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Social Justice Messaging and Self-Efficacy:
Understanding What Influences Student Affairs Professionals to Choose
Social Justice Work on Campus

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Education

by

Laura Nicole Monje-Paulson

2016

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Social Justice Messaging and Self-Efficacy:
Understanding What Influences Student Affairs Professionals to Choose
Social Justice Work on Campus

by

Laura Nicole Monje-Paulson

Doctor of Philosophy in Education

University of California, Los Angeles, 2016

Professor Jane E. Pizzolato, Co-Chair

Professor Linda J. Sax, Co-Chair

The primary objective of this study was to examine social justice messaging sent to Student Affairs (SA) professionals from institutions and professional organizations. The secondary objective of this study was to explore the application of a social cognitive framework that better emphasizes the role of the environment and social justice self-efficacy as determinants of social justice choices. As the fields of Student Affairs and Higher Education strive to create campus communities that support all students and address inequities both on the campus level and in society, understanding the dynamic process of why SA professionals choose to engage in social justice work informs efforts toward these ends.

This mixed method sequential study addressed the study's research questions through two main approaches. First, content analysis was used to investigate messages from a sample of 40 higher education institutions and Student Affairs professional organizations' journals and magazines. These messages speak to the higher education context comprised of professional and institutional environments in which SA professionals could be influenced to engage with social justice. Documents used for this analysis included institutional mission statements, strategic goals, training documents, webpage materials, and articles from the past five years of SA practice-based magazines and scholarly journals (e.g., *Journal of College Student Development*, *About Campus*).

The second research question explored relationships between social cognitive variables through structural equation modeling (SEM). The aim of this part of the study was to investigate the social justice choice process for SA professionals in order to understand how various individual and environmental variables influence social justice goals and actions. The data come from a survey of SA professionals working at a subsample of 21 institutions from the original 40 institutions selected for this study. Endogenous variables of interest center on social justice self-efficacy, goals, and actions. Exogenous variables of interest include personal characteristics and background contexts, multicultural competence, and institutional environments.

The findings of this study provide insight into the current state of social justice efforts for SA professional organizations, institutions, and SA professionals. Current social justice efforts tend to emphasize education as a tool for social justice and rely on person-level initiatives as a means toward social change. The findings from the SEM suggest that both social justice preparedness and perceptions of institutional support play important roles in predicting social justice choices.

The dissertation of Laura N. Monje-Paulson is approved.

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Jane E. Pizzolato, Committee Co-Chair

Linda J. Sax, Committee Co-Chair

University of California, Los Angeles

2016

DEDICATION PAGE

To all of my friends and family who fight for a better world –
Thank you for motivating and inspiring me daily to continue this work.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Northlake University, a mid-sized, private institution has a predominantly white and affluent student body although efforts to attract students from diverse racial and economic backgrounds have increased its low-income and Latino, Black, and Asian student populations over the past decade. It is resident assistant (RA) selection day at Northlake and Lucy, a Resident Director on campus, is walking to a meeting with her fellow Resident Directors to review RA applicants and select their teams for the next year. Although the composition of the student population at Northlake University has evolved, the RA group of 100 students has remained almost completely racially white and affluent.

Over the past few years, Lucy has witnessed an increasing number of students of color and of low-income backgrounds who struggle to feel understood by their RAs. There have been situations where students feel stereotyped or targeted, such as a group of Black students who felt targeted by an RA for regularly being “loud” when they felt their level of noise was reasonable. Students from low-income backgrounds have also expressed frustration with RAs who have been unable to provide advice on navigating finances in college or who have planned programs that require additional costs to participate, making the students feel excluded. Given these frequent issues, Lucy hopes to encourage her colleagues at this meeting to prioritize racial and economic diversity in the hiring of their RAs. She believes that more racial and economic diversity among the RAs would build awareness across members of the RA teams and better serve the needs of Northlake’s changing student body.

While Lucy feels confident that she can make a compelling argument regarding the issue, she also anticipates that some of her colleagues will be resistant and even hostile toward hearing the importance of considering race and income in decision-making. It is Lucy’s opinion that the

university values social justice efforts to address structural inequities for its emerging populations. However, her colleagues have communicated their beliefs that race, especially, does not belong in the RA selection process, and have emphasized the importance of focusing on other personal characteristics rather than skin color to make decisions. Further compounding the situation, Lucy worries that as a woman of color who is from a low-income background, she will be perceived as pursuing her own self-interest—something she has been accused of in the past.

Meanwhile, at Yankee State University, a large, public institution, the Director of Information Technology (IT) in Student Affairs, Anna, is meeting with other student affairs directors. One director speaks of the importance of diversity and social justice on campus and has been tasked with leading efforts to find new and effective ways to engage with social justice. Anna had not had much exposure to the concept of social justice prior to coming to work at Yankee State and, at times, feels like it is just a buzzword her colleagues use to make themselves look good in front of each other. Anna has expressed confusion and frustration to both her colleagues and supervisor over what social justice is supposed to mean in her role in IT. The feedback Anna has received is that, as a woman in a male-dominated field like IT, she should understand the need for social justice. Further, as a white person, it is important that she understand the privileges that come with her racial identity. Anna's feels that by focusing on her gender and race, her colleagues are ignoring the pieces of her identity that are most important to her, such as being smart and hard working.

Moreover, it seems like her colleagues who are most committed to social justice spend a lot of time after work helping students plan events or learn about new issues. In contrast, Anna has little direct interaction with students unless they are student employees in the offices she works with. Additionally, she leads a very busy life outside of work where she has two children

and is highly involved with the youth center in her community. While Anna respects the extra time her colleagues put in, she does not see that as something she can prioritize in her own life.

Still, Anna is aware that her colleagues and supervisor disapprove of her resistance to the idea of social justice even though she also does not understand why her resistance may impact her ability to do her job well. Nonetheless, Anna is not averse to the idea of doing what she can to support all students and certainly does not want her colleagues to see her as bigoted in any way. Consequently, when another director asks for volunteers to work with him on a social justice initiative, Anna considers volunteering.

For over three decades, American colleges and universities have increased the diversity of students on campus (e.g., different races, gender identities, socioeconomic backgrounds) (Kezar, Eckel, Contreras-McGavin, & Quaye, 2008). At the same time, institutions have also struggled to support and meet the needs of their students, and particularly those from historically underrepresented groups. Although research widely demonstrates the benefits of a diverse campus community (Chang, 2007; Denson & Chang, 2009; Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002; Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen & Allen, 1998), students in college today continue to report feeling isolated by other members of their campus community and experiencing discrimination (see Rankin, 2003; Salzer, 2012; Yosso, Smith, Ceja, Solórzano, 2009).

To improve campus climate for all students, administrators and scholars suggest that institutions do more to address issues of inequitable resources, experiences, and outcomes (Iverson, 2012; Museus & Jayakumar, 2012). This practice of addressing inequities (e.g., promoting understanding of student issues, advocating for changes in policy/practice) is often referred to as “social justice work” (Bell, 2007; Iverson, 2012). The challenge in this work is that while improving campus climate requires participation from most (if not all) members of the

institution, engagement in social justice is largely a choice. As evidenced by the vignettes above, these choices for practitioners are particularly complex as they weigh both personal and environmental factors from both in- and outside of the workplace. But beyond meeting the needs of students, why does social justice matter?

The Importance of Social Justice in Higher Education

There are many reasons why social justice is important in higher education. First, the most immediate purpose of addressing social justice on campus is to create an environment for all students where they feel welcomed and respected as members of the community and are supported to achieve their goals. When students do not feel welcomed and supported, studies have shown that this negatively impacts their mental health and overall well-being (Solórzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000), not to mention the negative impacts on persistence and graduation (Harper & Hurtado, 2007; Museus, Nichols, & Lambert, 2008).

Second, higher education can play a role in either reinforcing the systems of inequality or can challenge and change them by providing opportunities that are sensitive to historically limiting practices (Chang, 2002). For example, institutions can reinforce systems of inequality by providing wealthy students access to expensive and prestigious universities and limiting opportunities for other students by requiring that students pay to participate. Alternatively, the higher education system can offer high quality, affordable institutions to all students, or undertake initiatives that eliminate or ease the financial burden for less affluent students.

Third, by engaging students in learning about social justice concepts such as power, privilege, and difference, higher education institutions can develop citizens who are better prepared to participate in a diverse and democratic society (Johnson, 2006; Mayhew & Fernandez, 2007). Given that students often enter into college communities that are different

from those in which they grew up (e.g., from racially homogenous communities to racially diverse; from racially diverse communities to racially homogenous; Orfield & Lee, 2007), the interactions and experiences students have in college hold the potential to influence and even change how they engage with their communities after college (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, Gurin, 2002; Jayakumar, 2008). Studies have demonstrated that students who learn from and build relationships with students from backgrounds different from their own are better able to address and resolve, rather than perpetuate, social issues and inequalities (Jayakumar, 2008; Museus & Jayakumar, 2012). Higher education institutions can play a role in developing and supporting social justice ideas and values for students who may then go on to incorporate those values into their daily lives and future communities. Thus, for these three reasons, higher education scholars have moved toward a paradigm in which social justice is a central priority for higher education practitioners (Brennan & Naidoo, 2008). But who are the practitioners tasked with this work?

Student Affairs Professionals

Within higher education, faculty, staff, and students must all participate in working toward a socially just community in which members across different identity groups are able to fully engage and grow with one another, equally participate, and feel physically and psychologically safe (Bell, 2007). Although all members of the community play a role in creating the institutional environment, faculty and staff are well positioned to navigate and guide efforts toward social justice given that they may have a more consistent presence on campus compared to students. Further, faculty and staff are often in positions of power and influence to guide and create change (Bensimon, 2007; Stanton-Salazar, 2001). Important to note, however, is that while both faculty and staff have the potential to enact change, each group serves unique needs within the campus community. This study focuses on a specific group of understudied, yet

important, higher education staff– student affairs professionals (hereafter referred to as SA professionals).

SA professionals perform a wide variety of roles and functions within the institution. Their role on campus evolved from deans who were solely responsible for student life and development outside of the classroom to a wide range of positions within different functional areas across campus (see Dungy & Gordon, 2011). Today, the scope of SA professionals' services on campus range from coordinating and managing on-campus housing or residential life to recruiting, admitting, and yielding students through an office of admissions. SA professionals provide programs and resources that support students' academics, adjustment to college, emotional and mental health needs, identity development, interpersonal skills, and community safety and development. SA professionals partner and liaise with academic and public safety on campus. Some professionals interact with students briefly and/or rarely with the same student twice, while others will spend sustained and repeated time with the same student or group of students. The educational backgrounds and trainings of SA professionals vary as widely as the scope of their work, with many holding degrees specifically in student affairs, whereas others hold degrees related to their specific line of work (e.g., public health, information technology, and counseling).

Given the field's focus on student holistic development, multicultural and diverse perspectives, and advocacy for students' needs (ACPA/NASPA, 2010), SA professionals are aptly situated to address inequities and facilitate equal opportunities for diverse populations in higher education. However, to date, almost all of the social justice literature in higher education has focused on students' experiences with campus climates and the development of social justice outcomes for students. These contributions are certainly important given the pervasive and

seemingly increased number of issues involving affirmative action, hate or bias incidents, negative campus climate, and discrimination (Museus & Jayakumar, 2012). However, this literature leaves us knowing little about the many people regularly responsible for creating opportunities and engaging students with social justice. If the field of Student Affairs is to continue to incorporate and advocate for the integration of social justice in training, research, and practice, it will be important to examine the underlying psychological processes associated with engagement in social justice.

Although little empirical evidence exists of the underlying psychological processes toward engagement in social justice, the vignettes of Lucy and Anna at the beginning of this chapter provide some insight into the processes leading up to the point where SA professionals choose to engage in social justice. For both Lucy and Anna, the process was complex, involving multiple considerations of the self and the environment. As Lucy was considering advocating for better support of students of color and low-income students, she was simultaneously weighing her past, negative experiences interacting with her colleagues, her understanding of the current institutional environment of support for social justice, and her own multicultural competence (i.e. her ability to understand and engage with diverse students and issues). Similarly, as Anna was considering whether or not to volunteer for a social justice initiative, she was also reflecting on the pressure she has received from colleagues, while also managing her limited experiences learning about multicultural issues and her want to be perceived as supportive of students.

Although Lucy and Anna were weighing multiple social cognitive elements, both were influenced by their perceptions of the environment. In these examples, both institutional environments were broadly supportive of social justice, although Lucy's immediate colleagues acted in ways that might have conflicted with that message. Nonetheless, the potential for an

institution to influence the actions of their SA professionals should not be overlooked. In fact, in Anna's example, her institutional environment was perhaps the greatest influence on her consideration of how she might engage with social justice. Given the potential influence of the environment, it seems appropriate to simultaneously focus on SA professionals as well as the potential ways the institution influences social justice work in higher education.

Purpose of this Study

The aim of this dissertation is to better understand what influences Student Affairs professionals to choose to set goals and take action toward social justice and how those choices are connected to personal, institutional, and professional factors. Specifically, this study will explore the following two main research questions and sub questions:

1. How do SA professional organizations' social justice messages align with social justice messages at the institutional level? What do these messages suggest collectively and differentially about the priority of social justice in Student Affairs?
 - a. What messages do professional organizations convey through mission statements and SA practice-based and scholarly published work to SA professionals about social justice (i.e. what does it entail; what approaches should be taken to achieve it)?
 - b. What messages do institutions convey through mission statements and strategic planning documents to SA professionals about social justice (i.e. what does it entail; what approaches should be taken to achieve it)?
2. How can a social cognitive model help us understand the role of personal backgrounds (i.e. personal inputs and background contexts), multicultural competence, institutional environments, and social justice self-efficacy in predicting social justice choices (i.e. social justice goals and actions) for SA professionals?

- a. How do personal backgrounds influence social justice choices?
- b. How does multicultural competence influence social justice choices?
- c. How does the institutional environment influence social justice choices?
- d. How does social justice self-efficacy influence social justice choices?

To answer these questions, this mixed method sequential study (Creswell, 2009) will address the research questions through two main approaches. First, content analysis (Weber, 2009) will be used to understand the environment created around social justice messages by investigating SA professional and institutional messages from a sample of 40 higher education institutions and Student Affairs professional organizations' journals and magazines. These messages speak to the higher education context comprised of professional and institutional environments in which SA professionals could be influenced to engage with social justice. Documents used for this analysis include institutional mission statements, strategic goals, training documents, webpage materials, and articles from the past five years of SA practice-based magazines and scholarly journals (e.g., *Journal of College Student Development*, *About Campus*). Using Iverson's framework of multicultural competence for doing social justice, I coded documents for diversity or social justice content and explore patterns in how content differs across institutions as well as between institutions and the SA professional environment (Patton, 2002).

The second research question will explore relationships between social cognitive variables through structural equation modeling (SEM). The aim of this part of the study is to investigate the social justice choice process for SA professionals in order to understand how various individual and environmental variables influence social justice goals and actions. To answer the second research question I designed and implemented a survey of SA professionals

working at a subsample of 21 institutions from the original 40 institutions selected for this study. Survey questions focused on: self-ratings of multicultural competence; social justice self-efficacy; perceptions of the institutional environment for social justice; goals for social justice; and actions taken toward social justice. Endogenous variables of interest center on social justice self-efficacy, goals, and actions. Exogenous variables of interest include personal characteristics and background contexts, multicultural competence, and institutional environments.

Significance of Study

Exploring the dynamics between the person and environment related to SA professionals' social justice choices are valuable to both research and practice. This study adds to a small body of empirical literature on SA professionals and unifies two larger bodies of existing work (i.e., multicultural competence and campus climate) into one social cognitive framework. Through this framework, this study enhances understanding of SA professionals' psychological processes and considers the unique influences of the institutional and professional environments on their attitudes, beliefs, and actions. This study also adds to our understanding of the current state of social justice messages within higher education contexts, including the SA professional and institutional environment, and then situates these messages within a social cognitive framework to consider the individual level impact of these messages on SA professionals.

For practice, this study will highlight areas that are key to helping SA professionals put multicultural competence into practice within their institutional environment. An enhanced understanding of the paths that lead to developed social justice self-efficacy and social justice goals and actions will help both practitioners and supervisors of practitioners who seek to promote these efforts on campus.

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature and Theoretical Frameworks

The purpose of this chapter is to establish a framework for understanding student affairs professionals' social justice choices and how these choices connect to broader social justice goals and missions of higher education. As discussed in Chapter One, campus issues related to social justice continue to permeate the consciousness of higher education scholars and practitioners. And although SA professionals are well positioned to impact the campus environment and are often called upon to do so (Arminio, Torres, & Pope, 2012), there is little understanding of their underlying motivations for participation in social justice (Landreman, et al., 2007).

To connect social justice with SA professionals' career-related social cognitive processes, this chapter is organized into three sections. First, I present an overview of the historical and current importance of social justice, and its relationship to higher education, and more specifically to student affairs. Second, I will introduce and examine three theoretical frameworks that help us understand the multiple components that influence SA professionals' social justice choices. Third, I will combine these existing frameworks and propose a social cognitive framework for SA professionals' social justice-related career behavior that will be used for this study, while reiterating the current research gaps that this study hopes to address.

Social Justice, Higher Education, and Student Affairs

This section will provide an overview of social justice, higher education, and student affairs. I will first cover modern day understandings of social justice. Following this, I will then discuss the role of social justice in higher education followed by how SA professionals contribute to social justice efforts in higher education.

Social Justice in Society

Defining social justice is a challenge as the concept has evolved over time, and is conceptualized as both a process and a goal (Bell, 2007). For centuries, societies have created and enacted philosophies on social justice and as humanity has evolved, so have perceptions and understandings of justice. Modern day understandings of social justice in the United States are largely grounded in the civil rights movements of the twentieth century which fought for equal recognition and rights for subordinated social groups that included, but was not limited to: African Americans, Chicanos, Native Americans, women, LGBT individuals, and individuals with disabilities (Grant & Agosto, 2008). These movements identified formal and informal structures in society that prevented members of particular groups from accessing equal treatment, opportunities, and constitutional rights. The fight to gain access to systems laid the foundation for modern day notions that social justice requires efforts to address centuries of practices that systematically prevented, and continue to prevent, members of society from the ability to participate fully in society and achieve their full potential (Grant & Agosto).

Two ideas often exist in relation to social justice: hegemony and the status quo. Hegemony is defined as “the maintenance of domination not by the sheer exercise of force but primarily through consensual social practices, social forms, and social structures” (McLaren, 1998, p. 182). In other words, hegemonic practices require little effort to maintain but great effort to undo. Undoing these practices requires challenging the status quo—namely, the dominant culture/ideology that maintains social inequality (Goodman, 2001; Reason, Broido, Davis, & Evans, 2005). The current dominating culture/ideology that social justice enactors try most to address is that of a meritocracy and “rugged individualism” which promote the idea that all people are capable of creating their own success. In contrast, social justice work requires the

acceptance of the idea that people also have identities that come with privileged or oppressed status prescribed by society (Johnson, 2006). These identities create inequitable barriers that interrupt individual abilities to achieve success. The status quo maintains hegemonic practices without anyone necessarily having to actively or overtly discriminate against others. By doing nothing, individuals and societies unwillingly (or willingly) perpetuate a culture of inequity. These definitions highlight the need for action related to social justice and why systems of inequity would continue to exist even if individuals all disagreed with the notion of rugged individualism.

For the purpose of this study, social justice centers on the goal of “full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs...[and] includes a vision of society in which the distribution of resources is equitable and all members are physically and psychologically safe” (Bell, 2007, p.2). As a process, social justice requires that individuals work to understand the personal and cultural experiences of the self and others, especially as these experiences relate to the distribution of resources and power in society. Beyond developing an understanding of social issues, social justice also requires that individuals take action and work to address the systemic and societal privilege, power, and oppression that continue to stratify communities by race, gender, religion, and socioeconomic status (among other social identities; Johnson, 2006). This next section will focus on how social justice applies specifically to the context of higher education.

Social Justice in Higher Education

A focal point of the civil rights movements was the right to an education and the re-framing of higher education as a public good (Chang, Denson, Saenz, & Misa, 2006). Throughout the decades since, the momentum of the civil rights movements (along with other

sociopolitical forces; Grant & Agosto, 2008) solidified the importance of higher education as a social equalizer, and a means toward social change (Chang, 2002). Perhaps the most well-known example, school desegregation following the ruling of *Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954, required higher education institutions to find ways to manage and engage the changing demographics of their student populations. The federal government instituted affirmative action guidelines and programs to help institutions increase diverse representations of students and serve the needs and styles of historically underrepresented groups (Chang, et al., 2006).

Framing higher education as a public good involves the idea that institutions should be transformative by identifying issues in society and working to change them (Chang, 2002). Similar to Bell's definition highlighted above, social justice as a goal for the higher education context aims toward a campus where all members across different identity groups are able to fully engage and grow with one another, participate equally, and feel physically and psychologically safe (Bell, 2007). To achieve these goals, institutions strive for a diverse student body representative of different ideas, identities, backgrounds, and experiences (Chang 2002; Howard-Hamilton, Phelps, & Torres, 1998). They also aim to foster a positive campus climate where students engage with one another in productive and developmental ways (Hurtado, 2003; Chang, 2002).

If higher education institutions are to create social change, as opposed to maintaining the status quo, then practitioners must have the ability to recognize and challenge existing power structures, advocate for educational equity, and support students who advocate for their own and others' social justice (Arminio, Torres, & Pope, 2012; Bensimon, 2007; Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2014; Rankin & Reason, 2005). Toward these ends, higher education administrators and scholars have instituted initiatives, strategic goals, and professional competencies for faculty and

staff, including SA professionals, in order to effectively engage with students from diverse backgrounds and address social justice within the higher education context.

The challenge, however, is that although plenty of literature highlights the important role of practitioners (i.e., faculty and staff) in creating, influencing, and changing campus climate for students, few studies focus on these practitioners as a means to better understand their choice processes and development around social justice. Even fewer studies have focused specifically on SA professionals and social justice, even though their contributions are distinct from the role of faculty. Accordingly, of particular focus to this study is SA professionals and their choices to address institutional inequities.

Role of student affairs in addressing social justice on campus. Chapter One introduced the role of SA professionals in higher education. They serve in various capacities to support and develop students on campus. Given these roles, they are aptly positioned to understand student issues and advocate for institutional change. In fact, many SA departments include social justice training and efforts to better enhance professional competencies so that SA professionals are prepared to do such work. Along with SA departments, SA professional organizations have adopted social justice paradigms as central to their work in higher education.

Regardless of the scope of work individuals may perform in Student Affairs, all SA professionals are sent messages of shared standards, values, and principles from SA professional organizations. Within these guidelines are social justice-related concepts such as social justice itself, diversity, equity, inclusion and multicultural competence. Professional organizations for Student Affairs—namely ACPA and NASPA—outline guiding philosophies, standards, and competencies for actualizing and prioritizing social justice goals of higher education; in particular, practitioners are charged with addressing educational inequities and engaging in

effective and ethical work with diverse populations of students on campus. For example, the standard of “diversity, equity, and access” within the CAS (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education) General Standards requires that “programs and services must create and maintain educational and work environments that are: (1) welcoming, accessible, and inclusive to persons of diverse backgrounds; (2) equitable and non-discriminatory; and (3) free from harassment.” (p. 12). Elaborating on this point, the standard requires that programs and services modify or remove policies, practices, facilities, structures, systems, and technologies that limit access, discriminate, or produce inequities, and include diversity, equity, and access initiatives within their strategic plans. Further, although these guidelines apply to any SA professional at any higher education institution, it is unclear how exactly these professional messages connect to individual and institutional efforts toward social justice.

Along with professional standards, SA scholars within these professional organizations have theorized and employed strategies around engaging diverse student populations on campus and many have written guiding literature on achieving social justice outcome via SA professionals (e.g., Arminio, Torres, & Pope, 2012; Harper, 2008; McEwen & Roper, 1994; Manning & Coleman-Boatwright, 1991; Museus & Jayakumar, 2012; Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2014). This literature includes books as well as both scholarly and magazine articles that focus largely on the personal antecedents to social justice such as multicultural competence (Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2014), social justice ally identity development (Reason et al., 2005), and critical consciousness (Landreman, et al., 2007). Alternatively, the literature also tends to concentrate on environmental variables that prevent or promote progress toward social justice such as campus climate (Mayhew, Grunwald, & Dey, 2006), the nature of work environments (Kezar, 2011), and leadership (Kezar & Lester, 2011; Kezar et al., 2008). While

this literature has provided guidance for SA professionals, few theories have been applied to and/or supported by empirical studies. Those that have included real-life examples mainly focus on SA professionals in positions specifically related to diversity and social justice work (e.g., diversity officers or multicultural offices; Leon, 2014), or utilize specific case studies or anecdotes. Very few studies have examined the broader field of SA professionals (Mayhew, Grunwald, & Dey, 2006) leaving a lack of understanding regarding how these personal and environmental antecedents affect social justice choices for SA professionals.

The present study aims to address this lack of understanding. In order to better articulate what is known, as well as unknown, about the predictors of social justice choices for SA professionals, I will organize the broader person and environment variables into two primary conceptual frameworks: multicultural competence for doing social justice (Iverson, 2012; Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2004) and campus climate frameworks (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1998; Milem, Dey, & White, 2004). This next section will provide an overview of those frameworks and existing literature and introduce a third framework to unify the person and environment pieces.

