationship? *Group & Organization Management, 25*(3), 291–317.

Haber, P., & Komives, S. R. (2009). Predicting the individual values of the social change model of leadership development: The role of college students' leadership and involvement experiences. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *7*(3), 133-166.

Hall, W. E. (ca. 1965). Unpublished manuscript—*The Great Experiment.* Nebraska Human Resources Institute, University of Nebraska—Lincoln.

Haring, M. J. (1999). The case for a conceptual base for minority mentoring programs. *Peabody Journal of Education, 74*(2), 5-14.

Hastings, L. J. (2012). *Generativity in young adults: Comparing and explaining the impact of mentoring*. Educational Administration: Theses, Dissertations, and Student Research. Paper 84. http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cehsedaddiss/84

Higher Education Research Institute. (1996). *A social change model of leadership guidebook: Version III*. Los Angeles, CA: University of California.

Imada, T. (2004). Generativity as social responsibility: The role of generations in societal continuity and change. In E. de St. Aubin, D. P. McAdams, & T-C. Kim (Eds.), *The generative society: Caring for future generations* (pp. 15 – 32). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Jabaji, R., Slife, N., Komives, S. R., & Dugan, J. P. (2008). Mentoring relationships matter in developing student leadership. *Concepts & Connections: A Publication for Leadership Educators, 15*(4), 7-8.

Jacobi, M. (1991). Mentoring and undergraduate academic success: A literature review. Review of Educational Research, 61(4), 505-532.

Keller, T. E. (2007). Youth mentoring: Theoretical and methodological issues. In L. T. Eby, J. E. Rhodes, & T. D. Allen, *The Blackwell Handbook of Mentoring* (pp. 165-188). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Kezar, A., & Moriarty, D. (2000). Expanding our understanding of student leadership development: A study exploring gender and ethnic identity. *Journal of College Student Development,* 41, 55–68.

Komives, S. R., Dugan, J. P., Owen, J. E., Slack, C., Wagner, W., & Associates. (2011). The handbook for student leadership development. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Komives, S. R., Owen, J. E., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2005). Developing a Leadership Identity: A Grounded Theory. *Journal of College Student Development*, *46*(6), 593–611. doi:10.1353/csd.2005.0061

Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentoring relationship. *The Academy of Management Journal, 26*(4), 608-625.

Kram, K. E. (1985). Improving the mentoring process. *Training and Development Journal*, 40–43.

Leffel, G.M. (2008). Who cares: Generativity and the moral emotions, part 1. Advancing the "psychology of ultimate concern." *Journal of Psychology and Theology, 36*(3), 161 – 181.

Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Levinson, M. H., & McKee, B. (1978). *The seasons of a man's life.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Light, R. J. (2001). *Making the most of college.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University

Press.

Mavrinac, M. A. (2005). Transformational Leadership: Peer Mentoring as a Values-

Based Learning Process. *Libraries and the Academy*, *5*(3), 391–404.

doi:10.1353/pla.2005.0037

Mertens, D. M. (2010). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology:*

Integrating

diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (3rd Edition ed.).

Thousand

Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Nebraska Human Resources Institute. (n.d.) *Mission*. Retreived on March 3, 2014, from

http://nhri.edu/mission

Popper, M., & Lipshitz, R. (1993). Putting leadership theory to work: A conceptual

framework for theory-based leadership development. *Leadership & Organization*

Development Journal, 14(7), 23–27.

Reich, M. (1986). The mentor connection. *Personnel, 63*(2), 50 – 56.

Rhodes, J. E. (2002). Mentoring has become an extremely important aspect of youth

program planning. In J. E. Rhodes (Ed.), *New directions for youth development.* (pp.

5-8). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Rossi, A. S. (2001). *Caring and doing for others: Social responsibility in the domains of*

family, work, and community. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Rossi, Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A. (2004). Mentoring and transformational

    leadership: The role of supervisory career mentoring. *Journal of Vocational*

    Behavior, 65, 448-468.

Thompson, M. D. (2006). Student leadership process development: An assessment of

    contributing college resources. *Journal of College Student Development,* 47, 343–

    350.

Tyree, T. M. (1998). Designing an instrument to measure the socially responsible

    leadership using the social change model of leadership development. *Dissertation*

    Abstracts International, 59(06), 1945. (AAT 9836493)

Wallace, D., Abel, R., & Ropers-Huilman, B. (2000). Clearing a path for success:

    Deconstructing borders through undergraduate mentoring. *Review of Higher*

    Education, 24, 87–102.