Frameworks for Understanding Social Justice-Related Choices and Development for Student Affairs Professionals

The purpose of this section is to cover frameworks useful in understanding the personal and environmental influences on SA professionals' engagement in social justice work. Although few of these frameworks were designed specifically with SA professionals in mind, they all relate to the work of these professionals and their choices to engage in social justice. This section begins with a multicultural competence framework originally presented by Pope, Reynolds, and Mueller (2004) for SA professionals and advanced by Iverson (2012) to understand the personal

antecedents to setting goals and taking action toward social justice. Second, I outline Hurtado and colleagues' (1998) framework for understanding campus climate to conceptualize the higher education environment in which SA professionals operate. Finally, I outline Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) as a theoretical framework for conceptualizing SA professionals' career-related choice behavior (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Integral to this final framework, I introduce the use of self-efficacy as a social cognitive variable that captures a person's assessment of both personal and environmental factors that influence choices.

Student Affairs Multicultural Competence

Although social justice movements are often thought of on a macro-level, every major social movement toward justice has required individual choices to mobilize for change (Wright, Taylor, & Moghaddam, 1990). What motivates individuals to participate in social justice has long been the focus of several areas of research. Scholars generally agree that multicultural competence is fundamental to a SA professional's ability to ethically and effectively engage in social justice work (Iverson, 2012; Pope, et al., 2004; Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992). Adapted from the field of counseling psychology, Pope and colleagues (2004) applied the concept of *multicultural competence* (i.e., the awareness, knowledge, and skills needed to work with people of backgrounds different from one's self; Pedersen, 1988; Sue, et al., 1982) to SA professionals. Multicultural competence is considered fundamental in addressing increasingly heterogeneous demographic populations (Iverson, 2012). Specific to this study, multicultural competence represents the critical foundation necessary to be prepared to effectively engage in social justice actions.

Recently, the multicultural competence literature has undergone critique and scholars have suggested ways to advance multicultural competence for individuals in order to better

address systemic and institutional inequalities toward social justice (Arminio, et al., 2012; Gorski, 2009; Grant & Agosto, 2008; Iverson, 2012; Kumagai & Lypson, 2009; Tanaka, 2002; Tanaka, 2007; Watt, 2007). The dominant critique is that multicultural competence falls short of achieving a safe and supportive campus environment when not situated within a critical framework. In essence, while multicultural competence is a fundamental component, it is not synonymous with social justice. Thus, without a critical framework, multicultural competence encourages empathy and understanding of diverse student issues but does not fully equip practitioners to challenge the status quo (Iverson, 2012). Although Pope and colleagues (2004) do include the ability to advocate for change as a part of multicultural competence, scholars feel that the framework does not do enough to place social change at the forefront of competence, and in so doing, it allows for the perpetuation of inequities and maintenance of the status quo. To advance these critiques, Iverson (2012) expanded the theory to move beyond dominant conceptualizations of competence to better “develop equity-minded and privilege-cognizant practitioners who have the capacity to extend their awareness into action and advocate for social justice” (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005, p.63). The following paragraphs briefly describe multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills as originally described by Pope and colleagues (2004) and advanced by Iverson (2012) and others toward social justice.

Multicultural knowledge encompasses knowledge of diverse others and groups, within group differences, and the intersection of multiple identities (Pope et al., 2004), as well as the understanding of power relations and how power functions to structure identities, stereotypes, and agency (Iverson, 2012). Currently, most frameworks that describe multicultural knowledge focus on celebrating cultural differences and understanding various identities (e.g., gender, race, sexual orientation, religion, nationality, ability, age). Although Pope et al. (2004) recognize

knowledge of institutional oppression and power as important to multicultural competence, Iverson argued that without a critical framework, the emphasis on understanding diversity such as race rather than on systems of privilege and oppression (e.g., racism and dominant white culture) has allowed SA professionals to remain comfortable celebrating diversity rather than addressing social inequities. Iverson posits that SA professionals must place a greater emphasis on understandings of organizations and systems of privilege, power, and oppression in order to address the circumstances these systems create for all students, and especially the challenges they create for students who are historically underrepresented on campus. Intimately linked to multicultural knowledge is the development of multicultural awareness.

Multicultural awareness includes both an awareness of self and others (Pope et al., 2004) and a critical consciousness to engage in self-reflexive work (Iverson, 2012; Landreman et al., 2007). Pope and Mueller (2011) assert that awareness consists of “attitudes, values, beliefs, and assumptions that shape our understanding of individuals who are culturally different from us” (p. 338). Self-awareness involves an understanding of one’s own value and belief system as being influenced by multiple identities and experiences. Further, it is inclusive of the ability to be conscious of attitudes, values, beliefs, and assumptions in order to realize “inaccurate or inappropriate” views such as biases and stereotypes and their potential impacts (Pope et al., 2004). Iverson (2012) adds that to move beyond a consciousness of our own biases/assumptions and the impact they can have, SA professionals must develop a critical consciousness that involves “self-reflexive work through which individuals (might) unpack their identities, reveal their blind spots, and interrogate the given-ness of what they know” (p.69).

The development of a critical consciousness within multicultural awareness requires researchers to conceptualize differences in how multicultural competence is put into action.

Paolo Friere (1970) described “conscientizacao” or critical consciousness as an awareness of four things: (1) the historical, political, and social implications of a situation; (2) one’s position within that situation; (3) the intersectionality of one’s multiple identities; and (4) the tensions between a desired social justice outcome and the current conditions of the status quo. Scholars use the Frierian idea of critical consciousness to consider how SA professionals and other higher education practitioners (e.g., faculty, administrators) put knowledge and skills into practice. Iverson (2012) borrows from Bensimon’s (2005) cognitive frames as a way of understanding how practitioners approach addressing diversity on campus, arguing that deficit- and diversity-minded cognitive frames prevent practitioners from situating student issues and challenges within the structural inequities of the institution. Instead, equity-minded practitioners are better positioned to address long-term change at the institution due to a better understanding of inequitable structures that need to be addressed. For the purpose of this study, equity-minded frames and practices are synonymous with social justice frames and practices.

Developing a critical consciousness is a process that is inextricably linked to cognitive development or meaning-making capacities for understanding and navigating social power dynamics (Landreman et al., 2007). An individual’s cognitive development influences how new knowledge can be converted into awareness, and how this awareness and knowledge is translated into skills and practice (Baxter Magolda & King, 2005). Related to the learning process, cognitive development occurs as individual assumptions and existing knowledge are challenged thereby causing cognitive dissonance. It is through increased cognitive development that individuals may be able to understand their multicultural awareness as contextual and apply a critical consciousness when engaging with social justice.

Multicultural skills allow individuals to put knowledge into practice. The multicultural skills to apply knowledge and awareness into practice include communication skills and skills to move the organization toward more “inclusive theories, practices and systems” (Pope et al., 2004). Communication skills include verbal and nonverbal abilities to communicate effectively across difference, discuss differences and issues, and empathize with others. It also includes individual level intervention skills (e.g., helping, advising). Iverson argued that existing frameworks do little to elaborate on what skills are needed to move the organization forward and thus expanded on what it means to have the ability to challenge oppressive systems. She conceptualized this as “the capacity to confront systemic factors and operate as a change agent at organizational levels” (p. 71). These skills include advocacy, policy-making, negotiating, solidarity building, and organizing (Evans, Assadi, & Herriott, 2005; Reason, et al., 2005 as cited in Iverson, 2012).

Related research findings. Unfortunately, although several books, book chapters, and articles outline aspects of multicultural competence and highlight its importance for SA professionals, relatively few studies have explored multicultural competence for SA professionals (Pope, Mueller, & Reynolds, 2009). Of those studies that have been conducted, most are correlational, demonstrating how personal characteristics and backgrounds and learning experiences relate to perceived multicultural competence. For example, in a study that explored how SA graduate students, staff, and diversity leaders rated their multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills, people of color tended to rate themselves higher than their white peers (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). Additionally, graduate students of color in the same study rated themselves higher than white staff. In a study that sought to understand how SA professionals develop a critical consciousness, both demographic backgrounds (race, gender,

sexual orientation, and class) and how those identities situated them in “awareness raising” personal experiences (e.g. traveling or moving to other countries, being immersed in other cultures, developing relationships with diverse others) influenced early development of interest in social issues and a later commitment to social justice (Landreman et al., 2007).

Individual-level challenges to enacting social justice on campus. What is not captured by multicultural competence is how individuals who have opportunities to develop multicultural competence manage other competing priorities. For example, while someone may have the opportunity to develop knowledge about privilege and oppression, he/she may be resistant to doing so given that it then requires the acknowledgement of that privilege or the active ignoring of it in his/her daily lives. Some individuals may not want to accept privilege in an effort to maintain satisfaction with the privileges they benefit from in society. In addition, SA professionals like Anna, the Director of IT at Yankee State University from Chapter One, may find it difficult to see the negative consequences if they do not work to develop their multicultural competence. Indeed, many SA professionals have limited interaction with students and are not explicitly charged with developing students.

Nonetheless, the multicultural competence framework is useful for this study as it conceptualizes the critical awareness, knowledge, and skills that SA professionals need individually as well as collectively to be prepared for social justice. However, what this framework does not help us understand is the relationship between multicultural competence and the environment in which SA professionals work. More specifically, it does not help us understand how multicultural competence relates to social justice goals or what predicts when and why SA professionals choose to put their multicultural competence into social justice action. The next section will do

more to develop what is specifically meant by the “environment” in which SA professionals work.

Framework for Understanding Campus Climate

Given that achieving social justice requires countering hegemonic practices, most social justice efforts begin small with individual actions that build momentum and eventually result in collective action to resolve a social injustice. However, going against the normative culture is often met with resistance, so individuals and groups weigh the costs with the benefits of each choice to take action on an issue (Bensimon, 2007). Understanding what influences SA professionals’ choices to engage in social justice on campus is the focal point for this study. Although the above processes apply to SA professionals on an individual level, their work environment likely influences their understandings of the potential “costs” and “benefits” associated with challenging norms.

The Framework for Understanding Campus Climate (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1998; Milem, Dey, & White, 2004) describes forces both external and internal to the institution that shape the campus climate. This framework was developed out of a need for a common framework to develop policies and practices to enhance campus climate and ultimately support all students’ learning, with special attention to students from underrepresented groups. Although it was designed to primarily address campus racial climate for students, the framework applies to campus constituents across identities, roles, and experiences. Specific to this study, it provides a framework for considering the forces that shape the higher education environment in which SA professionals work and engage with social justice.

External forces as described by this framework can include anything outside of the institution that affects individuals or campus policy, and stimulates discussion or activities

occurring on campus (Chang, Milem, & Antonio, 2011). These external forces can include state and federal governmental policies, programs, and initiatives such as affirmative action policies and access- and equity-related court decisions, as well as broader sociohistorical events or issues occurring in society. Of particular interest to this study are the professional organizations external to the institution that guide and influence SA professionals in their roles on campus. As previously mentioned, SA professional organizations such as NASPA and ACPA have shared guidelines regarding social justice beliefs and practices and continue to find several ways to convey the benefits of social justice for SA professionals. These organizations have the potential to influence SA professionals' beliefs of social justice, regardless of whether or not these beliefs align with those of the institution.

Internal institutional forces include five dimensions: historical legacy of inclusion or exclusion, compositional diversity, psychological climate, behavioral climate, and organizational/structural diversity. While each dimension can be defined and examined separately, they are not discrete but rather connected, impacting one another. This study will focus less on each dimension separately, and more on the overall institutional environment for social justice created by these forces. For example, if an institution has a history of opening their doors to underrepresented populations of students prior to legally being required to do so, a SA professional may perceive the institutional environment as one that would be both open to educational opportunities for populations that are underserved on campus, as well as eager to bridge the gap. Similarly, if an institutional environment is highly bureaucratic, a SA professional may be more apprehensive about approaching upper level administrators to voice a concern or challenge policies on behalf of a student.

Related research findings. Today, most efforts to study and understand campus climate focus on students' perceptions and experiences and their influence on student outcomes (e.g., Greene & Kamimura, 2003; Harper & Hurtado, 2007; Whitt et al., 2001). Only a few studies have sought to understand SA professionals' perceptions of "campus climate" and make inferences regarding the impact of perceptions on SA practice (Mayhew et al., 2006; Paulson, 2014), but plenty of other studies have explored the influence of the institutional and organizational environment on engagement in campus climate and organizational change efforts (e.g. Kezar, 2011, Rankin & Reason, 2008). For example, in a study of SA professionals at a large, public institution, 25% of professionals reported feeling low support to engage in social justice work, while 46% reported feeling some support, and 29% reported high levels of support (Paulson, 2014). In another study, women and people of color were more likely to perceive their campus climate as hostile or negative, and older professionals were more likely to perceive their campus climate as positive compared to younger staff (Mayhew et al., 2006). The overall findings from these studies suggest that SA professionals can have varying perceptions of the institutional environment even within the same institution (Paulson, 2014), that personal characteristics can influence SA professionals' perceptions of campus climate (Mayhew et al., 2006), and that collaborative work environments with like-minded colleagues can support efforts toward social justice and institutional change (Kezar et al., 2008; Kezar & Lester, 2011; Leon, 2014; Paulson, 2014).

Many studies have sought to understand aspects of the institutional environment that influence practitioners' engagement in organizational change efforts. Many of these studies have included SA professionals but do not always distinguish them as a separate entity. Rather, they often include SA professionals within administration or staff categories. Nonetheless, the

findings of these studies suggest aspects of the institutional environment that might promote or inhibit social justice work. For instance, in a study on chief diversity officers' strategies for maximizing the effects of their work, Leon (2014) found that collaborative approaches were more effective than other possible frameworks. Collaborative work environments also proved effective in a study on university presidents and their leadership strategies for diversity initiatives (Kezar et al., 2008). In Kezar and Lester's (2011) study on grassroots initiatives for campus change, collaborative environments and relationships with like-minded colleagues were crucial in providing effective engagement in social justice work for practitioners who were not in positions of power. Furthermore, in a study specifically focusing on social justice work for SA professionals, Paulson (2014) found that collaborative work environments, having like-minded colleagues, and understanding strategic processes and goals of the university led to higher perceptions of support to engage in social justice work. In essence, these studies support the idea that perceptions of the institutional environment, collaborative environments, and like-minded colleagues may be important predictors of SA professionals' social justice choices.

Environment-level challenges to enacting social justice on campus. While the environment can influence SA professionals in many ways, perhaps the greatest environmental challenge for SA professionals is the fact that they are employed by the institutions they are tasked to change. While social justice is reflected as a priority and value to the profession of Student Affairs, SA professionals occupy positions within hierarchical and bureaucratic organizational structures (Kezar, 2011). Because SA professionals are often expected to address inequities for students against policies and people at the institution that employs them, engagement in social justice work for SA professionals includes the added weight of potential career/employment consequences (Iverson, 2012; Kezar & Lester, 2011; Paulson, 2014). This

assertion is illustrated by Paulson's (2014) study on SA professionals in which 20% of respondents agreed that they had concerns about the negative repercussions of speaking or acting out against issues on campus. In that same study, almost seven percent of respondents agreed that they are met with resistance from colleagues to enact social justice work in their positions on campus.

As professionals weigh the costs of social justice actions with the benefits, they are also exhausted and challenged by competing priorities. Scholars and practitioners alike are frustrated by the lack of progress, tired of "buzzwords" like social justice, diversity, and campus climate, and discouraged by the seemingly endless work that is to be done (Arminio et al., 2012). Scholars suggest that part of the reason why higher education has been unable to adequately address the needs of their diverse population lies in the fact that frameworks guiding research and practice are oversimplified and do little to properly name the issues that they are trying to address (Bensimon, 2005; Harper, 2012; Iverson, 2012). While this is likely part of the problem, further complexities exist with respect to practitioners' prioritization of social justice action in their work and lives. That is, regardless of whether practitioners see the benefits of engaging in social justice action, they may also feel that other things such as their personal emotional health, having time for children and family, and finding ways to move up in their professional careers are also important priorities. When positioned against the slow and emotional work of acting toward social justice, it is likely that SA professionals often choose alternative priorities.

Although a campus climate framework helps to conceptualize different forces that comprise a broader work environment for SA professionals, it does not tell us much about the relationships between the external and internal forces (i.e., professional and institutional environments). For example, if a SA professional develops an interest in social justice and

participates actively in ACPA's social justice coalition but is faced with direct resistance on campus for the ways she is challenging institutional practices, we do not know how these two environments collectively influence her choices to engage in social justice action. What a campus climate framework does do is help conceptualize the potential influence of the professional and institutional environment. It also helps us consider how multiple aspects of the institutional environment, such as psychological and behavioral climates and historical legacies, might foster an environment in support of or in resistance to social justice action. This next section presents a framework that serves to unify the person and environment variables described above.

Social Cognitive Theory and Social Justice Self-Efficacy

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) is a theoretical framework grounded primarily in Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (1977) used to describe the social cognitive process that leads to individual career-related choices (Lent et al., 1994). Three interlocking models make up the conceptual framework of SCCT and outline the process of developing interests, making career-related choices, and predicting the performance of those choices. Of all the models, the choice model focuses most closely on the interplay among the central social cognitive variables guiding career development (i.e., self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals) while also acknowledging the interplay between those variables and other aspects of the individual, context, and learning experiences. Self-efficacy refers to one's perceived capability to successfully execute a course of action to attain a desired level of performance (Bandura, 1986). "Outcome expectations" refers to personal beliefs about the outcome or consequence of a given action such as receiving tangible rewards, income, praise, or disapproval (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002). Goals are the determination to engage in a particular activity or to affect a future outcome (Lent,

et al., 2002). All variables in the model play unique roles but the greatest amount of attention has been focused on self-efficacy as it has been shown to directly influence outcome expectations and goals, and is often the strongest predictor of choice behavior (Sheu et al., 2010). SCCT is a valuable framework in the study of career-related behaviors as its models have been empirically supported and are applicable across multiple fields and disciplines.

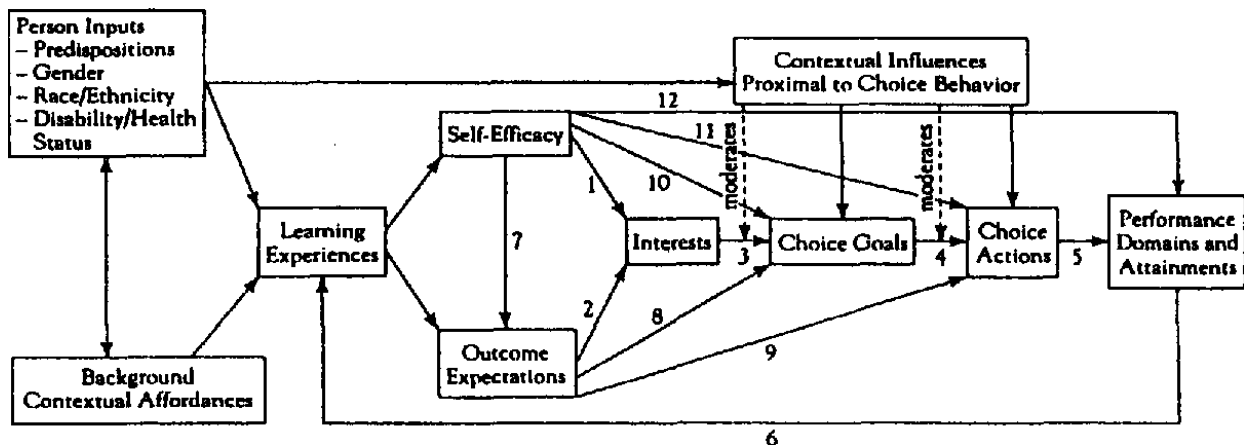


Figure 2.1. Social Cognitive Career Theory's Model of Career-Related Choice Behavior (Lent et al., 1994)

Perhaps the most explored and developed concept of SCCT is that of self-efficacy or “a person’s beliefs concerning his or her ability to successfully perform a given task or behavior” (Betz & Hackett, 1981; Lent, et al., 2002). In other words, self-efficacy is one’s response to the question, “Can I do this?” (Lent, et al., 2002, p.262). It is likely the most favored aspect of SCCT because it is also the most directly influenced by external contexts and has been shown to facilitate differences in outcome expectations along with the development of interests and personal goals. Additionally, because self-efficacy can be manipulated through personal performance accomplishments, vicarious learning, persuasion (such as encouragement or discouragement), or physiological or affective states (such as anxiety) (Bandura, 1993), researchers find it a useful way to assess intervention efforts and inform change.

Bandura (2006) argued that assessing self-efficacy is most accurately done within specific domains. SCCT's use of self-efficacy within career contexts has added to great understandings of how different kinds of self-efficacy influence specific choices. Of particular interest to this study are studies that have utilized SCCT and self-efficacy to understand professionals engaging in social justice-related work. The two main conceptualizations these studies have employed are that of multicultural self-efficacy for doing social justice and social justice self-efficacy; these studies have primarily involved teachers and counselors.

Related research findings. SCCT has been used to explore multicultural and social justice work as it is conceptualized as a special instance of career-relevant behavior (Goddard & Goddard, 2001; Grant & Agosto, 2008; Guyton & Weshe, 2005; Miller et al., 2009; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011; Sheu, Rigali-Oiler, & Lent, 2012). Most of this work exists within the disciplines of counseling and teacher education and focuses on the role of *multicultural self-efficacy* (i.e., one's perceived capability to perform specific actions when working with others from diverse backgrounds; Guyton & Weshe, 2005; Sheu et al., 2012) or *social justice self-efficacy* (i.e., one's perceived capability to perform specific social justice actions; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011) as it mediates outcome expectations, interests, and goals toward social justice. Although teachers and counselors have many similarities to SA professionals, no known studies have applied the SCCT framework to SA professionals in particular. Only one known study has applied social justice self-efficacy to a group of college students (Miller et al., 2009). While many of these studies have applied concepts from the SCCT model, only a few have been used to predict social justice interests and goals (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011; Sheu et al., 2012). No known studies have explored predictors of actual social justice actions or performance.

The overall findings of these studies support the predictive model of SCCT for social justice career domains. Primarily, they support the idea that professional environments may indirectly influence social justice choices through their influence on an individual's social justice or multicultural self-efficacy. For example, in a study that examined counseling psychology Ph.D. students and their social justice interest and commitment (i.e., goals), perceptions of training environment barriers and supports were found to influence social justice interest and commitment only through their effects on social justice self-efficacy (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Another study of 209 graduate students enrolled in counseling-related graduate programs, found perceptions of the multicultural environment within their graduate program to be predictive of interests in multicultural counseling through their ratings of multicultural counseling self-efficacy (Sheu et al., 2012). Additionally, in a study on the influence of social justice social supports on college students' social justice self-efficacy, Miller et al. (2009), found that social supports not only directly influenced social justice self-efficacy, but also had a direct influence on social justice outcome expectations. Both social justice self-efficacy and social justice outcome expectations were predictive of social justice interests; however, only social justice self-efficacy had a direct impact on social justice commitment.

Overall, these studies support the use of SCCT in social justice career domains. However, the number of studies is limited and none address this process for SA professionals. Additionally, the different findings related to the influence of the environment suggest that more work is needed to understand how the environments related to social justice influence social justice goals and actions. Finally, because no known studies have applied this framework to predict social justice actions, this study will contribute to understandings of the use of SCCT to predict SA social justice choices.

Summary of Literature and Frameworks

These studies, as whole, help us understand that effective engagement in social justice work for SA professionals requires the acquisition of personal skills and attributes to engage with diverse others as well as the ability to address issues at the institution. Clearly, SA professionals must weigh a number of factors when making the choice to engage in social justice work. However, although literature describing the multiple individual and environmental factors toward engagement in social justice work does exist, no theoretical framework has comprehensively outlined how person and environment variables influence one another and *collectively* explain SA professionals' choices to engage in social justice work.

Further, while much of the SA and social justice literature conceptualizes social justice as a necessity to improve campus climate, this literature fails to address the fact that, regardless of how much institutions may support social justice efforts, individuals still ultimately make choices about how they incorporate or balance social justice within their work and/or careers, if at all. Because engagement in social justice work is just that— a choice— scholars and administrators seeking to foster a community of SA professionals to address social justice issues would benefit from studies utilizing frameworks that can provide more nuanced understandings of the multiple factors that influence the development of social justice-related interests, goals, and actions. In order to address these existing gaps in the literature, this study proposes an adapted social cognitive model of social justice-related behavior for SA professionals.

Conceptual Model for Social Justice-Related Career Behavior

Based on this review of the literature, a model is proposed a priori to examine the relationships among the predictors of social justice choices for SA professionals. This study will adapt the SCCT Choice Model to a model of social justice-related career behavior for SA

professionals (See Figure 2). The model maps out the multiple variables described above that influence when and why SA professionals choose to engage in social justice work. SCCT and the proposed model are appropriate for this study as they situate social justice action for SA professionals as a choice process (Lent et al., 1994). Moreover, understanding the process as a choice acknowledges the individual's agency in pursuing social justice issues while also considering the multiple ecological factors that contribute to that choice (Lent et al., 1994). Conceptualizing engagement in social justice within the framework of career-related choices provides a more astute assessment of the elements that determine social justice particularly for SA professionals.

Grounded in SCCT, the proposed model for this study unifies and advances existing literature by capturing the dynamic relationship between individuals and their environments as they make social justice choices. By doing so, the model serves three main functions. First, it describes the social cognitive process that leads to small- and large-scale choices such as goals and actions toward social justice. These choices could include things like electing to speak out against a popular campus initiative because it silences the voices of a marginalized campus population or choosing to spend extra time coordinating an event to support the victims of a recent bias or hate incident on campus. Second, the model demonstrates a feedback loop to explain how each choice to engage in social justice work becomes a learning experience that combines with other learning experiences to collectively influence an individual's multicultural self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Finally, the model describes how a series of individual choices can develop and improve one's performance (i.e., effectiveness) when engaging in social justice work over time. Using SCCT, one can envision how a series of these choices could comprise a career that may or may not be defined by or recognized as social justice work (Lent et

al., 1994). Ultimately, SCCT and the model of social justice-related career behavior can be used to describe isolated instances of engagement in social justice work, social justice professional development, and the process of developing a career path related to social justice. This study will focus on the first main function of the model: the social cognitive process leading to choices.

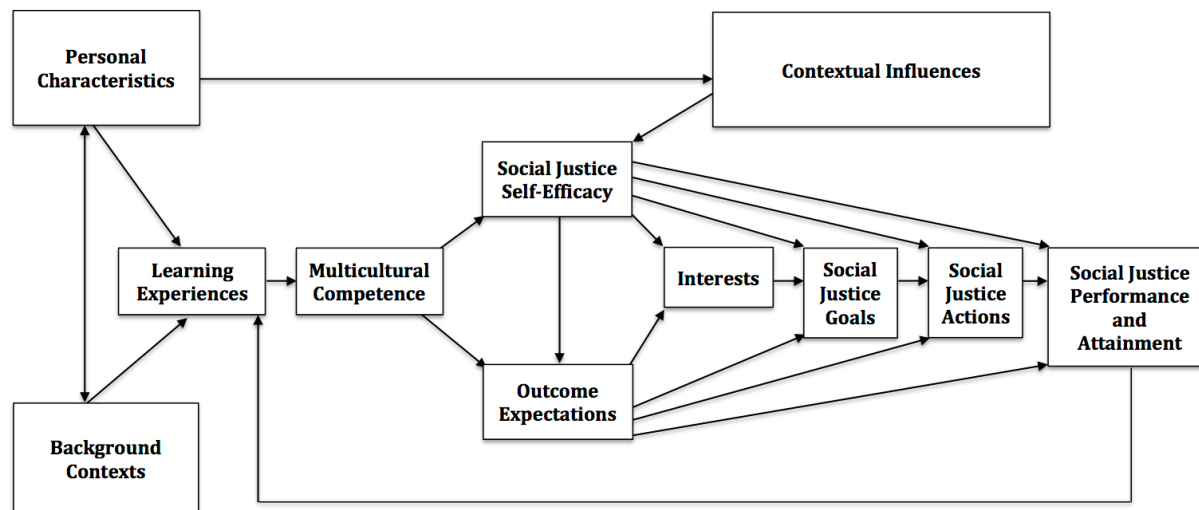


Figure 2.2. Model of Social Justice-Related Career Behavior

The choice process begins with one's *personal characteristics* and *background contexts* that lead to a structure of opportunities for learning experiences early on (Lent et al., 1994; Martinez, 2012; Ortiz & Patton, 2012). The *learning experiences* described by SCCT occur across one's lifespan and can include formal and informal experiences that occurred prior to college, as an undergraduate or graduate student, and as an employee. These might include opportunities to interact with individuals of diverse backgrounds (Chang, 1996) and classes/trainings with content related to diverse people issues and skills related to engaging a diverse environment (e.g., Hurtado, 2003; McEwen & Roper, 1994; Tanaka, 2003).

In SCCT, learning experiences lead to one's self-efficacy and expected outcomes (Sheu et al., 2012); however, in the adapted model I am situating *multicultural competence* (Sue et al.,

1982; Pope & Mueller, 2011) as an important pre-cursor to self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Although multicultural competence is important, theories on SA professionals and social justice benefit from the addition of *social justice self-efficacy* as an important social cognitive variable representing one's perceived capability to put multicultural competence into practice.

Multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy influence one's *outcome expectations* (i.e., anticipated results of an intended choice). If the expected outcomes are desirable, it is more likely that one would develop *interests* around pursuing an intended action (Lent et al., 1994). The *contextual influences* represent the broader personal and environmental contexts such as the dynamics created by gender and race, as well as institutional values of social justice and diversity, professional politics, and shared commitment to engaging in social justice work (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1998; Kezar, 2012; Pope & LePeau, 2012). Particularly important to this study are the professional and institutional environments for social justice that influence choice behavior.

Social justice choices include *social justice goals* and *social justice actions*. Social justice goals represent an individual's intent to pursue a given action such as advancing one's own multicultural competence and developing better interpersonal and intergroup relationships with others. *Social justice actions* are choices to engage in social justice-related work and could include behaviors ranging from enrolling in a social justice training to advocating for a student, engaging in difficult dialogues with colleagues and students, working to change policies, etcetera (Watt, 2007). *Social justice performance and attainment* describes the result of the action (Lent et al, 1994), namely, how effective the individual was at the social justice action (e.g., if the action resulted in changes in understanding or behavior). Although this study does not

investigate social justice performance and attainment, successful or unsuccessful results of social justice actions become learning experiences that contribute to multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy in the future. This study will apply this conceptual model in order to better explore the relationships between individuals and their environments as they make social justice choices. Applying this framework to SA professionals will provide a more nuanced understanding of how a career-related context influences social justice.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an overview of social justice and its applications to higher education and student affairs. The modern day association with the term social justice commonly revolves around the civil rights movements of the 1960s. Noteworthy to this study was the *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling, which required educational institutions, including those of the higher education system, to provide access and support to postsecondary opportunities for historically un- or under-represented populations such as women and people of color. In an effort to address the changing campus populations, higher education practitioners, including faculty and staff, were now required to possess the skills and abilities to effectively engage with students from diverse backgrounds. These skills and abilities were even more important in light of findings suggesting that diverse campus populations are only developmentally impactful when they have the appropriate scaffolding to empower students through their educational journeys, encourage cross-cultural relationship development, and support intergroup conflict and cognitive development through dissonance (Chang, 2002). These skills and abilities require critical consciousness in order to move faculty and staff from the roles of institutional agents to those of change agents.

Student affairs professionals have a unique role in social justice. They engage with students in meaningful ways and are tasked with their development outside of the classroom. While scholars frequently describe the need for SA professionals to engage in social justice, these same scholars have done little to understand the personal and environmental influences of individual choices to partake in social justice-related behaviors. To address this gap, this chapter included a focus on three main frameworks that provide an understanding of personal and environmental elements and how they might be combined into a career choice framework to better understand their interacting relationships.

The chapter ended with the proposal of an adapted social cognitive model of social justice-related behavior to be used for this study and potentially future studies on SA professionals. The proposed model contributes to theoretical understandings of the multiple person and environment relationships that lead SA professionals to engage in social justice work on campus. By testing this model, my study will also contribute to empirical understandings of SA professionals and their choices. Understanding this process will help institutions that are aiming to improve social justice outcomes on campus. In the next chapter I will describe in more detail the methodological processes I will employ to implement this conceptual model as I investigate SA professionals' social justice choices.

Chapter Three: Methodology

The primary objective of this study was to empirically examine the influence of the institutional and professional environment on SA professionals' social justice choices. The secondary objective of this study was to explore the application of a social cognitive framework that better emphasizes the role of the environment and social justice self-efficacy as determinants of social justice choices. In order to achieve these objectives, this mixed method sequential study (Creswell, 2009) addressed the research questions through two main approaches. First, content analysis (Weber, 1990) was used to understand the environment created around social justice for professionals by investigating SA professional and institutional social justice messages. Second, descriptive and comparative analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to explore the relationships between both person and environment variables proposed in the Model of Social Justice-related Choice Behavior as predictors of social justice choices. Specifically, this study examined two main research questions:

1. How do SA professional organizations' social justice messages align with social justice messages at the institutional level? What do these messages suggest collectively and differentially about the priority of social justice in Student Affairs?
 - a. What messages do professional organizations convey through mission statements and SA practice-based and scholarly published work to SA professionals about social justice (i.e. what does it entail; what approaches should be taken to achieve it)?
 - b. What messages do institutions convey through mission statements and strategic planning documents to SA professionals about social justice (i.e. what does it entail; what approaches should be taken to achieve it)?

2. How can a social cognitive model help us understand the role of personal backgrounds (i.e. personal characteristics, background contexts), multicultural competence, institutional environments, and social justice self-efficacy in predicting social justice choices (i.e. social justice goals and actions) for SA professionals?
 - a. How do personal backgrounds influence social justice choices?
 - b. How does multicultural competence influence social justice choices?
 - c. How does the institutional environment influence social justice choices?
 - d. How does social justice self-efficacy influence social justice choices?

In the next section I will outline part one of this study—the content analysis—providing an overview of the context, data source and sample, analytical approach, and limitations for research question one. Thereafter, I will provide an overview of part two including the hypotheses and rationales for the second research question as well as the data source and sample, analytical approaches, and limitations. The chapter will end with an overview of the study.

Part I: Research Question One

The first research question utilized content analysis (Weber, 1990) to investigate SA professional and institutional social justice messages in order to better understand the higher education environment for social justice in which SA professionals work. While the study overall sought to unify separate frameworks, this question sought first to better understand the status of social justice in the broader higher education environment for SA professionals. This study conceptualized the higher education environment for SA professionals as comprised of two main areas: the SA professional environment (i.e. professional organizations), and the institutional environment (i.e. the institutions where SA professionals work). Messages that organizations and institutions send to people are powerful representations of values and understandings. Analyzing

a sample of these messages to understand how, if at all, social justice ideas are being shared can contribute to understandings of the environment for social justice in which SA professionals work.

Content analysis is a research technique that makes “replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter)” regarding the “contexts of their use” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 18). A quality content analysis, then, must have a clearly defined context of interest and reliable procedures that can produce valid results. The next section will outline the context for the study, followed by an explanation of the data source and sample and analytic approach.

Context

The context of interest for this study was the higher education environment in which student affairs professionals work. The purpose of the first research question was to focus on this context, which was comprised of two sub contexts: the professional and the institutional environment. For this part of the study, the professional environment referred to professional organizations—primarily student affairs organizations—that conveyed messages of shared understandings and values. The institutional environment referred to the specific institution where SA professionals work and the messages that were conveyed there of shared understandings and values.

Although the professional and institutional environment may have been related, it could not be assumed that one was embedded within the other. Rather, institutions may have aligned themselves with professional organizations to different degrees. And within each institution, individual SA professionals would have varying degrees of involvement and alignment with professional organizations, as well. Nonetheless, both professional organizations and institutions had the potential to convey messages to SA professionals regarding social justice. The primary

goal of this part of the research study, then, was to identify what the social justice messages were and if there were patterns in where they occurred between and within the professional and institutional environments. Now that I have clarified the context, I will explain the data source and sample and the analytical approach.

Data Source and Sample

In content analysis it is important that the content selected for the study be representative of the context. This study utilized articles and mission statements published by student affairs professional organizations and institutions within the United States as the source of content for the study. The student affairs professional organizations that were the focus of the content analysis included The American College Personnel Association (ACPA) and The Organization for Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (NASPA). Articles from the past five years of SA practice-based magazines and scholarly journals (i.e., *Journal of College Student Development*, *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, and *About Campus*) and mission statements were the primary units of analysis for the professional environment. Although there are various other organizations serving specific areas of student affairs, NASPA and ACPA have the broadest reach across departments and functional areas in student affairs. Together the organizations serve over 15,000 members across over 2000 institutions. Additionally, these journals, compared to other higher education journals, are the most geared toward and read by student affairs professionals across functional areas.

Documents collected from 40 selected institutions (e.g. mission statements, strategic goals, training documents, webpage materials) were included to represent the institutional environment. The population of institutions from which the sample was chosen included all 4-year, not-for-profit, medium-large sized public and private institutions in the United States

whose student bodies are majority undergraduate and primarily-highly residential. Out of the 427 institutions that met the above criteria (Carnegie Foundation, 2014), 40 were chosen for the content analysis using maximum variation sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Maximum variation is a purposive sampling procedure in which the sample is chosen to represent the widest possible range of characteristics of interest for the study.

The characteristics of institutions relevant to this study included type (i.e. Research granting, bachelors/masters granting), control (i.e. public or private), size (i.e. medium or large), religious affiliation (i.e. religious or non-religious), and regional location within the United States (Rentfrow, et al., 2013). Although small institutions also contribute to a different kind of environment for doing social justice, they were not included in this study. Instead, I chose to focus on medium and large institutions to improve the chances that institutional messages (and later, in Part II, perceptions of the institutional environment) were informed by multiple possible contexts, rather than the perspectives of only a few influential individuals.

For this study, regional location was determined by the findings of Rentfrow and colleagues (2013), suggesting that certain states in the United States tend to share psychological profiles with other nearby states. Utilizing five independent samples totaling more than 1.5 million people, Rentfrow et al. (2013) found that states in three general regions of the United States tended to share personality traits with one another that were then associated with patterns of key political, economic, social, and health indicators. The conceptual framework of personality traits used for their study categorized five widely accepted and empirically supported personality domains often referred to as the “Big Five” (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1992). The five personality domains include levels of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness. Rentfrow and colleagues applied measures of

personality domains to populations from each state and to explore the relationships between personality traits and economic (i.e. state wealth, human capital, innovations), health (i.e. well-being, health behavior), ideological (i.e. political conservatism, religiosity), and sociological indicators (i.e. social capital, social tolerance, violent crime, residential mobility). The results of their study suggested three regions in the United States that tend to share similar psychological profiles.

The first region was defined as “Friendly and Conventional” and included most of the Midwest and southeastern United States. The second region was defined as “Relaxed and Creative” and is most heavily concentrated in the western United States but also includes Virginia and North Carolina. The third region, labeled “Temperamental and Uninhibited” was most concentrated in the northeastern United States but also included Texas and Louisiana. While most states fit clearly into just one region, a few states—namely Colorado, Wyoming, Ohio, and Indiana—fit into more than one. All of the above variables potentially contribute to differences in the environments for social justice in which individuals work.

Using the Carnegie Foundation’s classification system, I selected institutions that fell into one of seven main groups. Originally, twelve institutional groups were determined based on the maximum possible combinations of institutions by size, control, type, and religious affiliation. For example, one institutional “group” included large, public, non-religious, Research institutions. Another group included medium, private, religious, bachelor’s/master’s institutions. Using these twelve possible groups, I then used the Carnegie Foundation’s (2014) institutional classification dataset to determine what possible institutions fit the required criteria. Within each criteria group I then further divided the institutions into the three regions and chose at least one institution from each subgroup. Institutions from states that could fall into more than one region

were not included in this part of the sampling. Ultimately, three of the twelve possible combination groups yielded fewer than two institutions from each region and thus were eliminated from the study, leaving seven main groups. The final sample is included in Appendix A. See the summary table below for institutional sample characteristics.

		N
Region	1 (Midwest, Southeastern U.S.)	12
	2 (West Coast, Virginia, North Carolina)	14
	3 (Northeastern U.S., Texas, Louisiana)	14
Type	Research	21
	Bachelors/Masters Granting	19
Size	Large	15
	Medium	25
Control	Public	17
	Private	23
Religious	Yes	13

Once initial data were gathered from each of the 40 institutions' webpages, additional efforts were made to gain access to documents that were not publicly available from all institutions (e.g. strategic plans). Emails were sent to diversity officers, deans, and other campus leaders who would likely have knowledge of and access to these documents. In line with the multiple variation sampling procedure, I wanted to ensure that at least one institution from each of the institutional areas provided sufficient information for the content analysis. Ensuring that there was sufficient information from each possible institutional type within the aforementioned categories was the focus of efforts for additional/unavailable information. When I was unable to obtain sufficient information from an institution through these efforts, I removed that institution from the study and replaced it with a different institution that met the minimum requirements.

Analytic Approach

Content analysis was deemed appropriate for this part of the study for multiple reasons but primarily because it is theory driven, it is unobtrusive and nonreactive, and can be used to efficiently analyze large quantities of qualitative data. The first advantage to using content analysis was that the process is driven by theory. Much of the literature that exists around SA professionals and social justice in higher education is theoretical, as opposed to empirical. In other words, much has been written about the phenomena of doing social justice in student affairs, with little done to study what social justice looks like in practice. These existing theoretical frameworks provided a foundation for critical inferences based on social justice messages in the professional and institutional environment.

Relatedly, another advantage to content analysis was its unobtrusive and nonreactive nature on the subjects being studied. Unlike other common research methods in higher education (e.g. surveys and interviews) content analysis allows researchers to make inferences based on existing content that was not created with the intent of being studied. Instead, the content of analysis, specifically for this study, was designed to be read and interpreted predominantly by practitioners and occasionally by students and other members of the campus community. Although messages can, themselves, be artificial representations of an ideal, content analysis was advantageous because messages represent consensus among members of a community in their association with social justice goals and efforts.

Lastly, the fact that content analysis can efficiently manage large quantities of qualitative data was valuable given that the goal of this study was to understand the broad, higher education environment in which student affairs professionals work. Content analysis allowed me to investigate social justice messages from a range of institutions across the United States without

many of the limitations that the often come with qualitative research (e.g., time, distance) It also allowed me to make more generalizable conclusions than other qualitative methods might have typically been able to offer.

Analytic Framework. I utilized Iverson's framework described in Chapter Two to analyze how professional and institutional messages indicate values of diversity inclusive of social justice (or not) and where these messages occur. Iverson's (2012) article, *Multicultural Competence for Doing Social Justice*, illustrated a range of ways that SA professionals engage with diversity and the potential effects on campus climate. She problematized diversity and multicultural competence messages that emphasize acceptance and understanding without also including the challenging of individual and structural norms. Without including social justice (i.e., the development and use of critical consciousness and action that disrupts and changes existing social inequities), she claimed individuals and institutions do little more than help students cope with existing circumstances and ultimately maintain the status quo within both higher education and society. Her critique was used to distinguish messages of deficit and diversity frameworks from messages of social justice. This next section will describe the procedures for applying the analytical framework to the content.

Procedures. Content analysis has two primary areas that must be satisfied in its analytical procedures: it must be replicable and valid. The researcher's decisions regarding content selections and coding procedures must be clear in order to achieve inter-rater reliability and reproducibility. Krippendorff (2004) recommends that although many content analysis frameworks demand only that findings be validatable in principle, there are several ways to strengthen the validity of a study. The following sections will address coding and interpretation procedures to ensure replicability and validity.

Coding. Coding of the documents occurred in four main stages across each of the two environments starting with the professional documents and then moving to the institutional documents. First, all documents were examined in their original state for overall messages of social justice. Second, documents that included messages social justice were coded via constant comparative analysis for content regarding what social justice is and what approaches should be taken to achieve it. Third, I utilized axial coding to refine the category scheme into relationships between coding categories and institutional and professional properties (Corbin & Strauss, 2007). In the final stage, selective coding, I developed core categories, propositions, and hypotheses. It is from this final stage that I was able to draw inferences regarding the relationships between professional and institutional social justice messages and the priority of social justice in student affairs. The following paragraphs will describe each of the four stages in more detail.

To prepare for the first stage of coding, all possible documents (1258) were converted into either PDF or captured as a webpage and uploaded to the NVIVO software program. I uploaded 609 documents from the professional organizations and 648 institutional documents. The first round of coding involved evaluating the documents for their inclusion of diversity and/or social justice content using criteria codes. The original criteria codes included the following words: social justice, diversity, campus climate, inclusive, and multicultural competencies. To determine the efficacy of the criteria codes, I utilized the query tool in NVivo to identify documents for coding. The first round of criteria codes identified 720 documents for analysis—365 professional organization documents and 355 institutional documents. After filtering the documents, I fully reviewed ten documents that had been flagged from the institutions and professional organizations (five from each). I also fully reviewed ten documents

from the institutions and professional organizations that were not flagged, to determine if the criteria codes were identifying passages that would help me begin to understand messages around social justice.

Through the initial review process, I realized that the criteria codes needed to be refined. First, after reviewing the 10 documents, I identified several instances where “diversity” was flagged but was not speaking to social justice initiatives according to my framework. In fact, the people who wrote the content that was flagged as “diversity” were utilizing the word accurately, to reflect efforts toward compositional diversity and to improve respect and understanding of others. I ran a query to identify that 633 documents were flagged using the word, “diversity,” alone. So I made the decision to exclude the word on the justification that in cases where “diversity” did flag messages of social justice, it would be accompanied by other words in my criteria codes.

Second, I also made the decision to delete the words “multicultural competencies” and “campus climate.” Similar to my justification for deleting “diversity” as a criteria code, the content around these words did not serve to identify messages around social justice when not accompanied by other social justice-related terms. For these reasons, I deleted these terms and added different words to the criteria codes that spoke more specifically to social justice frames.

Third, I added “privilege,” “equity,” “oppression,” and “social change” as criteria codes for the second round of criteria coding. The first three terms emerged in both the documents that were flagged and not flagged. “Social change” emerged in both flagged and not-flagged documents as well but was a specific phrasing that was used to describe efforts toward social justice and so was added as a phrase rather than as separate words.

The fourth revision I made to the criteria code was to adapt some of the phrases to target more specific ideas. More specifically, I made two adaptations to criteria codes to better identify social justice messages in the documents. First, I expanded the criteria code, “inclusive,” to “inclusive excellence” to reduce the number of times that “inclusive” was tagged but held a more general meaning. This revision provided more social justice-oriented results. Second, I adapted the phrase, “social justice,” to simply “justice.” This allowed statements to be flagged that abbreviated the phrase of “social justice” to justice.

The remaining challenge with the second set of criteria codes, was that for two words, “justice” and “privilege,” other uses of the terms continued to be flagged. Yet, I was unable to revise the codes without also losing their social justice-related uses. For example, someone would write, “It has been my privilege to work in this field.” I made the decision to keep both terms in the revised list of criteria codes so that I did not miss out on the social justice-oriented uses of the term. To resolve this issue, I decided that after using the new criteria codes to identify my final set of documents for the second stage of coding, I would create a unique code for alternative uses for the terms “privilege,” and “justice” and did not include them in the remainder of the analysis.

The second round of criteria codes identified 545 documents for review—310 professional organization documents and 235 institutional documents. From this pool I fully reviewed an additional ten documents—five institutional documents and five professional documents—that were flagged for review. I also fully reviewed another ten documents total from the institutions and professional organizations that were not flagged, to determine if the criteria code changes were adequately identifying passages related to social justice. Through this process, I determined that my criteria codes were effectively identifying messages for the second

stage of coding. Before beginning the second stage of coding, I went through and identified passages that were flagged for coding that were irrelevant to this study. Irrelevant uses of the criteria codes included their uses under different definitions, as described above, as well as criteria codes that were flagged but located in sections of research articles not reviewed for this study such as literature reviews or theoretical frameworks. After completing this stage I was left with 235 documents—126 professional documents and 119 institutional documents—to be included in the second stage of coding.

The second stage of coding involved developing the coding scheme around what social justice is and what approaches should be taken to achieve it. I began by coding the first 10% of professional documents and then coded the first 10% of the institutional documents. For the magazine and research articles, I only reviewed content if it was located in the title, abstract, discussion, or implications section of the paper as these were the areas where the authors were most likely to tie their research questions to broader social justice issues (Johnston, 2012). In line with Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña's (2013) instruction for textual and categorical analysis, I read each flagged statement and its surrounding context twice—first for comprehension, and second to apply codes. Although I began with a predetermined set of codes informed by the literature (e.g. diversity, deficit, and equity frames), I employed constant comparative analysis (CCA; Strauss & Corbin, 1994) to add new themes that emerged from the data (e.g. social justice goals). I repeated this process with each additional 10% of the institutional and professional documents until I reached a saturated coding scheme.

To ensure trustworthiness in the coding, I shared my scheme with a colleague who has expertise in the area of social justice in higher education. This external auditor reviewed my coding scheme and how I coded several documents. After this review we discussed any thoughts

or concerns about the coding scheme and made revisions to better clarify the differences between themes.

The final coding scheme included two primary groups of codes: (1) Messages describing what social justice is or what it means; and (2) Messages describing approaches to achieving social justice. I also coded passages that referred to social justice but did not provide enough context to code for a specific meaning or approach. These passages were coded as “vague social justice.”

The final two stages used NVivo for axial and selective coding to determine relationships between the codes, patterns in how codes differ between the professional and institutional environment and by institutional characteristics, as well (Patton, 2002). I ran coding matrices to determine the distribution of codes by each institution and then by all institutions combined compared to professional organizations. To determine patterns by institutional characteristics I ran a series of matrices in which I calculated the representation of institutional characteristics by the total possible number of institutions per coding category.

Selective coding provided support for hypothesized relationships between the category codes and the property codes (e.g. professional organization/institution, institution type, and region). It was from these last two stages of coding that I was able to understand relationships from which I could draw inferences regarding professional and institutional social justice messages and the collective or differential priority of social justice within student affairs.