Appendix A

Informed Consent Form

Participant Informed Consent Form

IRB# 20458

Title: Socially Responsible Leadership Development in College Student Leaders Who Mentor

Purpose:
This research project will aim to examine how participating as a mentor in a leadership-based mentoring program influences college students' leadership capacity. You are invited to participate in this study because you are a UNL student, 19-years of age or older, and a member of the Nebraska Human Resources Institute.

Procedures:
You will be asked to complete a 68-question survey regarding socially responsible leadership development. Please skip any questions that you do not feel comfortable answering. The procedures will last for approximately 10-20 minutes, and will be conducted in your project meeting space.

Benefits:
There are no direct benefits to participants in this research study. However, participants may find the questions asked in the survey to allow for personal growth through reflection.

Risks and/or Discomforts:
The only known risk is the potential of deductive disclosure of certain participants based on demographic questions and limited racial diversity. To avoid the potential for deductive disclosure, please skip any question you feel uncomfortable answering. If for any reason, you experience discomfort during the completion of this survey, please contact the UNL Psychological Counseling Center at (402) 472-2351.

Confidentiality:
Any information obtained during this study that could identify you will be kept strictly confidential. The data will be stored in a locked cabinet in the investigator's office and will only be seen by the investigator during the study and for 2 years after the study is complete. The information obtained in this study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings but the data will be reported as aggregate data.

Compensation:
You will receive no compensation for participating in this project.

Opportunity to Ask Questions:
You may ask any questions concerning this research and have those questions answered before agreeing to participate in or during the study. Or you may contact the investigator(s) at the phone numbers below. Please contact the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Institutional Review Board at (402) 472-6965 to voice concerns about the research or if you have any questions about your rights as a research participant.

Freedom to Withdraw:
Participation in this research project is voluntary and you are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your current or future relationship with the investigators, NHRI, the NHRI Director, NHRI Staff, or the University of Nebraska – Lincoln.

Consent, Right to Receive a Copy:
You are voluntarily making a decision whether or not to participate in this research study. Completion of the survey will indicate that you have decided to participate having read and understood the information presented. You may keep this consent form for your records.

Name and Phone number of investigator(s)
Seth Barnes, Principal Investigator Office: (402) 472-6480
Lindsay Hastings, Ph.D., Secondary Investigator Office (402) 472-3477

Appendix B

Introduction Email

Hi there,

This email is intended to inform you of an upcoming research project that I am conducting on the socially responsible leadership capacity of college student leaders who mentor. As an NHRI student, you will be given the opportunity to participate in this study in the next few weeks if you choose to do so.

The research process consists of a 68-question survey that should only take 10-20 minutes to complete. There are no known risks or discomforts, as well as no direct benefits associated with participation in this study.

Participation in this research project is voluntary and you are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your current or future relationship with the investigators, NHRI, the NHRI Director, NHRI Staff, or the University of Nebraska – Lincoln.

In the next two weeks, I will be visiting project meetings to once again inform you of this research project and your opportunity to participate. One week after visiting your project meeting, I will return to obtain consent from those who agree to participate in the study. The survey will be distributed at this time to students providing consent.

Please know that participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You are welcome to contact either me or Dr. Lindsay Hastings at lhastings2@unl.edu with any questions regarding this research study.

Thank you,

Seth Barnes
Student Affairs Master's Student
seth.barnes@unl.edu
(402) 472-6480

Appendix C

In-Person Script

Hi there,

I'm Seth Barnes and I would like to inform you of the research project I am conducting on the socially responsible leadership capacity of college student leaders who mentor. As an NHRI student, you will be given the opportunity to participate in this study if you choose to do so.

The research process consists of a 68-question survey that should only take 10-20 minutes to complete. There are no direct benefits associated with participation in this study, and the only known risk is the potential of deductive disclosure of certain participants based on demographic questions and limited racial diversity.

Participation in this research project is voluntary and you are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your current or future relationship with NHRI, the NHRI Director, NHRI Staff, or the University of Nebraska – Lincoln.

I will provide all of you will an informed consent sheet and survey. If you choose not to participate, please return these items unmarked. If you choose to participate, your completion of the survey will indicate that you have provided consent to do so.

What questions are there at this time?

(Allow time for students to ask questions)

If you have any questions at any point, please let me know.

(Distribute consent form and survey)