Drawing Inferences. Inferences were drawn across the following areas: the extent to which documents included any social justice messages; dominant messages regarding what social justice is and approaches to achieve it; where messages tended to occur and where they did not; and what the findings suggested regarding the priority of social justice in student affairs

professional and institutional environments. In Chapter Four I will report the frequency of occurrence of social justice frameworks to infer the extent to which institutions were using social justice frames. In order to understand the dominant messages regarding what social justice is and approaches to achieving it, I will report major themes. Through the axial coding process described above I was able to explore where dominant messages tended to occur and where they did not. I will report patterns across institutional characteristics as well as where institutional characteristics tended to align with professional messages. The prominence of social justice, overall, and of particular themes will indicate its priority in higher education/student affairs. In order to improve the validity of inferences drawn from content analysis, I will provide supporting quotes as evidence of the findings.

Limitations

Although content analysis provided a look at documented messages sent to student affairs professionals, there are a few limitations to note. First, although content analysis speaks to the representation of values and beliefs, it does not necessarily correlate one-to-one with the actions of the institution. On the one hand, when social justice messages exist they do not guarantee that these messages are enacted at the institution. On the other hand, it cannot be said for certain that the absence of social justice messages means that social justice work is not occurring at the institution. Rather, content analysis tells us if members of the institution (likely upper level administrators) have found social justice important enough to convey it in the mission and strategic plans.

Second, the existence of messages represents a threshold of agreement with the ideas these messages espouse. This content analysis did not include other environments that may influence SA professionals' engagement in social justice. For example, any environments that

SA professionals engage with outside of the workplace such as religious or community organizations were not included in this analysis. It is possible that these external environments influence SA professionals, however, because the goal of the content analysis was to look more closely at these specific environments, this limitation does not compromise the conclusions drawn from the content.

Part II: Research Question Two

This section will provide the hypotheses, data source and sample, and analytical approach for research question two. The second research question will explore the relationships between variables through structural equation modeling using survey data collected from a national sample of SA professionals.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This section describes the last research question and sub-questions guiding the study as well as their accompanying hypotheses and rationales.

Research Question 2. How can a social cognitive model help us understand the role of personal backgrounds (i.e. personal characteristics and background contexts), multicultural competence, institutional environments, and social justice self-efficacy in predicting social justice choices (i.e. social justice goals and actions) for SA professionals?

Hypothesis 2ai. I hypothesize that personal backgrounds predict social justice choices indirectly through their influence on multicultural competence. Specifically, people who identify with socially subordinated groups will have more access to learning opportunities that develop multicultural competence. Multicultural competence then influences social justice self-efficacy and outcome expectations leading to social justice choices.

Rationale 2a.i. Studies have found that personal characteristics, particularly self-identification with socially subordinated groups, connect to learning experiences that lead to an interest and commitment to social justice (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003; Landreman et al., 2007; martinez, 2012, Ortiz & Patton, 2012). For example, in a study on the development of a critical consciousness in SA professionals, Landreman et al., (2007) found that personal characteristics and backgrounds contexts such as race, gender, sexual orientation, and social class created early and lifelong opportunities for learning experiences and the development of interest in social justice. These learning experiences and development of interests later led to a commitment to social justice.

Hypothesis 2a.ii. I hypothesize that personal backgrounds predict social justice choices through their influence on perceptions of institutional environments. In other words, people who identify with socially subordinated groups will be more likely to perceive their institutional environment as unsupportive of social justice than their peers of dominant identity groups. This may then have a negative influence on social justice self-efficacy ratings. Social justice self-efficacy then influences social justice goals and actions directly but also through outcome expectations.

Rationale 2a.ii. One study of SA professional demonstrated that personal characteristics can influence perceptions of the institutional environment (Mayhew, Grunwald, Dey, 2006). That study found that women and people of color were more likely to perceive their campus climate as negative compared to their colleagues who were male or white. That same study found that older professionals were more likely to perceive their campus climate as positive compared to younger staff.

Research Question 2b. How does multicultural competence influence social justice choices?

Hypothesis 2b. I hypothesize that multicultural competence predicts social justice choices indirectly through social justice self-efficacy and outcome expectations. In other words, people who have higher ratings of multicultural competence will have higher social justice self-efficacy ratings and expected outcomes when holding everything else constant.

Rationale 2b. Although no known studies exist demonstrating the explicit relationship between multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy, literature on multicultural competence suggests that greater competence leads to increased confidence to put that competence into practice (Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2014). In addition, the SCCT literature supports the relationship between learning experiences and self-efficacy (Lent et al., 1994). It seems reasonable, then, to predict that increased multicultural competence will also predict increased social justice self-efficacy.

Research Question 2c. How does the institutional environment influence social justice choices?

Hypothesis 2c. I hypothesize that the institutional environment influences social justice choices through social justice self-efficacy. In other words, perceptions that environments are unsupportive of social justice will influence social justice choices by lowering one's social justice self-efficacy.

Rationale 2c. Studies using SCCT (Lent, et al., 2004) to understand counseling psychologists' social justice commitment found that perceptions of environments directly influence self-efficacy ratings within social justice domains (Sheu, Rigali-Oiler, & Lent, 2012; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Although in a study on college students and social justice, Miller

and colleagues (2009) found a better model fit by having a direct effect from context to outcome expectations, other studies have continued to demonstrate the indirect influence of the environment on social justice outcomes through its effect on self-efficacy ratings.

Research Question 2d. How does social justice self-efficacy influence social justice choices?

Hypothesis 2d.i. I hypothesize that social justice self-efficacy influences social justice goals and actions directly but also indirectly through outcome expectations. In other words, people with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy will be more likely to set goals and take action toward social justice. Additionally, people with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy will be more likely to expect positive outcomes as a result of social justice actions and those outcome expectations will also positively influence the choice to set goals and take action toward social justice.

Rationale 2d.i. Although no known studies have tested the relationship between social justice self-efficacy and social justice choices for SA professionals, studies using SCCT (Lent, et al., 2004) on college students (Miller et al., 2009) and counseling graduate students (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011; Sheu, Rigali-Oiler, & Lent, 2012), found that multicultural and social justice self-efficacy influences social justice goals directly but also indirectly through outcome expectations.

Hypothesis 2d.ii. I hypothesize that social justice self-efficacy influences social justice actions directly but also indirectly through social justice goals. In other words, SA professionals with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy will be more likely to set social justice goals that will predict social justice action. Additionally, some SA professionals may have a high rating of social justice self-efficacy that does not predict social justice goals but will relate to

social justice action. I hypothesize that these individuals will also rate their institutional environment as highly supportive of social justice.

Rationale 2d.ii. No known studies have tested the predictive power of social justice self-efficacy on social justice actions. But SCCT, overall, supports the influence of goals on actions. Studies in other domains support commitment as a precursor to social justice work. Additionally, no known studies have investigated what predicts the direct relationship between social justice self-efficacy and actions. Given the influence that collaborative work environments could have on organizational change efforts (Kezar & Lester, 2011; Leon, 2014), it is possible that these perceptions might positively influence individuals to engage in social justice work, regardless of their personal goals toward these ends.

Data Source and Sample

The data for the second part of this study come from a national survey of student affairs professionals designed specifically for this study. The Student Affairs Social Issues Questionnaire captures four main areas: (1) Personal and professional background information; (2) Multicultural competence; (3) Perceptions of the institutional environment; and (4) Social justice self-efficacy, outcome expectations, interests, goals and actions. For the purposes of this study, multiple factors were created and tested. Some conceptual areas utilized existing or adapted measures while others were designed uniquely for this study. The following sub-sections describe the data collection process, variables of interest for the study, and the survey instrument and design process.

Data Recruitment and Collection. Recruitment for the survey focused on SA professionals from a subsample of the 40 institutions used in Part I. Twenty-five institutions were chosen for targeted recruitment of participants. The 25 institutions were chosen to be

equally representative of the 3 aforementioned geographical regions (at least 8 from each region), and all 25 participated in the CITI program for research ethics. I reached out to representatives—namely diversity officers and/or the most senior student affairs officer from each of the twenty-five institutions—via email, soliciting their interest in participating. While I was not able to offer incentives to individual SA professionals, I did offer to each institution the possibility of receiving a descriptive summary of their survey respondents, at the exchange of at least 50 SA professional participants. Descriptive statistics for the incentive included a collective measure of social justice efficacy and average perceptions of the institutional environment for social justice.

In the first round of recruitment I reached out to the original 25 schools via email. In the email I introduced the study and suggested setting up a time to discuss more details over the phone. I received a response and was able to connect with 13 of the 25 schools. Although many of the institutions were interested in participating, a few were unable to secure the permissions they needed in order to participate. The first round of recruitment lasted from June through August of 2015 yielding 10 institutions. In September, I invited the remaining 15 institutions to participate in the survey. In an effort to ensure that my survey sample continued to include the maximum variation of institutions, I targeted recruitment for institutions from region 3, adding a few additional institutions to the list from the original criteria matrix. Through this process I ultimately secured another 11 institutions and yielded 21 institutions total.

Table 3.2 Institution Survey Sample

		N
Region	1 (Midwest, Southeastern U.S.)	5
	2 (West Coast, Virginia, North Carolina)	10
	3 (Northeastern U.S., Texas, Louisiana)	6
Type	Research	8
	Bachelors/Masters Granting	13
Size	Large	9
	Medium	12
Control	Public	10
	Private	11
Religious	Yes	7

Data collection began on October 1, 2015 and continued on a rolling basis as the institutions secured the necessary permissions from their IRBs and SA divisions. Once the study was approved at their institution, I worked with the designated campus liaison to determine the most appropriate open and close date for their population. I used Campus Labs' survey program, Baseline, to conduct the survey. The survey link was sent out in an initial email via the campus liaison of each participating institution. The campus liaison sent one to two email reminders to their respective participants throughout the data collection period. The survey closed February 1 yielding 651 respondents, 446 of whom completed the survey 100%. See Appendix B for institution sample information. See Appendix C for respondent sample information.

Latent Constructs. This section will outline each proposed latent construct and the approaches to their design and content validity. Information regarding developing the variables used to represent the constructs will be described briefly in the section on survey design. See Appendix D for means and standard deviations of all survey variables organized by their latent constructs. The primary dependent or endogenous variables of interest for this study center on *social justice self-efficacy, goals, and actions*.

Social justice self-efficacy was adapted from an existing measure of social justice self-efficacy (Miller, et al., 2009). The choice to use this scale was appropriate for a few reasons. First, Miller and colleagues adapted their Social Issues Questionnaire (SIQ) from another SCCT-based instrument (Lent, et al., 2003) and the SIQ and its subscales (e.g. social justice self-efficacy, interests, and goals) have proven to be reliable and valid. Second, to adequately capture self-efficacy, Bandura suggests not only asking participants to rate their overall self-efficacy within a particular domain—in this case, social justice—but also asking participants to indicate their levels of domain-specific self-efficacy when in the face of obstacles or challenges. The SIQ measure of social justice self-efficacy includes items that ask about social justice activities with various levels of difficulty.

Items within the factor were adapted so that questions related specifically to SA professionals and their work domain. The Likert scale was also modified from a nine-point scale to a seven-point scale to align with other Likert scale items in the survey. The main question asked participants to rate their confidence in their ability to complete a number of activities. Examples of the kinds of activities included convincing others as to the importance of social justice, leading a group of coworkers in an effort to eliminate workplace discrimination, and confronting others that make inappropriate generalizations about members of marginalized groups.

Social justice goals was another latent construct from the SIQ that was used for this study. Participants were asked to rate their agreement on items such as: In the future I intend to engage in social justice activities; and I have a plan of action for ways I will remain or become involved in social justice activities over the next year. Social justice goals also served as both an exogenous and endogenous variable in that it was a potential mediator between all previous

variables and *social justice actions* but was also theoretical influenced by all previous variables, as well.

Social justice actions was the third latent outcome variable of interest for this study. No known existing measure captured social justice actions. This factor was initially modeled after the SIQ, as well. Survey questions paralleled the bank of items related to social justice self-efficacy. A group of social justice experts assisted in the content validity of the measure and contributed to the addition of an additional set of items related to intrapersonal social justice actions. More information about this process is provided in the next section on survey design and testing.

Exogenous variables of interest include personal characteristics and background contexts, multicultural competence, and perceptions of institutional support to engage in social justice. Personal characteristics include gender and race. Background contexts include childhood social class and level of education. Multicultural competence and institutional support to engage in social justice are both latent variable factors that will be described in more detail below.

Multicultural competence was a latent construct of interest as it was predicted to influence social justice self-efficacy. To capture multicultural competence this study utilized an existing measure designed by Pope and Mueller (2000) specifically for use on SA professionals. While not absent of critique (Iverson, 2012), this measure has undergone extensive testing and has proven to be a reliable and trustworthy measure of multicultural competence in student affairs (Pope & Mueller, 2000). The inventory of multicultural competence includes three main areas: multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills (see Chapter 2 for a more detailed overview of these conceptual areas). Although the measure was designed to examine both the factor, overall, and each area separately, this study only aimed to utilize the overall factor of

multicultural competence. This decision was appropriate given that current studies utilizing this measure, along with other measures of multicultural competence, have often found it difficult to empirically distinguish between ratings of multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills—with the greatest challenge in distinguishing between multicultural knowledge and awareness.

However, these studies have found the overall factor to be valid and reliable. Further, this decision was appropriate given that this study was primarily interested in the relationship of multicultural competence to social justice self-efficacy, rather than the concept, itself.

Institutional support for social justice was a latent construct designed using items from a previously designed factor (Paulson, 2014) with new items added to improve content validity. Questions included in this factor asked participants to rate their agreement regarding a number of statements about their work environment such as: My colleagues spend a lot of time finding ways to advocate for students; I can identify upper level administrators on campus who support and engage in social justice work; and I feel supported at this institution to engage in social justice work. This factor aimed to address perceptions of support to engage in social justice, ratings of collective efficacy for social justice, and beliefs about the institution's commitment to social justice.

Survey Design and Testing. The survey was designed uniquely for this study and went through multiple phases of design and pilot testing prior to implementation. The first phase involved item construction and testing of both existing measures and new measures to determine score reliability and validity. The second phase involved pilot testing the survey and conducting preliminary factor analysis of the latent construct variables (multicultural competence, social justice self-efficacy, social justice goals, social justice actions). After the first two phases were complete, any remaining changes were made based on the pilot test results.

Factor Design and Analysis. In order to ensure the validity of the survey items and factors, I tested the items with a group of my peers as well as a group of five social justice scholars. I examined the face validity of the factors with my peer group by presenting them with lists of variables that correspond to each factor. Each member of the group was then asked to independently provide names for each social construct the items appeared to measure. From there, I held individual discussions with each participant regarding each set of items and how each factor might be altered to improve face validity.

After the first round of validity testing, the expert group was asked to provide feedback on the content validity of the factors. Because the scholars were located across the United States, all feedback was requested via email. The scholars were provided with the names of each factor and their corresponding variables and were asked to consider if the individual variables represent all dimensions of the social construct being examined. For example, I provided the list of variables that comprised the “social justice actions” factor. I then asked the scholars to determine if the variables provided a comprehensive list of the kinds of social justice actions SA professionals would engage in. It was through this process that multiple experts recommended the addition of items that would capture the intrapersonal or self-work that is often done among social justice practitioners. As a result, I designed five additional survey questions related to these behaviors.

In order to address construct validity, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses (EFA and CFA) were conducted prior to testing the model using SEM. I conducted preliminary CFA using data from the pilot test to inform any final changes to the measure prior to full data collection. The preliminary CFA conducted using SPSS suggested that the initial latent constructs had high reliability. Full CFA was conducted as a part of the final data analysis

process once data collection was complete. Final factor loadings and reliability are reported in Chapter 5.

Pilot Test. The pilot test for this study included a group of 10 SA professionals at various institutions across the United States. Professionals represented diverse functional areas, years of experience, and familiarity with social justice. Pilot test participants took the survey online followed by a phone conversation to debrief the survey and provide feedback. The follow up conversation covered overall ease and flow of the survey and centered on interpretations of questions and the extent to which they felt the survey captures their interactions with social justice. Pilot test participants were also asked to share if there were additional areas of social justice work not reflected in the survey. The pilot test resulted in minor revisions to survey items but no major changes to the conceptual areas of the survey.

Analytic Approach

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to understand the statistical relationships between the variables of interest in this study. A model was proposed a priori from the literature on SA professionals and social justice. SEM determined the extent to which the relationships between the variables described above fit the proposed model in Figure 3.1. To prepare for SEM, I reviewed summary statistics such as frequencies and means of all variables. Data were evaluated to ensure they met the requirements of normality prior to proceeding with SEM. Univariate statistics for all variables (i.e. means, skewness, kurtosis, and standard deviation coefficients) were examined for normality.

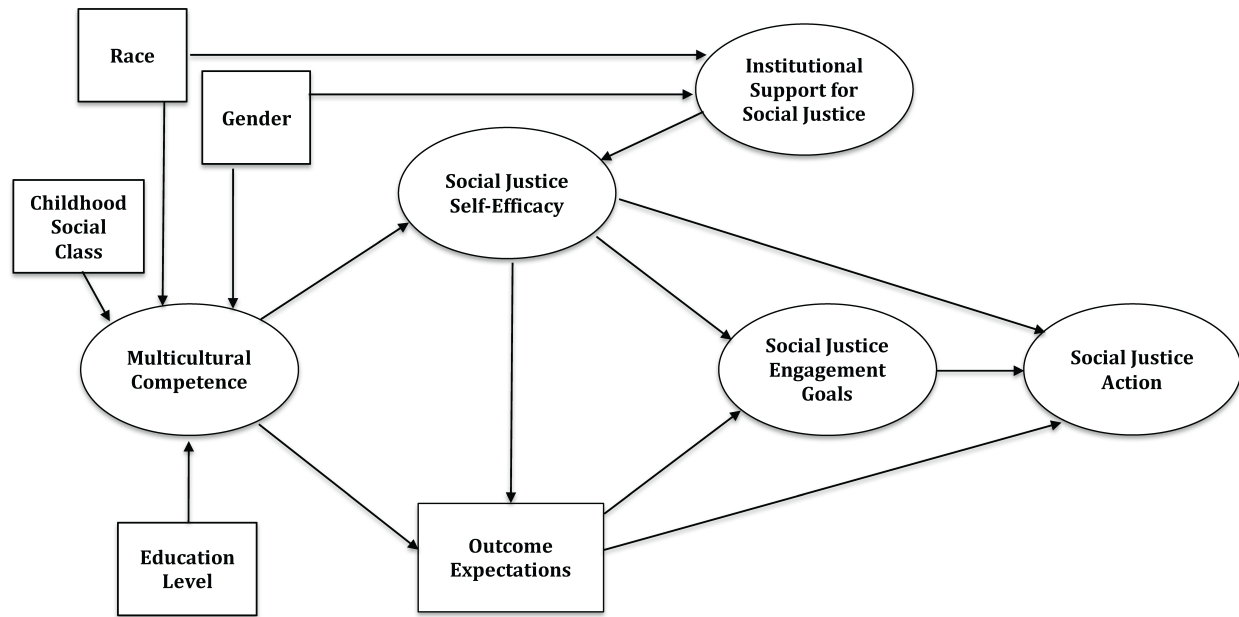


Figure 3.1. Central Conceptual Relationships

The final analytical approach used SEM to determine if the theoretical model proposed in Chapter Two (see Figure 2.2) was consistent with the data collected from SA professionals. Using the conceptual model found in Figure 3.1, SEM evaluated this consistency through *model-data fit*, which indicates the extent to which the proposed network of relationships among variables is plausible (Lei & Wu, 2007). This study utilized MPLUS, a structural equation modeling software, to test the proposed model of social justice related career behavior in four steps: measurement specification, model estimation, evaluation, and modification.

SEM provided several advantages over traditional multiple regression analysis and was deemed appropriate for this study for several reasons. First, SEM was appropriate for use with cross-sectional data and for studying direct and indirect effects of variables. In SEM, variables can be both the source variables (i.e. exogenous variables) as well as result variables (i.e. endogenous) in a chain of causal hypothesis. These variables are often referred to as mediators. SEM allows for the simultaneous modeling of more than one endogenous or dependent variable and concurrent testing of hypothesized regressions such as those made in this study. Given that

this study utilized cross-sectional data, hypothesized the causal effects on more than one dependent variable, and was testing both the direct and indirect relationships of the conceptual model, SEM was an appropriate analytical approach.

SEM was also advantageous as this study explored the relationships among variables that were highly correlated and SEM allowed more flexibility regarding assumptions of multicollinearity and allowed for the correction of error in measurement. SEM was also appropriate for the study of relationships among both observed variables as well as latent constructs indicated by multiple measures. Given the number of latent constructs used for this study, SEM was an appropriate approach to answering the final research question. Finally, SEM is best used as a confirmatory method to determine if the data collected are consistent with a hypothesized model proposed a priori and developed from existing theory and literature. Extant literature on the individual conceptual areas provided for strong hypotheses on their existing relationships that benefitted from testing through the use of SEM.

Measurement specification. The first stage was an evaluation of the latent measurement models employed in this study. Analysis included preliminary tests of assumptions underlying trustworthy results and an evaluation of the survey instrument through a review of summary statistics, EFA and CFA. I used EFA to explore the relationships between the variables and used CFA to test the validity of the theorized grouping of observed variables that represented each unmeasured latent construct (i.e. multicultural competence, social justice self-efficacy, institutional support to engage in social justice, social justice goals and social justice actions). Each factor was evaluated based on global fit indices, factor loadings, and reliability coefficients. The results of the CFA justified the use of the latent constructs within the full structural model.

Model estimation, evaluation, and modification. The final stage tested the structural relationships specified in the proposed theoretical model and evaluated overall model fit. Like most SEM analyses, this study utilized maximum likelihood as the fitting function to estimate the parameters of the model. Maximum likelihood uses a logarithm to estimate for the parameters that will maximize the likelihood that the empirical covariance matrix could come from a population for which the “model-implied covariance matrix” is valid (Schermerle-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Muller, 2003). To test the covariance of variables in the model, standardized path coefficients were analyzed for strength and significance, similar to linear regression analysis. This part of the analysis explained the individual components of the model. As previously stated, of particular interest to this study were the contributions of *social justice self-efficacy* and the *institutional support for social justice*.

There are several possible indices that indicate model fit using SEM yet little consensus over best practices in evaluating and reporting model fit (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). Overall, there are three types of model fit indices that can be reported through SEM: absolute, incremental, and parsimony. Given the varying strengths and weaknesses of each index, this study utilized five model fit indices to assess how well the data fit with the proposed model of social justice-related career behavior: the Model Chi-Square statistic, the Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR), the Root Mean Squared Error or Approximation (RMSEA), the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI).

The two “absolute” model fit indices used for this study were the Chi-Square statistic and the SRMR. Because the best fitting models for absolute fit indices are set at zero, they are often referred to as “badness” of fit measures as bigger values indicate worse model fit. The Model Chi-Square statistic is the prevailing fit index in SEM research that evaluates overall model fit

compared to no model at all. The Model Chi-Square statistic is always reported along with degrees of freedom and associated p value (Kline, 2005) and a good model fit using the Chi-Square statistic provides an insignificant result at a .05 threshold. The downside to the Chi-Square value is that it is sensitive to sample size. A large sample may cause the rejection of a model, even if it is properly specified. Further, a small sample may not have enough power for the test to discriminate between a good and poor model fit. Given its sensitivity, the Chi-Square statistic is typically accompanied by additional tests. The other “absolute” model fit index used for this study is the Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR). This index does not penalize for model complexity and a value of less than .08 is typically considered a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The Root Mean Squared Error or Approximation (RMSEA) is a parsimonious model fit index in that it is sensitive to the number of parameters specified by the model. In other words, it favors more parsimonious models. Good model fit using the RMSEA is indicated by a value statistic below .08 (Jayakumar, 2007). Browne and Sugawara (1996) recommend .01, .05, and .08 to indicate excellent, good, and mediocre fit, respectively.

The TLI and CFI are both incremental model fit indices. Incremental model indices are analogous to R-squared statistics in that a value of zero indicates the worst possible model fit (i.e. null hypothesis) and a value of one indicates the best possible fit (Kenny, 2014). A good TLI and CFI will be above .9. The TLI and the CFI both depend on the average size of correlations between variables in the study. If correlations are not high, then the TLI and CFI will also not be high. The TLI is useful particularly for this study in that it accounts for the lack of parsimony in the proposed model. All of the above fit indices will be used to draw conclusions regarding the extent to which the data support the hypothesized model in this study.

After model evaluation, MPLUS will provide model modification indices that suggest changes to the model that would strengthen overall fit. The decision to incorporate these changes rely largely on the researcher's knowledge of theory.

Limitations

Although there are several advantages to applying SEM to a theory of social justice-related, there are a few limitations to note. First, although the numbers of variables used in this study provide a more comprehensive look at the various elements related to social justice choices, they also do not create the most parsimonious model. This lack of parsimony may cause some complications with multicollinearity and some of the model fit indices may reject the model, as a result.

Additionally, because the practices and goals of social justice are complex, it is a difficult concept to quantify, and therefore difficult to study quantitatively. To address this limitation, this study utilizes a number of latent variable factors to capture social justice related concepts. It will be important that the process of designing and testing the latent variables is rigorous in order to ensure that the individual items collectively and accurately capture their intended constructs.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the two research questions and guiding methodologies for this study. The study, overall, provides an empirical examination into various influences of social justice behavior for SA professionals. Part I of this study involves a content analysis of the professional and institutional messages. The aim of Part I is to better understand what messages are conveyed to SA professionals from their professional and institutional environments regarding the priority of social justice in student affairs, what it is, and how to achieve it. Understanding these messages sets the context for situating SA professionals within

their institutional environments and how those environments then influence the psychological processes toward social justice choices. In other words, the first part of this study aims to understand if institutions overall align with professional social justice messages or if there are certain kinds of institutions that are more likely to align with professional social justice messages or certain kinds of institutions that are more likely to not align with professional messages. The implications of this section of the study might provide insight into challenges for making progress toward social justice. In essence, if SA professionals receive messages encouraging engagement in social justice from their professional organizations but not always from their institutions, this finding might support future research that could further investigate how conflicting messages influence social justice choices at the institutional level.

Part II of this study investigates the use of a social cognitive theory to understand the relationships between the person and environment as SA professionals make social justice choices. This part of the study utilized a national survey of SA professionals to understand what influences goals and actions toward social justice. Understanding the predictive relationships, especially between multicultural competence, the institutional environment for social justice, and social justice self-efficacy, will help inform future studies that seek to inform SA professionals' social justice commitment and engagement.

Chapter Four: Part I Results

This chapter presents the findings from Part I of the research study. Part I employed content analysis to review documents from a national sample of higher education institutions and two prominent professional organizations to understand the state of social justice messages in Student Affairs. The research questions guiding Part I ask: How do SA professional organizations' social justice messages align with social justice messages at the institutional level? What do these messages suggest collectively and differentially about the priority of social justice in Student Affairs? To answer these broader questions, I explored two sub-questions:

- a. What messages do professional organizations convey through mission statements and SA practice-based and scholarly published work to SA professionals about social justice (i.e. what does it entail; what approaches should be taken to achieve it)?
- b. What messages do institutions convey through mission statements and strategic planning documents to SA professionals about social justice (i.e. what does it entail; what approaches should be taken to achieve it)?

The following section details the extent to which documents included any social justice messages, what messages were most dominant, and where these messages tended to occur within the professional organizations and institutional documents. Based on these findings, I then explore what these patterns suggest regarding the priority of social justice in student affairs.

Inclusion of Social Justice Messages in Documents

In order to better understand the landscape of social justice messages in student affairs, I first explored the presence of social justice within the documents used for the remainder of the analysis. Overall, 235 documents contained messages regarding social justice—126 documents from the professional organizations and 119 from the institution documents. This means that

21% of the total possible professional organization documents and 18% of the institution documents contained social justice messages. Within the 235 documents, 500 messages were coded for the meaning of social justice, approaches to achieving it, or both. Sixty percent (N=300) of those references were found within the professional organization documents and forty percent (N=200) within the institution documents. The difference in the number of messages is likely due to the fact that professional documents were much longer on average than the webpage content of the institutions.

Social Justice Messages Conveyed by Professional Organizations and Institutions

Professional organizations and institutions conveyed 500 social justice messages to SA professionals that fell into two broad types: (1) meaning of social justice, and/or (2) approaches toward social justice. The following section outlines these messages, how often they occur, and examples of those messages from both professional organizations and institutions. The examples provided are direct quotes each of which were selected from different institutions and professional organizations included in the study.

Table 4.1 Occurrence of Social Justice Messages by Professional Organizations and Institutions

Type of Message	Total		Professional Org		Institutions	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Meaning of Social Justice						
	N=455		N=276		N=179	
Diversity	68	14.9%	24	8.7%	44	24.6%
Deficit	6	1.3%	5	1.8%	1	0.6%
Equity	140	30.8%	100	36.2%	40	22.3%
Person-Level Equity	106	23.3%	69	25.0%	37	20.7%
Structural-Level Equity	45	9.9%	32	11.6%	13	7.3%
SJ Goal/Value	56	12.3%	23	8.3%	33	18.4%
Social Change	49	10.8%	33	12.0%	16	8.9%
Approaches toward Social Justice						
	N=106		N=70		N=36	
Education	53	50.6%	39	55.7%	14	38.9%
Advocacy/Activism	24	22.6%	18	25.7%	6	16.7%
Research	19	17.9%	16	22.9%	3	8.3%
Religion	19	17.9%	5	7.1%	14	38.9%

Social Justice through Diversity and Deficit Frames

Many messages alluding to social justice actually described efforts through diversity frameworks (14.9%), and a few messages utilized deficit framings (1.3%). Working toward social justice, according to Bensimon (2005), requires that individuals and organizations utilize equity cognitive frames that situate student issues within institutional systems that perpetuate inequities. In contrast, “diversity” messages celebrate differences and the value of diversity at the institution. “Deficit” messages focus on “stereotypical characteristics associated with the culture of disadvantage and poverty” (Bensimon, 2005, p.103). Deficit messages highlight students who need support, motivation, or remediation.

Table 4.2 Examples of Diversity Messages by Professional Organizations or Institutions

	Diversity
Professional Organizations	Programs and services must advocate for sensitivity to multicultural and social justice concerns by the institution and its personnel Too often, what one chooses to believe is conveniently placed within an ideology that guides a preconceived meaning of what to ask of whom and how responses are to be interpreted. Just as those social justice advocates who have fought against the ignorance of stereotyping in building acceptance and even celebration of difference, those who are members, advisors, and advocates of fraternity/sorority life urge a more comprehensive view of the contributions these organizations make to student success and development on college campuses.
Institutions	[This] University operates under the thinking that as an institution, it draws greater vigor from greater diversity. This incorporates the University's academic mission to encourage the development of diverse programs of study and encourage dialogue between departments and schools. A diverse student body is one of the privileges that is afforded to the [university] community. Students have a unique opportunity to truly engage with and learn from others who may be different in myriad ways, including gender, national origin, religion, sexual orientation, socioeconomic class, race, or ethnicity, or disability status. The University offers a variety of services supporting the diverse groups that comprise the [university] community. Diversity education and training, multicultural programs and cultural and social justice programs are resources that are provided by the Center for Multicultural Education and Programs. Personal Counseling staff members acknowledge that prejudice and discrimination hurt people and communities. Therefore, we are dedicated to making our services accessible to all. We are committed to creating a safe, inclusive, and affirming environment.

As evidenced by the quotes above, diversity messages focused on access and the benefits of diversity on educational outcomes, rather than addressing issues of inequity. For example, the first institutional quote promotes a diverse student body as a “privilege afforded to the university community. This institution presents “social justice” programming as a resource available to members of the diverse community, but not as a way of framing their approach to engaging their diverse student body.

Many of the diversity messages focused on inclusion and building a positive campus climate, but instead of focusing on inclusive practices that facilitate equitable outcomes, they focused on awareness raising and the celebration of differences. The first professional quote advocates for sensitivity related to social justice issues. The second professional quote advances the idea that social justice advocates work toward diversity as a goal, by celebrating differences, rather than addressing inequities. These messages also focused on individuals’ experiences with these systems and helping students cope or navigate systems. The second institutional quote acknowledged prejudice and discrimination as causes of difficulty for students. Their goal as it related to addressing these issues, then, was to provide access to their services in order to create a better campus environment.

Diversity messages were not evenly distributed across professional organizations and institutional documents. In fact, although 24.6% of the references within the institutional documents were messages related to diversity, these messages comprised only around 8.7% of the references within the professional organizations. This could mean that institutions had a heavier focus on diversity efforts, or that professional organizations were more careful to not conflate diversity and social justice concepts.

Although deficit framings were less common, the examples below demonstrate how institutions and professional organizations framed students as the root of an issue, rather than the systems and structures in higher education. The fact that this theme was not common for institutions (.6%) nor for professional organizations (1.8%) is reassuring because it indicates a shift in thinking toward what Bensimon (2005) suggests are more effective framings of social justice.

Table 4.3 Examples of Deficit Messages by Professional Organizations or Institutions

Deficit	
Professional Organizations	Beyond money, these students don't have stable, responsible, well-informed adults in their lives, so they lack institutional savvy. They don't know how to make institutions work for them.
Institutions	Some of the unique challenges affecting students of color...and other historically underrepresented populations are: invisibility, environments and behaviors that promote biases, lack of role models, mentors, isolation, depression and anxiety, culture shock, hate crimes, bias incidents, stress

Although the efforts described through the diversity and deficit frames above do not completely meet the definition of social justice work in this study, their value should not be diminished. In fact, these efforts are crucial in providing students adequate support to succeed within the environment that exists today. Nonetheless, these efforts, alone, do not accomplish the goals of social justice because they fail to identify goals or efforts to simultaneously change the institution. Partnering diversity with equity frames ensures that students' needs are being met today, while also ensuring that future generations of students do not encounter the same experiences (e.g., discrimination) as their peers today. In many cases, not incorporating social justice results in potentially hegemonic practices; by doing nothing to change the institution, these messages become complicit in encouraging a culture that maintains the status quo and perpetuates these barriers and challenging experiences for students on campus.

Social Justice through Equity Frames

Most (64%) social justice messages revolved around issues of equity and ways to advance efforts that could address inequities in higher education. Equity frames center social justice in the issue of inequitable outcomes for historically underrepresented students. Messages utilizing an equity frame placed the responsibility of fixing these outcomes in the hands of institutions by identifying systems and structures that perpetuate inequities and working to change these systems. Equity frames emphasized the importance of person-level development and action, as well as institution-level change. Person-level development and action included shifting individuals' cognitive frames and the ability to identify personal biases. Person-level development also included learning how to identify and address systems that result in inequities. Institution-level change included creating or changing policies and practices that do not adequately support all students in achieving academic success. The table below provides examples of messages that utilized equity frames, broadly, and those that spoke directly to person-level or institution-level equity.

Table 4.4 Examples of Equity Messages by Professional Organizations or Institutions

Equity	
Professional Organizations	Considering that racial profiling is an institutionalized practice in higher education can be challenging. Administrators are far more likely to dismiss experiences as perception or to admonish an incident as an individual act of bigotry, and pledge to have “zero tolerance” for discriminatory acts. An unwillingness to view the individual incidents as a pattern can yield a hostile climate and sustain the institutionalized nature of racial profiling (Ayers, Dohrm, & Ayers, 2001).
Institutions	In an effort to help move [the institution] toward inclusive excellence, we use theoretically sound and evidence-based, faculty-, staff- and student-lead initiatives to educate and inform the campus community, reduce inequities in educational outcomes, expose students to inclusive curriculum and pedagogy, and sustain an environment wherein all constituents can thrive and succeed
Person-Level Equity	
Professional Organizations	Student affairs practitioners can take a number of steps to help students work through Whiteness (Cabrera, 2012b). There needs to be structured opportunities for White men to both deconstruct what it means to be White (Ortiz & Rhoads, 2000) and dialogue across racial difference (Zuñiga, Nagda, & Sevig, 2002). It is especially important that these programs be either required or heavily supported by the institution, because White students rarely self-initiate ally development (Cabrera, 2012b; Reason et al., 2005).
Institutions	Global Awareness and Leadership is a students' awareness of issues impacting the community and the world, as well as the capacity and desire to take action to make positive, sustainable change. Both components are critical to solving our world's most pressing problems, which require compassion and collaboration. Students exhibit learning in this area by recognizing the differences and commonalities among people, as well as understanding and addressing issues of power, privilege, and oppression and their impact.
Structural-Level Equity	
Professional Organizations	Students might sense the workings of power during the application process when they must self-identify as one of the eligible populations we may serve. Or perhaps they feel the effects of power when they navigate university structures and hierarchies that are part of the research process...I propose that the subtle stirrings students may feel can grow large enough to disturb our lived relationships with them. The underside of opportunity reveals itself as we closely inspect the discursive impact of the legislation and regulations governing McNair programs.
Institutions	As a part of its commitment, [this program] must sustain each of its academic communities with a shared sense of purpose, core values, and respect for a diversity of cultures, perspectives, backgrounds and experiences. To that end, the members of these communities are expected to advance fair practices and the elimination of systemic practices and policies that serve as barriers to the full inclusion of all university constituents, and above all preserves the dignity and safety of every person.

Equity messages were the most frequent messages across all of the documents. The quotes above demonstrate that when social justice messages were conveyed through an equity frame, they problematized the systems and structures that prevent students from achieving equitable outcomes. Although nearly half of the equity messages focused more broadly on the concept (48% of all equity messages), messages about person-level equity (36%) were far more common than institution-level equity (15%). That is, student affairs, overall, focuses more on developing individuals—both SA professionals and students—than they currently do on promoting institutional change when discussing social justice. The emphasis on person-level equity was even more pronounced in the institutional documents that had messages related to person-level equity almost as often as they spoke about equity more broadly (22.3% versus 20.7%). This finding aligns with Bensimon’s (2005) argument that institutional change requires individuals who can make decisions through a privilege-cognizant and critical lens. It makes sense, then, that institutions might focus first on developing individuals, before addressing institutional change. With that said, because these messages are situated within visions and strategic plans, it would make sense to also want to convey aspirations for institutional change.

Social Justice as a Goal or Value

There were several instances (12.3% of the messages) where professional organizations or institutions described social justice as an important value or goal that should be promoted on campus. These messages were sometimes vague and did not always define what social justice entailed. For example, the first message in the table below states that, “ACPA will lead in advancing social justice,” but they did not define what social justice is. The third message is a good example of how many of the messages promoted the idea that in order to be a good person, and to develop students to be good people, social justice should be a part of that development.

These messages were often grounded in moral or ethical obligations related to broader missions or values. The last example below presents social justice as an enduring value that guides the educational experience they provide.

Table 4.5 Examples of Social Justice Goal/Value Messages by Professional Organizations or Institutions

SJ Goal, Value	
Professional Organizations	Equity and Inclusion - ACPA will lead in advancing social justice, equity, and inclusion across higher education worldwide.
Institutions	Being sensitized, students affirmed the call for lifelong commitment to social justice by investing in schools, the youth, and the community: "I want to remain conscious of the difference I can make in someone's life." We suggest that educators approach moral education as a curricular (as opposed to only a course-based) objective, infusing messages about social justice throughout the curriculum at different points in students' academic journey. The enduring values of human dignity and social justice, a legacy of our founding vision, provide an important moral compass for our educational experience.

Although this theme occurred an average of 12.3% of the time, writing about social justice as a goal was more common at institutions than within the professional organizations (18.4% and 8.3% respectively). This was probably due to the fact that the documents I examined from the institutions were all statements of goals, missions, values, and strategic plans. In many cases, these documents outlined goals and values briefly, which explains why many of these messages were also brief. In contrast, because many of the professional documents were research or practice-based articles, framings of social justice were more elaborate so I was able to discern more of their meaning.

Social Justice as Social Change

Some messages focused on social change as an effort toward social justice (10.8%). The prominence of this theme across professional organizations and institutional documents was not drastically different (12.0% and 8.9% respectively). Messages that fell under this theme focused

on social change as a societal issue beyond the institution. These messages were related to equity framings in that they highlighted the need for change and ongoing work. These messages were not related to individual deficits or characteristics, but rather a broader effort to address systems and structures of inequities. The primary difference between when a message fell into the social change framing rather than equity was that these messages focused on society, as a whole, instead of the institution of higher education and the inequities it reproduces.

Table 4.6 Examples of Social Change Messages by Professional Organizations or Institutions

Social Change	
Professional Organizations	These intersections were designed to allow our students to support and challenge each other in their learning, to apply diverse theories of multiculturalism to their lived experiences, to examine relationships among various mediums of expression and ways of knowing, and to find their own voices as agents of social change
Institutions	Justice: Through civic engagement, we seek to reverse social, environmental, and systemic injustices in our world. CCASL challenges students to become active agents of social change.

Social change messages also focused heavily on service and volunteerism. Many scholars critique this framing suggesting that service/volunteering does not do enough to bring about “change” if does not also address systems that perpetuate inequities (see Boyle-Baise, 2002). Scholars like Paulo Freire (2000) and bell hooks (1994) argue the importance of coalition building and partnerships in education and community change. However, from the definitions provided in these documents, it was rarely the case that I had enough information to determine if “social change” included this critical aspect, or not.

Approaches to Achieving Social Justice

Along with the ways that institutions and professional organizations described social justice, in 106 instances they also identified approaches to achieving it. These approaches were sometimes presented in conjunction with definitions of social justice (N=86). However,

sometimes the approaches were highlighted, without a definition (N=20). The following sections will describe the primary approaches and provide examples from the documents.

Education. The primary approach to achieving social justice was through education (50.6%). Education included formal classroom environments, co-curricular programs, as well as trainings for students and also for staff. The messages ranged from focusing on the educational learning outcomes to messages highlighting the role of effective teachers or program facilitators in order to effectively utilize education as a tool for social justice. In the professional organization example below, the authors highlighted this need for effective instructors as they explored the implications of their research study for SA professionals.

Table 4.7 Examples of Education Approaches by Professional Organizations or Institutions

Education	
Professional Organizations	The stories of faculty teaching diversity courses in student affairs preparation programs uncover areas of potential growth in teaching practices, professional development for faculty, and for building social justice knowledge and skill
Institutions	To serve as the central diversity education resource for cultivating in all...students greater activism toward inclusion and social justice on campus and beyond

Approaching social justice through education was a top approach for both professional organizations and institutions (55.7% and 38.9% respectively). For the professional organizations, education was their preferred approach as it was mentioned more than twice as much as the next most common approach—research. Institutions, on the other hand, approached social justice through education just as often as they approached it through religion/spirituality, which will be described in more detail below.

Advocacy and Activism. The second most common approach to social justice was through advocacy and activism (22.6%). Although some messages clarified the difference

between the two concepts, others used them interchangeably. Because of this, I present them in combination with each other.

Table 4.8 Examples of Advocacy/Activism Approaches by Professional Organizations or Institutions

Advocacy/Activism	
Professional Organizations	Professional development within this competency area assumed that student affairs educators need to understand oppression, privilege, and power before they can understand social justice. Intermediate and advanced level outcomes reflect social justice oriented applications in practice and then interconnections between leadership and advocacy.
Institutions	Social Justice: Through strong connections with on and off-campus organizations, departments, groups and individuals, we challenge ourselves to develop a true sense of interdependence and solidarity informed by Catholic Social Thought. We strive to overcome injustice, inequity and inequality through advocacy and activism.

Even though messages about advocacy/activism were the second most common approach overall, they were found less than half of the time than education (the most common approach). For professional organizations, education approaches were promoted 55.7% of the time while advocacy/activism was promoted 25.7% of the time. For the institutions, while education and religion/spirituality were promoted 38.9% of the time, advocacy/activism was promoted only 16.7% of the time. Beyond its actually infrequent occurrence, when advocacy/activism was mentioned, it was rarely defined leaving the reader to decide what was meant by the term(s).

Research. Research approaches to social justice involved pursuing knowledge that would help the profession of Student Affairs address social issues. This approach often involved employing research to identify inequities in outcomes. Some of the research articles utilized methodologies to advance students' stories or experiences that would inform practitioners of areas in which higher education needs to improve. In the example below, researchers wrote about how they intended their research to be used in action.

Table 4.9 Examples of Research Approaches by Professional Organizations or Institutions

Research	
Professional Organizations	Encouraging social change through “evocative stories” is an explicit aim of autoethnography. Ellis and Bochner (2000) suggested the following: [These stories] long to be used rather than analyzed; to be told and retold rather than theorized and settled; to offer lessons for further conversation rather than undebatable conclusions; and to substitute the companionship of intimate detail for the loneliness of abstracted facts.
Institutions	Commit to the common good, and apply the knowledge and skills of our students and faculty to better the human condition; Encourage our students and faculty to pursue virtue by integrating love and knowledge, and by committing themselves to research and education for justice, with a special concern for the poor and compassion for the suffering.

Although research approaches were not common overall (17.9%), they were found more often in the professional organizations than in the institutional documents (22.9% and 8.3% respectively). Within the professional documents research was presented as an approach to redefine issues from diversity and deficit frames into equity frames by utilizing new methodologies and frameworks. Additionally, through a research approach, authors often made arguments for future research regarding issues or experiences of inequity in higher education. Interestingly, given that most of the scholarly work analyzed from the professional organizations was also probably written by people who conduct research as employees of institutions, what does this disconnect say about the value of research as an approach to social justice at the institutional level?

Religion and Spirituality. The final common approach to achieving social justice was presented through religious practice, the pursuit of faith, or as a spiritual mission (17.9%). For example, the message from the professional organizations presented below poses spiritual growth as a way of instilling a commitment to social justice.

Table 4.10 Examples of Religious/Spiritual Approaches by Professional Organizations or Institutions

Religion	
Professional Organizations	Enhancing students' spiritual growth should help create a new generation who are more caring, more globally aware, and more committed to social justice than previous generations.
Institutions	Spiritual Participants will be acquainted with mission, Jesuit Catholic values, cultivating an ethic of service and social justice that support their spiritual development.

Although religion/spirituality was not a common theme in the professional organizations (7.1%), it was tied with education as the most common approach for the institutions (38.9%). Additionally, these messages were all either located at catholic institutions or campus ministry pages at non-religious institutions. In most cases, faith and social justice were presented as a unified part of the institution's mission in that faith promotes justice. Even though religion, faith, and spirituality are distinctly different concepts (Fowler, 1981), the messages sent typically promoted faith or spirituality through the context of a particular religion or conflated the terms and their meanings, overall.

Overall Perspectives and Patterns

Now that I've presented the messages around what social justice is and how to approach it, I will summarize the perspectives that dominated both the professional organizations and institutions as separate domains and investigate patterns in the institutional messages by characteristics. Then I will discuss how these messages align and areas where they disconnect.

Professional Organization Perspectives on Social Justice

Within the professional organizations, three primary perspectives emerged regarding social justice and Student Affairs: (1) Equity was the primary interpretation of social justice endeavors; (2) Education was the most common approach to achieving social justice; (3) Few messages focused on religion or faith-based approaches to social justice. The majority of

messages focused on social justice through an equity frame and critiqued existing systems to advance our understandings of equity issues in higher education (73%). Framing social justice through education (56%) implied that the preferred approach toward social justice is through knowledge acquisition. It advanced the ideas that by reading education resources and participating in trainings, SA professionals can make strides toward social justice goals. Religious and faith-based approaches to social justice were uncommon within professional organizations (seven percent). The few messages that did exist mirrored those in the institutional documents describing religion and spirituality as strong partners or foundations for social justice efforts. The limited occurrence of these messages suggests that religion/spirituality is not a prioritized approach toward social justice within professional organizations.

Institutional Perspectives on Social Justice

To investigate patterns by institutions I first looked at institutions in the aggregate and then disaggregated by the institutional characteristics outlined in Chapter 3. Three patterns emerged in the institutional documents when evaluated together. First, all but six institutions included at least one reference related to social justice somewhere on their webpages. This means that of the 40 institutions, 85% of them had at least an acknowledgement of social justice somewhere at their institution. Of the six institutions with no social justice messages, the only discernable similarity was that they were all non-religious institutions. Second, equity was the most common social justice message found in the institutional documents (51%). And third, education and religion/spirituality were equally the most promoted approaches to achieving social justice (39%).

When the institutions were disaggregated by type, control, size, regional location, and religious/non-religious affiliations, three themes emerged: (1) Private institutions talk about

social justice more in their messages than do public institutions; (2) Regions 2 and 3 (mostly East and West coast institutions) are doing more to promote social justice than Region 1 (mostly Midwest and Southeastern U.S.); (3) Religion and spirituality bolster social justice endeavors at both religious and non-religious institutions. These patterns provide nuance regarding the priority of social justice in student affairs on an institutional level.

In many ways, private institutions are doing more to promote social justice than public institutions. Across all areas of the institutional documents (e.g. department webpages, institutional mission statements, division mission statements), private institutions were almost always the higher proportion of the institutions sending social justice messages than public institutions. For example, across the divisional mission statements and strategic plans, 13 institutions had social justice messages and 10 were private institutions. Eleven institutions had social justice messages on their institutional equity pages, and eight were private institutions. This pattern continued for nearly all of the other institutional documents. Additionally, when looking at the raw number of different types of messages (e.g. diversity, equity, social change, etc.), private institutions had 112 social justice messages compared to 56 social justice messages at the public institutions. Although there were slightly fewer public institutions in the sample—17 compared to 23 private institutions—the frequency of messages averaged 3 messages per public institution versus almost 5 messages per private institution. And finally, private institutions almost exclusively discussed approaches to social justice whereas only one public institution sent one message regarding the use of education as an approach to social justice. In every other case, messages regarding approaches to social justice on the institutional level came from private institutions. The prominence of social justice across private institutions is noteworthy and will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 6.

Although messages of social justice did occur at institutions in Region 1 (N=60), Region 2 and 3 still tended to have more (N=87 and 96 respectively), suggesting that these regions may be doing more to prioritize social justice. This finding aligns with what we might expect from a region labeled as “Friendly and Conventional” (Rentfrow, et al., 2013). People living in this region, which primarily includes the Midwest and Southeastern United States, tend to be more traditional and perhaps therefore less inclined to promote social change. In fact, Rentfrow and colleagues describe this region as comprised of people with relatively low levels of social tolerance and a place where the status quo is important. Even if institutions in this region today desire the advancement of social justice, they may be challenged by historical legacies that incorporate structures that perpetuate inequities. And although institutions in Region 1 may be challenged by the want to maintain the status quo, they may also be able to build on the fact that residents tend to be religious and civically engaged in their communities.

Religion and spirituality played a role in the social justice messages sent by institutions. Institutions conveyed religion and spirituality as an approach to social justice nearly as often as they promoted education. Not only did institutions often focus on religion or faith-based approaches to social justice, all of the six institutions that did not focus on social justice at all were non-religious. And although the religious institutions did house the majority of the messages regarding faith-based approaches to social justice, there were a few cases where these messages came from non-religious institutions, as well. Being religious or focusing on social justice as grounded in spiritual or faith-based values or pursuits, seemed to be a way of advancing social justice as a priority in Student Affairs.

Alignment

This chapter so far has presented the messages around what social justice is and how it can be achieved, as well as where these messages tend to occur within professional organizations and higher education institutions. This section will summarize how professional organizations align with institutions, overall, and with private institutions, separately. I will then present areas in which professional organizations and institutions are misaligned.

Professional organizations and institutions align, overall, in three ways. First, both focus the majority of their social justice messages on equity. Relatedly, of those messages on equity, both professional organizations and institutions focus more heavily on person-level development than on structural change. And although this aligns with aspects of Bensimon's equity frames, the lack of focus on structural inequities from both professional organizations and the institutions implies that both have room to improve upon how they are advancing equity in higher education. Finally, neither focuses on advocacy and/or activism as an approach to social justice. I will share more about this below.

Across institutional characteristics, one primary pattern emerged regarding alignment with professional organizations. That is, private institutions align more with professional organizations than do public institutions. This was demonstrated in two ways. First, private institutions generally speak about social justice at a more similar rate as professional organizations when compared to public institutions. And second, both private institutions and professional organizations focus heavily on education as an approach to social justice. This focus is compared to public institutions that did not recommend approaches hardly at all (although the one time they do it was through education).

Advancing education as the primary approach to social justice does not necessarily mean that it is the best approach. It is possible that education is advanced as the most common approach simply given the educational mission of the broader field of higher education. In the same vein, it is perhaps the most feasible, or perceived as the least risky approach to challenging the status quo. But the fact that education was advanced to the extent that these messages occurred twice as often as the next most common approach is concerning. This is especially concerning given the fact that, according to both Bensimon's (2005) equity framework and Iverson's (2012) critique of multicultural competence frameworks, education is not enough if it is not also advancing advocacy and activism. While education is undoubtedly a fundamental component to social justice efforts, action-oriented approaches such as advocacy and activism can ultimately advance that education to enact change.

Perhaps the most discernable misalignment between the institutions and professional organizations occurred in the messages around religion or spirituality in the pursuit of social justice. These messages occurred exclusively within the private organizations, and logically, even more so for religious institutions. Even so, there were also instances where non-religiously affiliated institutions also incorporated spiritual and faith-based motivations and approaches toward social justice issues. This disconnect suggests that, for the professional organizations included in this study, faith-based efforts toward social justice are not a priority for the broader field of Student Affairs.

Priority of Social Justice in Student Affairs

The results presented above suggest that social justice is a priority in Student Affairs, but there are many ways both professional organizations and institutions could do more to advance clear goals and approaches toward social justice. The priority of social justice in Student Affairs

was determined by the presence of social justice messages, overall, and what those messages indicated as ways toward social justice, as well as what was indicated by areas that were not discussed in the messages. Ultimately, the fact that social justice messages appeared in only 20% of the documents analyzed for this study suggests that social justice is just one of many competing priorities for both institutions and professional organizations.

Of the social justice messages that did occur, both the institutions and professional organizations prioritize equity framings of social justice and education as means toward advancing social justice efforts. What was missing from many of these messages was larger scale action for change. For example, the lack of advocacy and activism messages, and the lack of description of what advocacy and activism could or should look like as an approach to social justice, indicates that institutions do not value or prioritize those kinds of behaviors. Further, the emphasis on person-level equity over structural-level equity suggests that institutions are perhaps uncomfortable or unprepared to advance structural-level change.

Chapter Summary

This chapter began by introducing the social justice messages that emerged in the Student Affairs documents. Of the 1246 documents analyzed for this study, only 235 of the documents contained social justice messages. In line with this study's operating definition of social justice as both a process and a goal, several themes emerged around what social justice is and how to achieve it. Although some messages incorporated diversity and deficit frames, social justice was primarily presented within an equity framework. This equity framework was presented broadly but also focused specifically on the person-level and structural-level equity efforts. Social justice was also defined more broadly as a goal or value to be pursued and in conjunction with the idea of social change. There were several approaches presented as a part of the process to achieving

social justice. These approaches included education, advocacy/activism, research and religion/spirituality.

When it came to comparing professional organizations to institutions, in many ways they were focusing on the same ideas. Both professional organizations and institutions emphasized equity frames and endorsed education as a major approach. Both focused more on person-level equity and less on structural-level equity. Neither advanced advocacy and/or activism as action-oriented approaches to social justice. Although these are important similarities that suggest mutual social justice priorities in higher education and Student Affairs, there were noticeable difference that emerged both within the institutions and across institutions and the professional organizations.

The misalignment of messages provides insight into areas that inhibit synergy in the effort toward social justice. First, private institutions tend to send more social justice messages, overall, compared to public institutions. Second, although public and private institutions both advance similar messages about the meaning of SJ, public institutions messages are void of suggestions for how to approach SJ. Third, institutions in the Midwest and Southeastern U.S. tended to talk about social justice less than institutions in the rest of the country. And finally, and perhaps most notably, religion/spirituality seems to be an important partner in efforts to advance social justice at private and religious institutions. However, religion/spirituality as an approach to social justice was rare in the professional organizations and nonexistent at public institutions. Further, the six institutions that did not have any social justice messages were not religiously affiliated institutions.

Evaluating these themes and their alignment and misalignment allowed for an analysis regarding the priority of social justice in Student Affairs. Given the prominence of social justice

messages overall, I determined that social justice is one of many competing priorities in Student Affairs. Private institutions appear to prioritize social justice more than public institutions given the increased frequency of occurrence of the messages, as well as their inclusion of approaches to how it can be achieved. Private institutions prioritize social justice more than public institutions, and religious institutions prioritize religious approaches to social justice more than non-religious organizations and professional organizations. When social justice messages did occur, professional organizations and institutions shared the goal of equity through education, suggesting that this goal and approach would be most valued and supported were they to be advanced by practitioners. However, Bensimon's (2005) framework also requires structural-level equity efforts and action-oriented approaches, such as advocacy and activism, which were not as prominent in the messages for both institutions and professional organizations. Although social justice is a priority at both the professional and institutional level, the lack of action-oriented and structural-level change may temper the extent to which these messages provide road maps for achieving social justice in higher education.

Chapter Five: Part II Results

In this chapter I will present the results from Part II of the study. Part II utilized structural equation modeling (SEM) to answer the second main research question which asks: How can a social cognitive model help us understand the role of personal backgrounds (i.e., personal characteristics and background contexts), multicultural competence, institutional environments, and social justice self-efficacy in predicting social justice choices (i.e. social justice goals and actions) for SA professionals? To help answer this broader question, I posed four specific sub-questions related to different constructs of interest: (a) How do personal backgrounds influence social justice choices? (b) How does multicultural competence influence social justice choices? (c) How does the institutional environment influence social justice choices? and (d) How does social justice self-efficacy influence social justice choices?

In order to answer the questions above, this chapter will first present preliminary measurement specifications of the variables such as summary statistics, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and a preliminary confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Then I will present the results of the final CFA of each latent construct and the results of the structural model. Based on the results of the structural model, I propose two modifications that ultimately lead to the presentation of the final social cognitive model.

Measurement Specification

This section presents the procedures utilized to evaluate the variables considered for the measurement and structural model.

Summary Statistics and Evaluation Procedures

An important first step in preparing for SEM is to evaluate the data for evidence of normality. To do this I ran summary statistics (i.e., means, skewness, kurtosis, and standard

deviation coefficients) and identified any variables that violated assumptions of normality.

There were sixteen variables that were skewed greater than |1.0| and were, therefore, eliminated from the EFA.

The proposed structural model included five observed variables: outcome expectations, race, gender, social class, and education level. Outcome expectations captured—on a scale of 1-7—how likely one would be to expect that engaging in social justice activities would result in change (in behaviors, attitudes, practices). Gender was restricted to people who only indicated male or female on the survey (98.9% of respondents indicated one of these categories). Childhood social class was reported on a scale of 1-5 ranging from poor to wealthy. Education level was recoded and then dummy coded into four categories: Pre-bachelor’s degree, bachelor’s degree, master’s degree, and professional/doctorate degree.

Table 5.1 Observed Variables for Social Cognitive Model

Variable	N	%
Gender		
Male	192	31.3
Female	421	68.7
Race		
Only White	462	74.4
Not White or Not Only White	159	25.6
Education Level		
Pre-Bachelor’s Degree	31	7.1
Bachelor’s Degree	88	20.0
Master’s Degree	243	55.3
Professional/Doctoral Degree	77	17.5
	Mean	SD
Social Class	2.92	.9
Outcome Expectations	4.14	1.2

Race or ethnicity was dummy coded to “only white” and “not white or not only white.” Several earlier models were tested to explore different groupings of SA professionals by their selected racial or ethnic groups. Between the size of the sample, the representation of different

racial or ethnic groups, people indicating more than one race or ethnicity, and the number of observed variables in the latent constructs, I was severely limited in my ability to explore the role of race or ethnicity (and specifically the role of individual racial or ethnic groups) on social justice goals and actions. Nonetheless, given that the majority of SA professionals are white and much of the conversations around social justice continue to be geared toward the white majority, I decided it would be useful to know if being exclusively white (versus being non-white or a mix of white and other racial or ethnic categories) influenced ratings of multicultural competence and perceptions of the environment.¹

Exploratory Factor Analysis and Preliminary Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To establish the measurement model for this study, I first conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of all of the eligible variables collected in the Student Affairs Social Issues Questionnaire. All EFAs were conducted on a random sample of half of the survey participants. I ran a separate EFA for each latent construct (e.g., social justice self-efficacy, multicultural competence) to determine if a 1-factor, 2-factor, or 3-factor model would provide for a better model fit of the latent construct. It was my desire to minimize the number of second-order factors within my model. As such, I only explored second-order factors when the EFA suggested more than one factor with three or more variables loading greater than .7. I then evaluated those

¹ The decision to limit the white category only to individuals who identified exclusively as white was made after running a preliminary model that included SA professionals who indicated white as at least one of their races in the “white” grouping. I then tested the same model again with the people who indicated white and another race removed from the “white” group. I hypothesized that because people who are mixed race tend to experience racism at greater levels than exclusively white people, they may also reduce the effect of being white if they were to be included in the “white” grouping. The relationship between being white and ratings of multicultural competence and institutional support became more pronounced when the “white and another race” group was removed and so the decision was made to run the model with “only white” and “not white or not only white” racial groupings.

items to see if they were conceptually related. If the items were both conceptually and statistically related, I included them in the next stage of factor analysis.

The next stage involved confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with the items identified in the EFA. This next stage was conducted initially utilizing the same random sample of participants. In some cases, the CFA resulted in low factor loadings (less than .5). In order to achieve a more parsimonious model, I eliminated any final variables with loadings of less than .5. Following this step, I then ran CFA with a second random sample of half of the survey participants. Once I had determined that the factors loaded consistently across both random samples, I applied CFA to the entire sample to determine the measurement model. The results of the measurement model will be presented in the next section.

Measurement Model

This section presents the results of the five latent constructs utilized in the structural model. The latent constructs included multicultural competence, social justice self-efficacy, institutional support to engage in social justice, social justice engagement goals, and social justice actions. The sections below present the latent constructs, second-order factors when relevant, their factor loadings, model fit indices, and Cronbach's alphas. Because MPLUS does not provide Cronbach's alphas as an assessment of the goodness of the factor, I ran alphas in SPSS when possible as an indicator of the reliability of the factor. In the cases where the latent constructs were comprised of second-order factors, I was unable to run the reliability for the broader latent construct. Instead, I report the reliability of the second-order factors and their loadings on to the latent construct.

Multicultural Competence

Of the 36 items considered for the construct of Multicultural Competence, seven variables and two second-order factors were chosen. The original intent was to utilize all or nearly all of the 36 multicultural competence items in the final factor. However, given the poor model fit, the initial EFA recommended multiple second-order factors. The challenge was that few of the recommended factors in the EFA resulted in strong factors both conceptually and statistically through the preliminary CFA. Even fewer of the recommended second-order factors resulted in strong loadings onto the broader latent construct. Pope and Mueller (2000) have acknowledged the challenges in designing a multicultural competence measure that captures distinct concepts such as knowledge, awareness, and skill. The two final sub-factors chosen for this study loosely describe multicultural knowledge and multicultural practice but were determined to adequately (although not perfectly) represent multicultural competence. The results of the CFA indicate mediocre model fit [RMSEA = 0.12 (C.I. 0.1, 0.1); CFI = 0.95; TLI = 0.92; SRMR = 0.03] and the Cronbach's alphas suggest the factors are reliable.

Table 5.2 Multicultural Competence Latent Construct, Second-Order Factors, Variables, and Factor Loadings

Multicultural Competence	Loading
Multicultural Knowledge	.863
Multicultural Practice	.960
Multicultural Knowledge ($\alpha = .832$)	
I can cite examples of how racism operates at the individual level, cultural level, and/or institutional level.	.791
I can discuss at length current issues facing students of color in higher education.	.747
I am comfortable speaking about issues of racial/ethnic diversity in a group.	.733
My definition of racism has been influenced by a broad range of literature.	.725
Multicultural Practice ($\alpha = .857$)	
I can implement multicultural policies and programs that challenge and help students grow developmentally.	.866
I am confident in my ability to evaluate the effectiveness of multicultural programs or events.	.830
I synthesize multicultural research to guide my practice.	.745

Social Justice Self-Efficacy

The Social Justice Self-Efficacy latent construct is comprised of six variables that relate to self-efficacy to engage with social justice on a personal level, and also to engage in social justice initiatives. The personal level self-efficacy, and self-efficacy for social justice initiatives were initially considered for second-order factors but I found that their loadings on the broader latent construct were so high (.940 and .996 respectively) that I decided to combine them into one construct. The model fit indices suggest good model fit with the data [RMSEA = 0.08, C.I. (0.06, 0.11); CFI = 0.98; TLI=0.97; SRMR=0.02].

Table 5.3 Social Justice Self-Efficacy Latent Construct, Variables, and Factor Loadings

Social Justice Self-Efficacy ($\alpha = .906$)	Loading
Advocate for social justice issues by becoming involved in professional organizations geared toward these efforts	.827
Raise others' awareness of the oppression and marginalization of targeted groups	.825
Raise awareness of social issues (e.g., inequality, discrimination) by engaging in dialogues on campus	.822
Collaborate with members of marginalized student groups to develop relevant skills that facilitate opportunities for success (e.g., educational, career)	.790
Encourage and convince others to participate in events that address social issues specific to your campus community	.781
Serve as a consultant for an institutional committee aimed at providing equal opportunities for underrepresented groups	.674

Institutional Support to Engage in Social Justice

Institutional Support to Engage in Social Justice was measured by five variables. The original variables considered for this construct included questions related to perceptions of both department-level and institution-level support. These variables hung together well as second-order factors but not together as a latent construct. This finding suggests a discernable difference between one's perception of department-level and institution-level support for social justice. Nonetheless, I opted to use the institution-level items for this study as they made for an overall

stronger factor both conceptually and statistically [RMSEA = .05, C.I. (.01, .09); CFI = 1.0; TLI = 0.99; SRMR = 0.02].

Table 5.4 Institutional Support Latent Construct, Variables, and Factor Loadings

Institutional Support to Engage in Social Justice ($\alpha = .876$)	Loading
The institution I work for values social justice.	.915
This university cares about addressing social justice issues on campus.	.909
My institution has a history of welcoming social change (e.g., opening admission to people of color prior to federal requirements).	.681
I feel supported at this institution to engage in social justice work.	.670
I regularly see people working to make the campus a better environment for students of various backgrounds.	.654

Social Justice Engagement Goals

All of the four possible variables designed to capture goals to engage in social justice loaded onto the latent construct. These variables indicate one's intent to engage but also the extent to which they are committed or have made a plan to achieve goals related to social justice. The results of the CFA indicate moderate to good model fit [RMSEA = 0.09, C.I. (.04, .15); CFI = 1.0; TLI=0.9; SRMR = 0.01].

Table 5.5 Social Justice Engagement Goals Latent Construct, Variables, and Factor Loadings

Social Justice Engagement Goals ($\alpha = .925$)	Loading
I am fully committed to engaging in social justice activities.	.957
I think engaging in social justice activities is a realistic goal for me.	.931
In the future, I intend to engage in social justice activities.	.883
I have a plan of action for ways I will remain or become involved in social justice activities.	.736

Social Justice Actions

Three second-order factors—intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural-level social justice actions—comprise “social justice actions” as a latent construct. These sub-factors emerged out of the EFA. Intrapersonal social justice actions describe behaviors that address understandings of one's own beliefs and practices (e.g. prejudice, fear, bias) that can perpetuate social inequities. These behaviors include self-reflection and the exploration of new knowledge and self-awareness. Interpersonal social justice actions include person-to-person behaviors such

as engaging in dialogues around social issues or disrupting behaviors or beliefs that perpetuate stereotypes. Structural social justice action speaks to participation in initiatives or activities that aim to dismantle systems and structures that maintain social inequities. All three factors combine to describe a rich latent construct for social justice action [RMSEA = 0.08, C.I. (.07, .09); CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.93, SRMR = 0.06].

Table 5.6 Social Justice Actions Latent Construct, Second-Order Factors, Variables, and Factor Loadings

Social Justice Actions	Loading
Intrapersonal Social Justice Action	.649
Interpersonal Social Justice Action	.993
Structural Social Justice Action	.794
Intrapersonal Social Justice Action ($\alpha = .873$)	
Explore my own biases	.877
Get out of my comfort zone to better understand myself	.820
Actively pursue opportunities to understand my own social identities and how they influence my work on campus	.781
Consider and re-consider what I have been taught about the world around me	.764
Interpersonal Social Justice Action ($\alpha = .875$)	
Raise others' awareness of the oppression and marginalization of targeted groups	.877
Encourage and convince others to participate in events that address social issues specific to your campus community	.859
Raise awareness of social issues (e.g., inequality, discrimination) by engaging in dialogues on campus	.852
Convince others as to the importance of social justice	.759
Confront others who make inappropriate generalizations about members of marginalized groups	.745
Structural Social Justice Action ($\alpha = .888$)	
Lead a group of coworkers in an effort to eliminate workplace discrimination in your place of employment	.834
Advocate for social justice issues by becoming involved in professional organizations geared toward these efforts	.790
Address structural inequities and barriers facing particular racial and ethnic groups by becoming politically active (e.g., helping to create government policy)	.788
Serve as a consultant for an institutional committee aimed at providing equal opportunities for underrepresented groups	.769
Challenge or address institutional policies that are covertly or overtly discriminatory	.760

Structural Model

This section presents the results of the social cognitive model proposed for this study. When working with large structural models, such as this one, one strategy to exploring model fit is to begin by first assessing the model fit for a few central relationships. Once the core relationships are examined, then additional constructs and relationships can be added and evaluated. My approach, then, was to explore model fit statistics and paths for three smaller models. I first examined the influence of multicultural competence and perceptions of institutional support to engage in social justice on social justice self-efficacy. Second, I explored the role of social justice self-efficacy in predicting social justice goals and actions. Third, I explored the influence of expecting positive change as an outcome of engaging in social justice (i.e. outcome expectations) on setting goals and taking action. The following section will present the results of the three smaller models, followed by the results of all three models combined into one larger social-cognitive model. The section will conclude by testing the influence of personal backgrounds on multicultural competence and perceptions of institutional support for social justice.

Multicultural Competence, Institutional Support, and Social Justice Self-Efficacy

The first smaller model explored the influence of multicultural competence and perceptions of institutional support for social justice on social justice self-efficacy. The results of the model fit indices suggest good model fit [RMSEA = .06, C.I. (.05, .07), CFI = .95, TLI = .95, SRMR = .06].

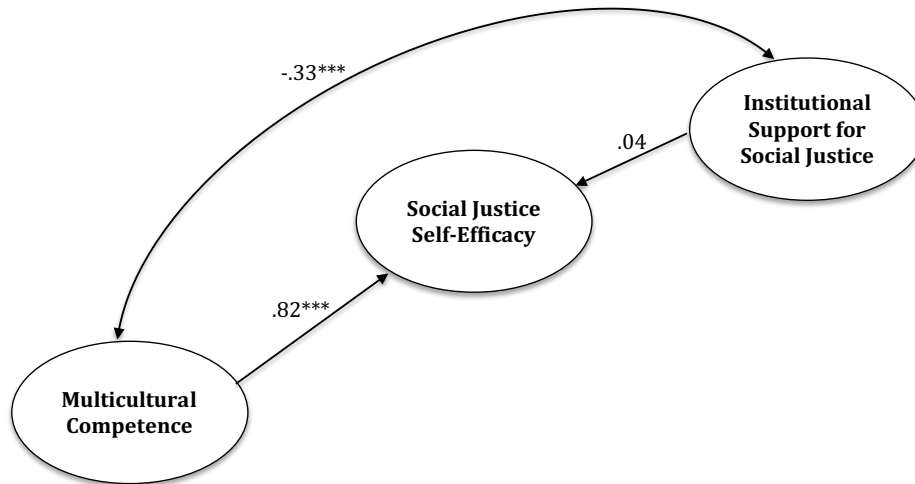


Figure 5.1 Model of Multicultural Competence and Institutional Support with Social Justice Self-Efficacy

Multicultural competence had a significant positive relationship with social justice self-efficacy ($\beta = .82$). This means that respondents who rated themselves as having higher multicultural competence also tended to indicate higher levels of social justice self-efficacy. The relationship between perception of institutional support and social justice self-efficacy was small and insignificant. Additionally, the correlation between multicultural competence and perception of institutional support was negative. Because it is unlikely that viewing the institution as supportive would lead someone to rate themselves as less competent (unless they are surrounded by highly competent people and so feel less competent in comparison) it is more likely the case that people who have more multicultural competence are more critical of their institution and therefore rate it as less supportive.

Influence of Social Justice Self-Efficacy on Social Justice Choices

The second smaller model explored the hypothesized relationships between social justice self-efficacy, setting goals, and taking action toward social justice. The fit indices for this smaller model indicated moderate model fit [RMSEA = .07, C.I. (.07, .08), CFI = .92, TLI = .91, SRMR = .06].

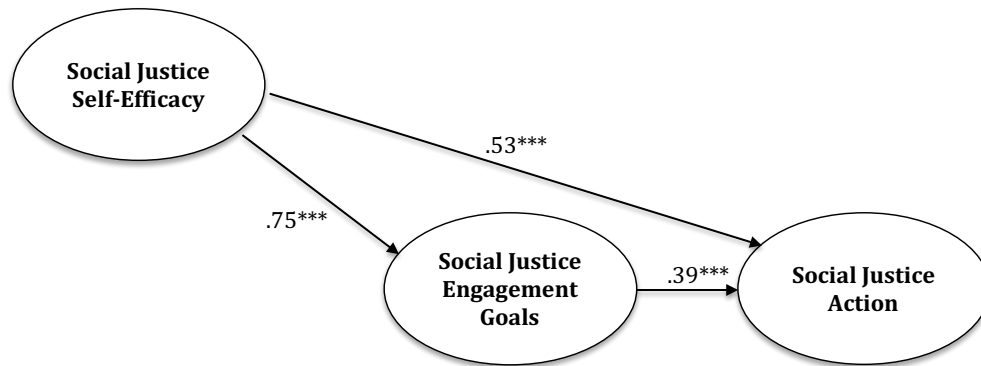


Figure 5.2 Model of Social Justice Self-Efficacy with Social Justice Engagement Goals and Actions

Social justice self-efficacy had a positive relationship with social justice action both directly ($\beta = .53$) and indirectly; people with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy also tended to set more goals to engage with social justice ($\beta = .75$) and reported engaging in social justice action more often ($\beta = .39$).

Influence of Outcome Expectations on Social Justice Choices

The third model examined the relationship between expecting positive change as an outcome of engaging in social justice (i.e. outcome expectations) with setting goals and taking action. The model fit indices were moderate [RMSEA = .08, C.I. (.07, .09), CFI = .93, TLI = .92, SRMR = .06].

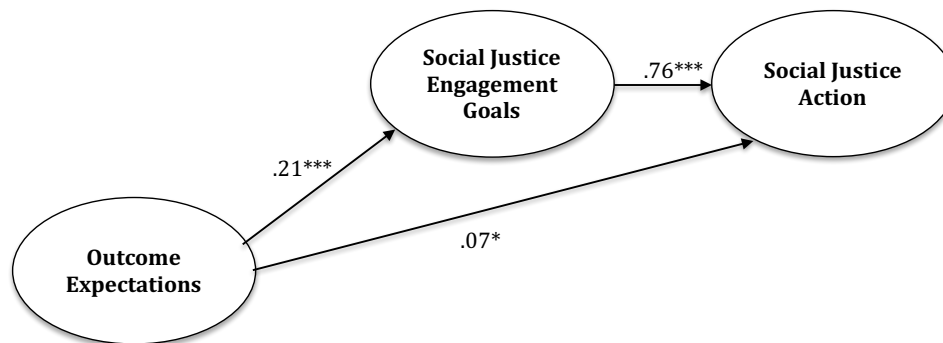


Figure 5.3 Model of Outcome Expectations and Social Justice Choices

Expecting positive change when engaging in social justice work had a small direct effect on the frequency in which people engaged in social justice actions ($\beta = .07$). These outcome

expectations had a stronger indirect effect on social justice action through social justice engagement goals. In other words, the more people expected their social justice efforts to result in positive change, the more they tended to set goals to engage in social justice ($\beta = .21$). Setting these goals was also positively related to engagement in social justice ($\beta = .76$).

Testing the Social Cognitive Variables

After examining the relationships in the three smaller models, I combined the models and added the remaining hypothesized relationships to be tested. This model included all of the social cognitive variables and latent constructs. The results of the model fit indices indicated good model fit [RMSEA = .06, C.I. (.06, .06), CFI = .91, TLI = .90, SRMR = .07].

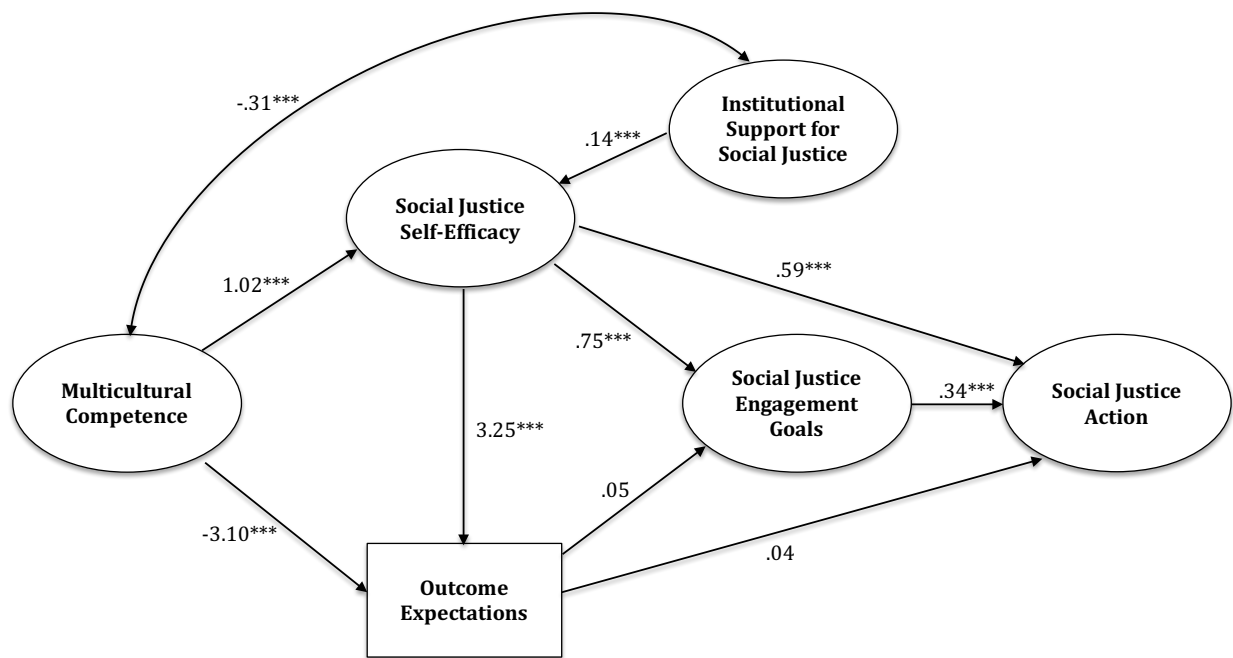


Figure 5.4 Preliminary Social Cognitive Model

As previously stated, I was particularly interested in examining the relationships between multicultural competence, social justice self-efficacy, and perceptions of institutional support for social justice. In this model, both having higher ratings of multicultural competence and perceiving the institution to be supportive of social justice were positive predictors of higher

ratings of social justice self-efficacy. However, multicultural competence had a stronger effect on social justice self-efficacy ($\beta = 1.02$) when compared to the effect of institutional support ($\beta = .14$). Similar to Figure 5.1, the relationship between multicultural competence and one's perception of their institutional support for social justice was negative, indicating that with higher ratings of multicultural competence came lower perceptions of the institution's support efforts.

Interpreting path coefficients greater than 1 is not uncommon nor impossible in SEM (Joreskog, 1999), however, it can also be an indication of multicollinearity issues among latent variables. Because the multicultural competence and social justice-self-efficacy constructs were correlated at .86, I hypothesized that this high correlation was probably the cause of the high Beta coefficients so I made plans to explore model modifications in the next section.

After evaluating the relationships between multicultural competence, social justice self-efficacy, and institutional support, I was ultimately interested in understanding the pathways to social justice choices. As a reminder, social justice choices included both setting goals to engage in social justice, as well as actually taking action. The smaller model that investigated the relationship between expected outcomes and social justice choices revealed a positive and significant relationship between outcome expectations and social justice goals and a small positive relationship between outcome expectations and social justice actions. But once these latent constructs were entered as a part of the larger conceptual model, the role of outcome expectations contributed little to no effect on social justice choices. Additionally, the effect of social justice self-efficacy and multicultural competence on outcome expectations was distorted, likely due to the high collinearity between the two constructs.

Social justice self-efficacy had a strong positive relationship with social justice goals. That is, people with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy also tended to set goals to engage in social justice ($\beta = .75$). People with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy also tended to engage in social justice actions ($\beta = .59$). Ultimately, regardless of what contributed to the choice to set goals to engage in social justice, setting goals was consistently a positive predictor of taking actions toward social justice ($\beta = .34$).

Testing the Role of Personal Backgrounds

Finally, after exploring the relationships between the social cognitive variables, I wanted to know more about how personal backgrounds contribute to the model. Specifically, I investigated the roles of personal characteristics (i.e., race and gender) and background contexts (i.e., childhood social class and education level) on ratings of multicultural competence. Additionally, because personal characteristics both influence a lifetime of learning experiences and also how individuals perceive or interact with their current contexts, I tested the roles of race and gender on perceptions of institutional support to engage in social justice. Interestingly, the addition of personal backgrounds (individually and collectively) did not improve (and often compromised) the model fit indices. As such, I will report on the individual effects of these variables on multicultural competence and perceptions of institutional support but will not include personal backgrounds in the final model.

Race. Being “only white” had a positive effect on perceptions of the institutional environment ($\beta = .20$), meaning that people who identified exclusively as white tended to perceive their institutional environment as supportive of social justice. That also meant that people who did not identify as “only white” were less likely to see their environment as supportive. People who were “only white” also tended to rate their multicultural competence

lower than did their peers of other racial groups ($\beta = -.22$). This meant that not identifying as “only white” was also related to higher levels of multicultural competence. Adding race to the model also reduced the effect of institutional support such that it became smaller and insignificant. This finding suggests that personal characteristics, or at least race, can explain enough of the variance in self-efficacy (through multicultural competence) that institutional support is no longer an influential variable.

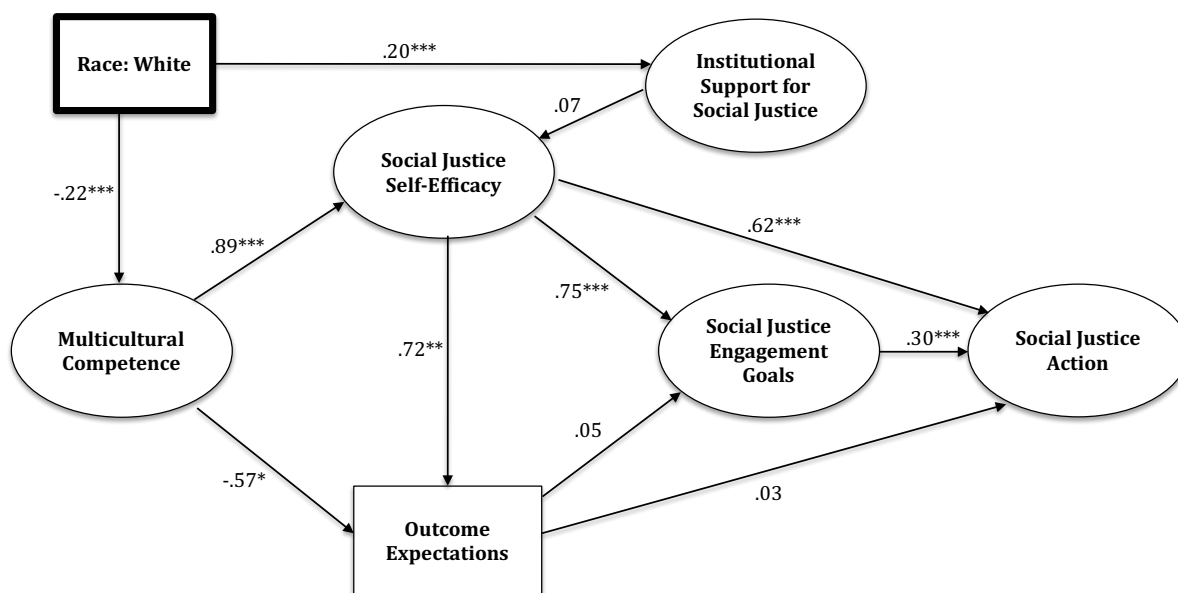


Figure 5.5 Model with Core Social Cognitive Variables and Race

Gender. The next model examined the role of gender on the social justice choice process. This analysis only included respondents who indicated either male or female. Being male had a significant positive relationship with ratings of multicultural competence ($\beta = .13$), meaning that men tended to rate their multicultural competence higher than did women. The relationship between gender and perceived support to engage in social justice was insignificant, indicating that gender did not have a strong effect on perceptions of institutional support.

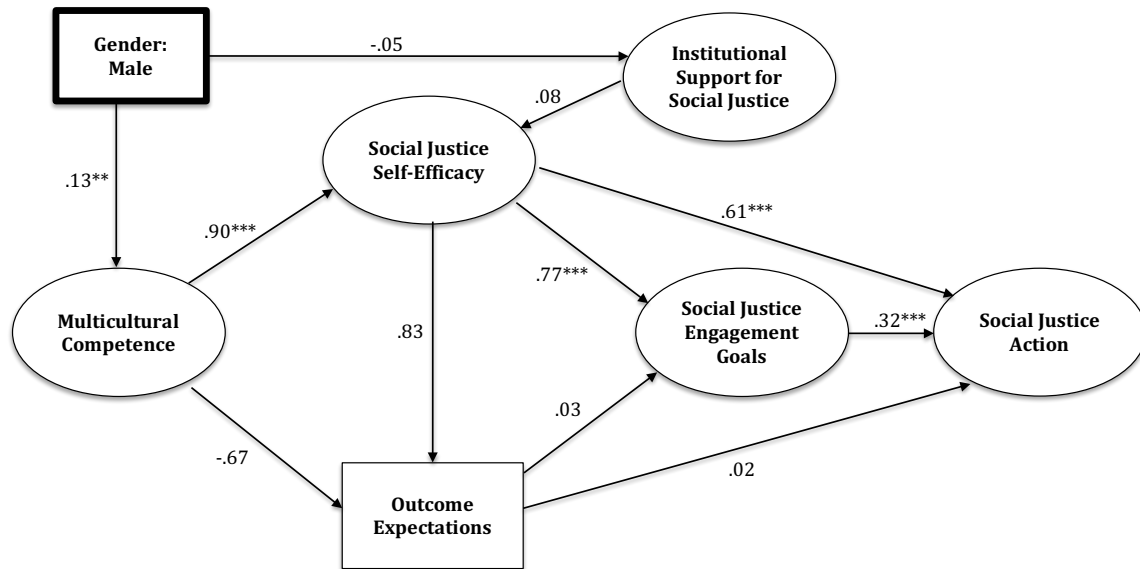


Figure 5.6 Model with Core Social Cognitive Variables and Gender

Education Level. Education level functions as a background context that affords individuals opportunities and access to experiences that could shape their multicultural competence. One's education level had a significant effect on multicultural competence in that the more formal education one had received, the higher they also tended to rate their multicultural competence. Specifically, SA professionals who did not have a bachelor's degree rated their multicultural competence lower than did their peers with bachelor's degrees ($\beta = -1.09$). And people who had master's or professional/doctoral degrees rated their multicultural competence higher when compared to people with bachelor's degrees ($\beta = .47$ and $.68$ respectively). This finding suggests the use of education as a means toward developing competence in SA professionals.

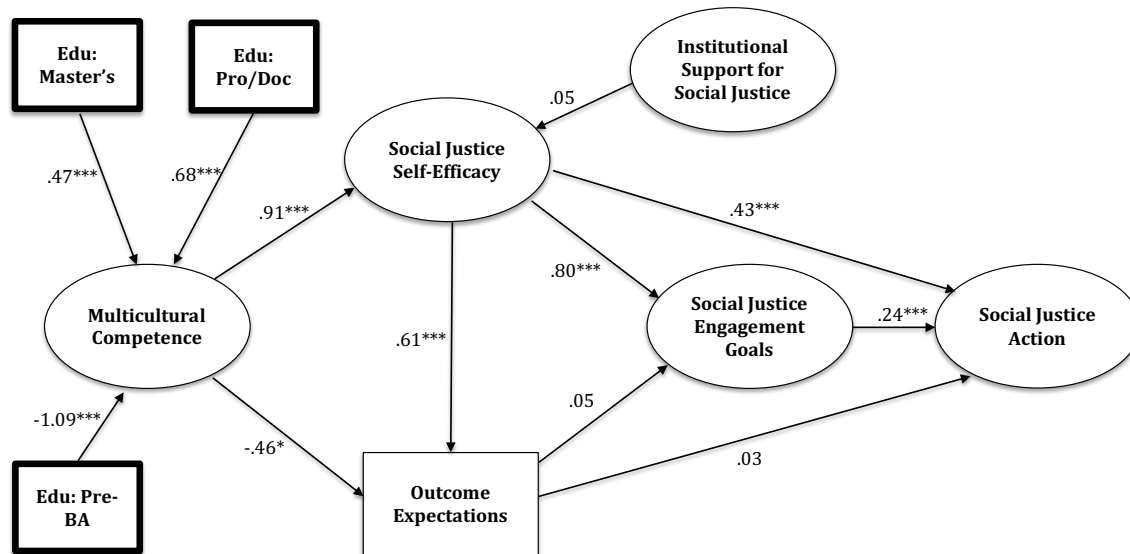


Figure 5.7 Model with Core Social Cognitive Variables and Education Level

Childhood Social Class. The childhood social class of SA professionals had a negative effect on multicultural competence ($\beta = -.10$). The results suggest that the more affluent SA professionals were growing up, the lower their self-ratings of multicultural competence today. This finding aligns with what might be expected given that people from affluent backgrounds are better able to self-select in, and out, of uncomfortable learning environments such as those required to develop multicultural competence and critical consciousness. This self-selection, combined with persistently racially homogenous neighborhoods in the U.S. may, over time, effect the development of multicultural competence for SA professionals from more affluent backgrounds. Conversely, SA professionals from less affluent backgrounds may not be able to self-select into learning environments and may be more inclined to be interested in learning more about how to address social issues related to the distribution of resources.

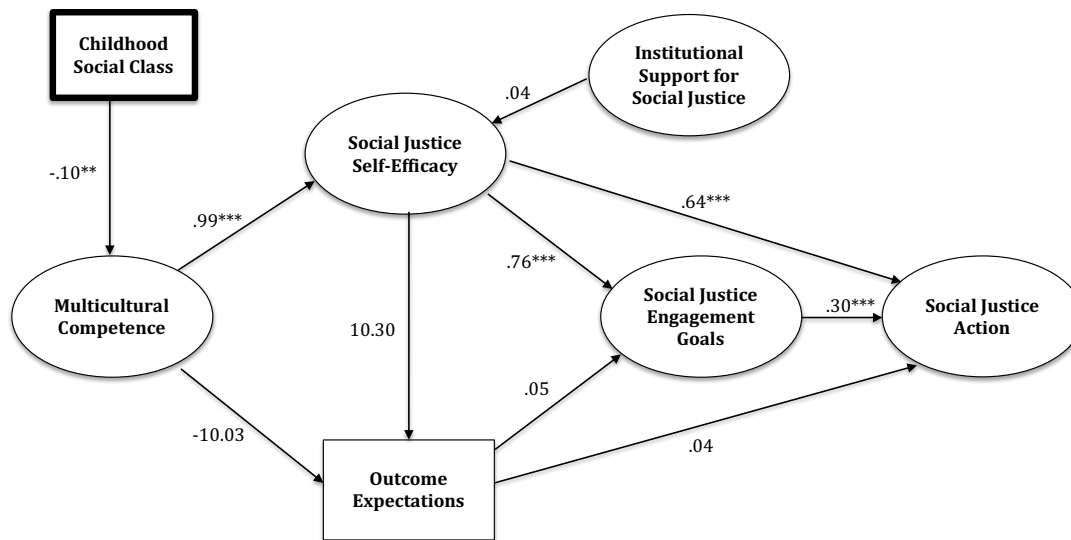


Figure 5.8 Model with Core Social Cognitive Variables and Childhood Social Class

Modifications

There were two primary issues that emerged through the structural modeling process. First, multicultural competence was highly correlated with social justice self-efficacy. Second, the effect of outcome expectations in the model was distorted by the proposed relationships between multicultural competence, social justice self-efficacy, and institutional support. I utilized the modification indices and theoretical knowledge to propose two areas of modifications to the social cognitive model: (1) modifications to resolve multicollinearity between multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy; and (2) modifications to test the effect of institutional support on outcome expectations.

Modifications to Multicultural Competence and Social Justice Self-Efficacy

The first modification I proposed was to try removing multicultural competence from the model completely to explore what, if any, changes would occur to the model fit indices. Although it did resolve the inflated coefficients between social justice self-efficacy and outcome expectations ($\beta = .19, p \leq .01$), the model fit indices all exceeded the established thresholds,

indicating poor model fit [RMSEA = .10, C.I. (.10, .10); CFI = .73; TLI = .72; SRMR = .24].

The results suggest that even though multicultural competence and social justice-self efficacy are highly related, they do contribute uniquely to improve the model. As a result of this finding, I decided to try one more modification to multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy to resolve their interrelatedness.

The second modification I proposed was to combine multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy into a broader construct—social justice preparedness. Even though multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy are conceptually different, social justice preparedness explains both one's competence and the confidence to put that competence into practice. This construct was potentially useful as it captures both of the original constructs while also allowing for a more interpretable understanding of their relationships with the other variables in the model. The results of this modification did remedy the issue of collinearity, but did not greatly affect the model fit [RMSEA = .06, C.I. (.06, .06); CFI = .90; TLI = .90; SRMR = .07].

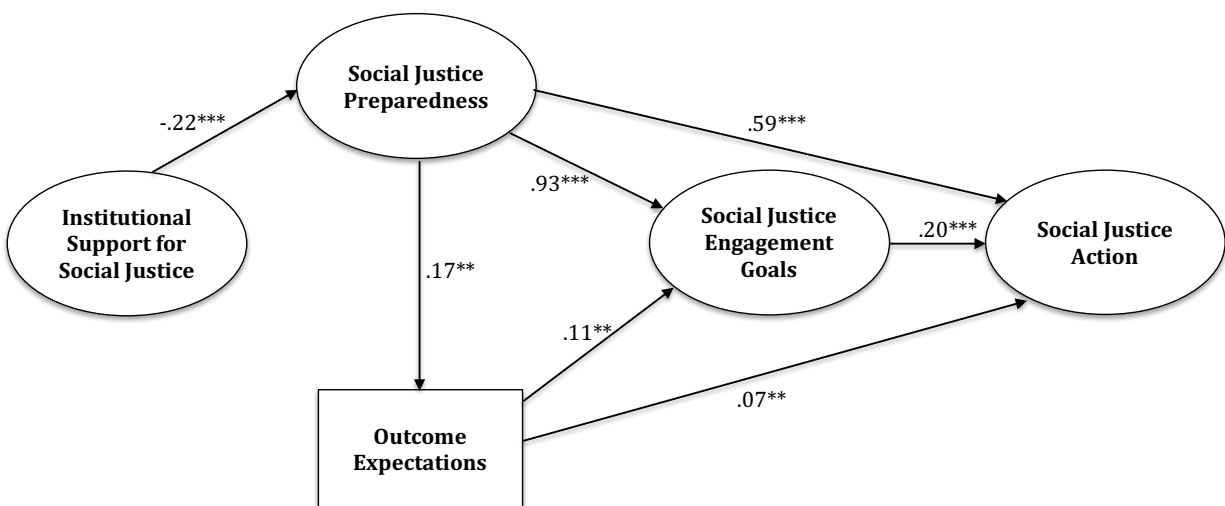


Figure 5.9 Social Cognitive Model with Social Justice Preparedness

Modifications to Predictors of Outcome Expectations

The third modification I proposed was to test the direct effect of the institutional environment on outcome expectations in the model. Model modification indices suggested that the model could be improved by adding a direct effect of institutional support on outcome expectations (M.I. = 60). This suggested modification appeared in the modification indices for both the initial social cognitive model presented in Figure 5.4 and the adapted model in Figure 5.9. In addition to the modification indices, I had a few theoretical justifications for this modification. One study (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011) utilizing SCCT to study social justice improved their model fit when they added a direct relationship between the environment and outcome expectations, rather than solely mediating that relationship by self-efficacy. This finding led me to hypothesize that having an environment that supports social justice might also nurture the belief that *if* one were to engage, they would see change. It would make sense, then, to add that direct relationship to the model to examine how much outcome expectations are influenced by the environment, generally, as well as how much the environment influences outcome expectations in comparison to the influence of self-efficacy.

Further, in Chapter 3, I hypothesized that there may be a group of SA professionals who engage in social justice for extrinsic reasons. I posited that this extrinsically motivated group of people would be largely motivated by higher perceptions of support to engage in social justice. This perceived support would also influence their ratings of social justice self-efficacy and social justice actions. Although this relationship did not emerge, I would amend that hypothesis to state that SA professionals who are extrinsically motivated by their institutions' support to engage in social justice might also have greater outcome expectations, regardless of their social justice self-efficacy.

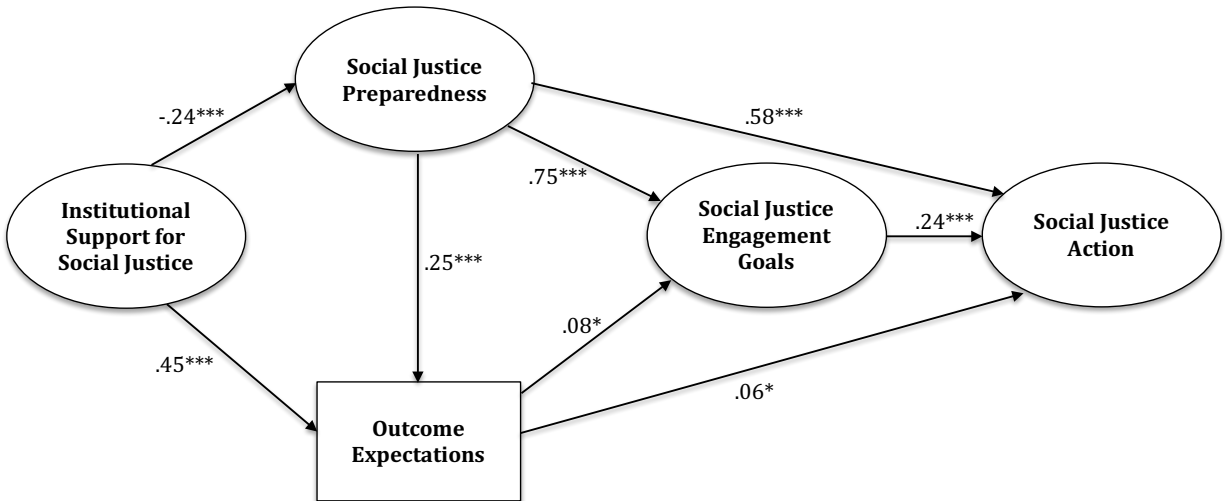


Figure 5.10 Final Social Cognitive Model with Direct Relationship between Institutional Support and Outcome Expectations

The results of this modification supported this hypothesis in that perceptions of institutional support for social justice had a positive direct effect on outcome expectations ($\beta = .45***$). The model fit indices for this model remained stable [RMSEA = .06 C.I. (.05, .06); CFI = .91; TLI = .91; SRMR = .07].

Chapter Summary

This part of the study sought to understand how well a social cognitive model explains the role of personal backgrounds, multicultural competence, social justice self-efficacy, and institutional support as predictors of social justice choices. The results of this chapter suggest that the proposed models adequately fit the data. A noteworthy component to this study was to investigate the role of personal characteristics and background contexts in self-ratings of multicultural competence and perceptions of institutional support to engage in social justice. Although the demographic variables did not contribute well to the final model, it was clear that many of these characteristics are related to ratings of multicultural competence, generally. Formal education was positively related to higher ratings of multicultural competence and being “only white,” female, and from an affluent background were related to lower ratings of

multicultural competence. Gender did not have a significant relationship with perceptions of institutional support, however SA professionals who identified as “not white or not only white” tended to perceive their institution as less supportive of social justice work.

Two primary pathways toward social justice choices emerged as a result of the social cognitive model: through social justice preparedness (i.e. multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy) and through institutional support. Through the building of the model, I identified multicultural competence as an important precursor to social justice self-efficacy, as evidenced by their high correlations. Multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy provided the strongest pathway to social justice goals and actions. And although SA professionals with higher ratings of multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy also tended to rate their institution as unsupportive of social justice, this perception did not appear to deter them from ultimately engaging in social justice action.

As evidenced by the final model, despite the negative relationship between perceptions of institutional support and social justice preparedness, there were still SA professionals whose perception of support was positive and this was positively related to their outcome expectations and social justice choices. The positive relationship between institutional support and outcome expectations was actually stronger than the negative relationship between institutional support and social justice self-efficacy indicating that social justice self-efficacy may be less reliant on context, compared to outcome expectations. Nonetheless, the pathway from institutional support to social justice goals and actions weakened as it was mediated by outcome expectations. And even when social justice self-efficacy had a positive effect on outcome expectations, the influence of outcome expectations on social justice goals and actions was much weaker than social justice self-efficacy’s effect on these same choices.

Ultimately, of the two pathways to social justice choices, social justice preparedness (i.e., multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy) appears to be a more reliable pathway to predicting social justice choices compared to the institutional support. The implications of this finding suggest that institutions that strive to encourage social justice behaviors may benefit more from focusing efforts on developing individuals than on focusing efforts on being perceived as supportive of social justice. The challenge remains that the more SA professionals develop a critical consciousness, the more they are likely to be critical of the institution, and may therefore have more experiences that contribute to their perception of the institutional environment as unsupportive. The implications of these findings will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Six.

Chapter Six: Discussion and Conclusion

This study sought to understand both the person and environment aspects of social justice work, their relationships with one another, and to capture the current state of social justice efforts for SA professional organizations, institutions, and SA professionals. To these ends, this study utilized three frameworks—Multicultural Competence, Campus Climate, and Social Cognitive Career Theory—to investigate the social cognitive process of engaging in social justice within the context of a SA career.

To achieve this goal, I first sought to understand the current state of social justice messages in SA professional organizations, and at a diverse sample of higher education institutions across the United States. I wanted to understand what messages were being sent regarding what social justice means, and what approaches should be taken to achieve it. From these messages I made inferences regarding the priority of social justice currently in Student Affairs. This part of the study provided a snapshot of institutions across the U.S. and the ways in which they are promoting (or not promoting) social justice. I then also investigated how well these current messages align with what scholars (Iverson and Bensimon) say we should be doing.

Part II sought to better understand the process that leads to social justice choices for the average SA professional. Through the proposed social cognitive framework, I aimed to understand the role of multicultural competence as well as the influence of the institutional environment as promoters or inhibitors of social justice work. I also wanted to explore the use of a social cognitive model as a way of conceptualizing social justice choices for SA professionals within the context of their career. Exploring this model also provided insight into the role of the environment and indicated potential areas for future studies. Collectively, this study provides a snapshot of where we are at as a field related to social justice today.

This chapter will discuss the findings from both parts of the study, first separately and then in conjunction with one another, exploring what the study suggests as approaches that would lead to social justice choices. I will then advance a final social cognitive theoretical model and provide examples of the model's application to SA professionals and the choice process. I will then conclude by exploring the implications of the study for research and practice and propose areas for future research.

Discussion

Part I Summary of Findings and Discussion

Part I explored the alignment of social justice messages from two SA professional organizations and forty institutions across the United States to understand what these messages suggest collectively and separately about the priority of social justice in Student Affairs. The findings suggest that social justice is one of many competing priorities, appearing in around 1/5 of the total documents analyzed for the study. Even so, 235 social justice messages were analyzed, finding that both professional organizations and institutions prioritize equity framings of social justice and advance education as the primary approach to achieving it. Overall, professional organizations and institutions tended to focus on person-level efforts more than structural-level change. And organizations and institutions advanced advocacy/activism only half the time they advanced educational approaches. Framing social justice through equity aligns with the social justice frameworks advanced by Iverson (2012) and Bensimon (2005), but what is missing is the equal priority of advancing structural-level change as much as person-level change. Additionally, although education can be a powerful approach to social justice, people who are designing the messages at both the professional and institutional level should take care

to advance the role of education around action-oriented outcomes to ensure that constituents are moving beyond knowledge acquisition toward enacting change.

The patterns regarding where social justice messages occurred identified three themes. First, private institutions send more social justice messages than public institutions. Second, although private and public institutions send similar messages regarding the meaning of social justice, public institutions do not send messages regarding approaches to social justice, virtually at all. And third, religion/spirituality as an approach to social justice seemed to bolster efforts toward social justice, given that religious institutions and some private institutions tended to talk about social justice more and often within the context of spiritual, religious, or faith-based approaches. Additionally, all six of the institutions that did not have any social justice messages were non-religious.

The misalignment between public and private institutions' social justice messages suggests that social justice is a greater priority at private institutions and that public institutions have work to do regarding social justice. The prominence of social justice across private institutions is noteworthy given that public institutions' missions are often grounded in higher education as a public good and the desire to serve the local community. With that said, private institutions, both religious and non-religious, are often mission driven and may be better positioned to spread social justice aspects of their mission and strategic goals to different parts of their campus. Additionally, private institutions may feel they have more latitude to address social justice issues given that their funding is less tied to state budgets and policies. Affirmative action and anti-affirmative action legislation have perhaps influenced how public institutions speak about diversity, equity, and inclusion goals or initiatives. But what are public institutions missing out on if they are, in essence, only proposing social justice as a value but are not advancing

approaches to achieving it? Ultimately, private institutions prioritizing social justice is a promising finding given that they are not centrally positioned within a system of higher education meant to advance the local community. The fact that private organizations are not obligated, yet still value social justice, could be seen as a positive indicator of the potential for higher education as a field to continue to advance issues of social justice, outside of obligation.

Religion/spirituality as an approach to social justice may be a sustaining way of engaging with social justice issues. At the same time, the frequency of social justice messages related to religion/spirituality does not necessarily mean that social justice behaviors are happening more often at those institutions. Still, the disconnect between the occurrence of these messages at the institutional level compared to the professional level is potentially detrimental for SA professionals who want to align their institutional values with professional values. The existence of professional organizations, such as Jesuit Association of Student Personnel Administrators (JASPA), perhaps bridges this disconnect for SA professionals who want to align their institution's framing of social justice with a professional organization. However, the lack of articles centering faith-based approaches highlights the absence of access to empirical data supporting faith-based approaches and efforts toward social justice. Additionally, religious/spiritual approaches could help areas such as the Midwest and Southeastern U.S. advance more social justice work. States in this region (Region 1) did not have as many social justice messages compared to the east and west coasts. Given that this region is characterized by religious beliefs and the value of civic responsibility, institutions in this region could perhaps build momentum toward social justice by appealing to these values.

Part II Summary of Findings and Discussion

Part II of this study sought to understand how a social cognitive model could help us (i.e., higher education researchers and practitioners) understand the role of personal backgrounds, multicultural competence, institutional environments, and social justice self-efficacy in predicting social justice choices for SA professionals. The hypotheses for this part of the study centered around four sub-questions under Research Question 2: (a) How do personal backgrounds (i.e. personal characteristics, background contexts) influence social justice choices? (b) How does multicultural competence influence social justice choices? (c) How does the institutional environment influence social justice choices? (d) How does social justice self-efficacy influence social justice choices? In the following section I revisit the hypothesis stated in Chapter 3 and discuss what the findings of Part II indicate regarding the validity of these hypotheses.

Hypothesis 2a.i. *Personal backgrounds will predict social justice choices indirectly through their influence on multicultural competence. Specifically, people who identify with socially subordinated groups will have more access to learning opportunities that develop multicultural competence. Multicultural competence then influences social justice self-efficacy and outcome expectations leading to social justice choices.*

The personal backgrounds investigated for this study were race, gender, childhood social class, and education level. The hypothesis that people who identify with socially subordinated groups would have more developed multicultural competence proved to be true when testing the role of race and childhood social class. That is, people who were “not white or not only white” tended to have higher ratings of multicultural competence. This competence had a significant positive relationship with social justice self-efficacy but a significant negative relationship with

outcome expectations. In the model that included race as an exogenous variable, outcome expectations did not significantly relate to social justice choices and so was not deemed to be a good pathway. So when it came to investigating the role of race on social justice choices, the only significant pathway was from multicultural competence through social justice self-efficacy.

SA professionals who grew up in less affluent households tended to have higher ratings of multicultural competence than people who grew up in more affluent households. When including childhood social class as an exogenous variable, multicultural competence had no significant effect on outcome expectations and the relationship between outcome expectations and social justice goals and actions were also insignificant. The only significant pathway to social justice choices was through multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy.

When gender was entered into the model, women (who are historically socially subordinated compared to men) did not have higher ratings of multicultural competence as I had hypothesized. Instead, men tended to rate their multicultural competence higher than women. Although this does not align with what I hypothesized, it does align with the fact that men tend to rate themselves more highly on survey measures, generally. The pathway to social justice choices looked similar to the models with race and childhood social class in that the only significant pathway to choices was through multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy.

Additionally, there was a positive relationship between higher levels of education and higher ratings of multicultural competence, indicating that more formal learning experiences may influence ratings of multicultural competence. The pathway to social justice choices was the same for this model, as well.

The literature generally supports the idea that personal characteristics, especially self-identification with socially subordinated groups or identities, tend to lead to a learning experiences and commitment to social justice (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003; Landreman et al., 2007; martinez, 2012; Ortiz & Patton, 2012). The findings of this study support this idea, overall, however in the case of gender, women did not tend to rate their multicultural competence as higher than men. Additionally, while higher multicultural competence led to higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy, having positive outcome expectations as a result of higher multicultural competence did not prove true when accounting for all of the personal backgrounds. This finding suggests that the strongest pathway toward social justice goals and actions, after accounting for personal characteristics, is through multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2a.ii. *Personal backgrounds predict social justice choices through their influence on perceptions of institutional environments. In other words, people who identify with socially subordinated groups will be more likely to perceive their institutional environment as unsupportive of social justice than their peers of dominant identity groups. This may then have a negative influence on social justice self-efficacy ratings. Social justice self-efficacy then influences social justice goals and actions directly but also through outcome expectations.*

For this study I investigated the role of race and gender on perceptions of the institutional environment. My findings did not entirely support this hypothesis. Race did have a significant positive relationship with perceptions of institutional support but institutional support had no significant effect on social justice self-efficacy. Ultimately, race explained enough of the variance of social justice self-efficacy (through multicultural competence) that institutional

support was no longer an influential variable. The role of gender did not have a significant effect on perceptions of institutional support.

The only known study that has investigated how personal characteristics can influence perceptions of the institutional environment found that women and people of color tended to perceive their climate as negative compared to their male and white colleagues respectively (Mayhew, Grunwald, Dey, 2006). The findings from the current study do not support the hypothesis that being female is related to lower perceptions of institutional support when also controlling for differing perceptions of multicultural competence. And although this finding did hold true when examining the role of race, being “only white” did not ultimately have a significant effect on social justice self-efficacy through perceptions of institutional support.

Hypothesis 2b. *Multicultural competence predicts social justice choices indirectly through social justice self-efficacy and outcome expectations. In other words, people who have higher ratings of multicultural competence will have higher social justice self-efficacy ratings and expected outcomes when holding everything else constant.*

The findings of this study support the hypothesis that people with higher ratings of multicultural competence will also have higher social justice self-efficacy ratings. But the findings do not support the idea that people with higher ratings of multicultural competence will have greater outcome expectations. In all of the models, multicultural competence had a significant, positive relationship with social justice self-efficacy. The relationship between multicultural competence and outcome expectations was typically negative and only occasionally significant. Part of the issue in evaluating the relationships between multicultural competence and outcome expectations stemmed from the multicollinearity between multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy. In fact, when multicultural competence and social justice self-

efficacy were combined to capture social justice preparedness, preparedness did have a positive and significant relationship with outcome expectations. Nevertheless, the most reliable pathway from multicultural competence to social justice choices was through social justice self-efficacy.

No known studies exist that have explored the relationship between multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy, directly. Still, this finding supports the relationships proposed through the SCCT framework. Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller (2014) argue that increased competence leads to increased confidence to put their competence into practice. This finding is supported by the current study.

Hypothesis 2c. *The institutional environment influences social justice choices through social justice self-efficacy. In other words, perceptions that environments are unsupportive of social justice will influence social justice choices by lowering one's social justice self-efficacy.*

This hypothesis was supported in the original social cognitive model that controlled for multicultural competence. In the initial models, the relationship between institutional support and social justice self-efficacy was small but positive and significant. However, when multicultural competence was combined with social justice self-efficacy, their combined relationship with institutional support was negative.

Beyond this initial hypothesis, I also hypothesized in Chapter Five that the institutional environment would influence social justice choices through outcome expectations. I found this hypothesis to be true. In the final model, the institutional environment had a stronger positive relationship with outcome expectations than the negative relationship it had with social justice preparedness. This meant that people with positive perspectives of their institutional environment tended to anticipate change as an expected outcome of engaging in social justice work. These

positive outcome expectations do have a small but significant effect, then, on social justice goals and actions.

These findings align with existing literature that found perceptions of the environment to directly influence social justice self-efficacy (Sheu, Rigali-Olier, & Lent, 2012; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). But as I highlighted in the model modifications in Chapter Five, one study (Miller, et al., 2009) improved their model fit by adding a relationship between the environment and outcome expectations. The findings from the current study suggest that for this sample of SA professionals, institutional environment had a stronger relationship with outcome expectations than it did with social justice self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2d.i. *Social justice self-efficacy influences social justice goals and actions directly but also indirectly through outcome expectations. In other words, people with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy will be more likely to set goals and take action toward social justice. Additionally, people with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy will be more likely to expect positive outcomes as a result of social justice actions and those outcome expectations will also positively influence the choice to set goals and take action toward social justice.*

The findings from this study support the first part of the hypothesis: social justice self-efficacy consistently had a significant, positive relationship with social justice goals and actions. And although in the preliminary social cognitive model (Figure 4.5) higher ratings of outcome expectations were not related to social justice goals or actions, outcome expectations did have a small but significant relationship with social justice goals and actions after multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy were combined in the model to represent preparedness (Figure 5.9).

Although no known studies had previously tested the relationship between social justice self-efficacy and social justice choices for SA professionals, studies on other populations found self-efficacy to influence social justice goals directly but also through outcome expectations (Miller et al., 2009; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011; Sheu, Rigali-Oiler, & Lent, 2012). The current study ultimately aligned with existing literature. However, the path from social justice self-efficacy to social justice choices through outcome expectations was insignificant until self-efficacy was combined with multicultural competence.

Hypothesis 2d.ii. *Social justice self-efficacy influences social justice actions directly but also indirectly through social justice goals. In other words, SA professionals with higher ratings of social justice self-efficacy will be more likely to set social justice goals that will predict social justice action. Additionally, some SA professionals may have a high rating of social justice self-efficacy that does not predict social justice goals but will relate to social justice action. These individuals will also rate their institutional environment as highly supportive of social justice.*

Social justice self-efficacy was consistently a significant positive predictor of social justice actions both directly, and through social justice goals. The hypothesis that some SA professionals would have high social justice self-efficacy but not social justice goals did not emerge in the data. In fact, the relationship between social justice self-efficacy and social justice goals was stronger than the relationship between social justice self-efficacy and social justice actions. The rationale behind the second part of the hypothesis, however, remained justifiable within the data. By hypothesizing a new pathway in the model modification section of Chapter Five, I was able to identify a similar pathway related to extrinsic motivation for social justice. Essentially, people who rated their environment as supportive were more likely to have more positive outcome expectations, social justice goals, and actions.

Although no known studies have tested the influence of social justice self-efficacy on social justice actions, SCCT, overall, supports these relationships. The literature supports the extrinsically motivated relationship between institutional support and outcome expectations that would then lead to social justice goals and actions. Namely, Kezar & Lester (2011), and Leon (2014) found that collaborative environments can influence organizational change efforts, suggesting the role that one's work environment can play in encouraging beliefs that the outcomes of engaging in social justice work would result in change.

Overarching Approaches toward Social Justice

This study adds to a small body of empirical literature on SA professionals and combines two larger bodies of existing work—multicultural competence and campus climate—into a unifying social cognitive framework. Through this study, I sought to provide an enhanced understanding of the psychosocial process and consider the unique influences of the institutional and professional environment on the current state of social justice messages in higher education contexts. Common themes emerged from both Part I and Part II regarding how social justice is conceptualized and advanced today. These themes also provide insight into new approaches to furthering efforts toward social justice. Two primary themes flowed across both Part I and II of the study related to education and person-level initiatives as effective tools for social justice.

Education as a Tool for Social Justice. Across both Part I and Part II, education emerged as a common tool or approach toward social justice. Education was the most common approach toward social justice advanced in both the professional organizations' and institutions' documents. Additionally, education level was a significant variable in explaining higher ratings of multicultural competence. Education may be a popular approach given that it is easy to incorporate into the educational mission of higher education. Education also does not initially

require action when compared to advocacy or activism so it might be more palatable to a broader SA professional population. Although it is not clear to what extent the educational approaches advanced in the content analysis included action-oriented material, the findings from the SEM suggest that formal educational environments provide a space for knowledge, awareness, and skill acquisition that improves the social justice self-efficacy necessary for effective social justice action. Iverson (2012) and Bensimon (2005) both argue the importance of education that is designed to intentionally stir discomfort through the learning process. Educational approaches must develop privileged-cognizant and critically conscious SA professionals.

Person-level Initiatives as Effective Pathways for Social Justice. Both Part I and II advance person-level initiatives toward social justice. The content analysis revealed equity as the primary framing of social justice but emphasized person-level equity more often than structural-level equity. Although in Chapter Four I briefly discuss the fact that institutions and professional organizations should also make efforts to include structural-level equity goals in their strategic plans and mission statements, in the SEM, personal development of multicultural competence had a stronger influence on ratings of social justice self-efficacy than did perceptions of the environment. These findings collectively suggest the importance of efforts to develop individual-level competence. The focus on the development of person-level equity frames could have a powerful impact on SA professionals' engagement in social justice actions given the role multicultural competence plays in the social cognitive model.

The role of person-level initiatives and education as a tool for social justice suggest that social justice action is currently best achieved through the development of individual SA professionals rather than the promotion of social justice values. In fact, the SEM revealed that SA professionals with higher ratings of multicultural competence were likely to rate their

institution as less supportive of social justice efforts; yet, despite this rating, these professionals still had high ratings of social justice self-efficacy, identified social justice goals, and engaged in social justice actions. It is logical that SA professionals with developed multicultural competence might be more critical of their institution and therefore perceive it as less supportive of social justice efforts. At the same time, institutions should strive to find ways that encourage SA professionals to be critical of the institution, while also maintaining a perception that the institution is supportive of social justice efforts. In theory, building a coalition of SA professionals who are competent and efficacious around social justice should eventually lead to institutional change. However, continuing to focus primarily on education as a tool for social justice may not provide enough action-oriented outcomes to achieve this goal. Education and person-level initiatives show promise toward the goal of social justice, however, institutions and professional organizations must strive to send more messages and take steps toward structural change.

Advancing a Theoretical Model

Utilizing a social cognitive model to explain social justice for Student Affairs allowed for theoretical contributions across all three of the frameworks utilized for this study. In this next section I will present the primary findings related to these frameworks separately and then how they collectively advance our understandings of the social cognitive process of social justice-related career behavior for SA professionals.

The Multicultural Competence literature advanced multicultural competence as an important precursor to diversity and social justice work, but did not identify the pathway to putting competence into action. This study found multicultural competence to be closely related to social justice self-efficacy and was an important latent construct in the social cognitive model.

These findings suggest the importance of the development of multicultural competence as a way of advancing social justice goals and action.

This study contributes to Campus Climate literature as it explored the relationships between external and internal forces, namely the professional organizations and institutional climates for social justice. This study also tested the influence of internal institutional forces on individual actions through the latent construct of institutional support for social justice. The findings of this study suggest that external and internal forces may send different messages regarding the priority of social justice in Student Affairs. Future studies could apply the social cognitive framework to explore the influence these different messages have on social justice actions. The findings from the current study support the campus climate framework in that internal forces did influence social justice behaviors and that individual cognitive frames influenced perceptions of the environment, as well.

This study was the first known study to adapt Social Cognitive Career Theory and apply it to social justice goals and actions in Student Affairs. The findings from this study support the use of social cognitive framings of social justice behavior for SA professionals. They also support the role of self-efficacy as a crucial precursor to behaviors. This study added multicultural competence as an important and specific outcome of learning experiences that would predict self-efficacy. The contributions multicultural competence made to the overall model fit suggest that its addition improves the explanation of social cognitive variables that predict social justice choice behavior.

This study also found that one specific representation of the environment—institutional support for social justice—did not have as great of an effect on social justice goals and actions as SCCT would predict when positioned in the original model. This finding suggests the importance

of preparedness over environment when predicting social justice behaviors for SA professionals. Additionally, after modifying the model to include a relationship between the institutional environment and outcome expectations, the findings supported Miller and colleagues' (2009) finding that the environment can directly relate to outcome expectations. As both this current study and Miller et al.'s study focused on social justice behaviors, future studies on social justice should consider incorporating this relationship into their conceptual models.

Finally, this study supports the application of an adapted SCCT model to the SA professional career and social justice domains. The next section will do more to discuss how the proposed model can advance our understandings of social justice related behavior in Student Affairs.

Model of Social Justice-Related Career Behavior. Although no previous studies had applied a social cognitive model to understand social justice goals and behaviors in SA professionals, the data from this study adequately fit the proposed model. The model helped to unify two existing bodies of work and provided insight into the relationship between person and environment-level concepts. The model results suggested two primary pathways toward social justice choices for SA professionals. The first pathway was through developed multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy. The second pathway was through institutional support and outcome expectations. These paths are not in contrast with each other. Rather, this study suggests that there may be two broader stages or typologies of social justice behavior. Utilizing the vignettes of Lucy and Anna from Chapter One, I can better explain what these two stages or typologies may look like in practice.

Lucy, the Resident Director at a private institution, had to make a decision about whether or not to advocate for the hiring of more students of color and students from low-income

backgrounds on RA selection day. Lucy identified as a woman of color, she had an awareness of racial and income dynamics within her department, and she also felt confident in her ability to bring up these dynamics in a meeting with her colleagues. Lucy knew that her colleagues might be resistant to her argument based on the previous negative feedback she had received as a result of attempting to address social justice issues in the past. However, in line with what we might expect from a private institution, Lucy did see her institution send messages that it was supportive of engagement in social justice, more broadly. Looking at the elements leading up to Lucy's decision to bring up the issue of race and income at RA selection, we could infer that she would probably follow the first path toward social justice choices by rating herself highly on the measure of multicultural competence and also highly on the measure of social justice self-efficacy. She might be less certain that her behavior will result in changes in attitudes, behaviors, and practices and her institutional environment would probably matter less as a predictor of her engagement. Based on her higher level of social justice preparedness, overall, one might predict that she would ultimately bring up her concerns at the RA selection that day.

In contrast, Anna, the Director of IT at a public institution, was considering volunteering for a social justice initiative. Anna was a white woman who was new to social justice but could see that it was a value at the institution. Although she often felt like it was unclear as to how social justice was to be put into practice, she felt support from her colleagues to engage in social justice. Additionally, she felt pressured by her want to not be seen as bigoted and did ultimately want to help students. Looking at the variables leading up to Anna's decision whether or not to volunteer for this new social justice initiative, we might predict that she would follow the second pathway toward social justice choices by rating her institution as highly supportive of social justice and that she might expect her actions to result in change. She would probably also give

herself lower ratings of multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy given her limited awareness surrounding her racial identity and limited exposure to social justice concepts.

These two vignettes demonstrate how different experiences and motivations might lead to social justice goals and actions. Given the strength of the first pathway to social justice choices compared to the second, Lucy would probably be more likely to engage in her behavior than Anna. Additionally, the literature suggests that Lucy would probably be more effective in her performance of social justice given her higher rating of multicultural competence (Iverson, 2012; Pope, et al., 2004; Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992).

Although this study did not investigate the use of this framework to explore social justice development, one can begin to see how this model might be useful in the future to explain the development of social justice self-efficacy and ultimately, a career that includes or does not include social justice work/choices. For example, Anna is just beginning a career that includes social justice as an important value or goal. The existence of social justice messages in her environment has required her to start to think about how social justice relates to her work in IT. And as she begins to engage with social justice, she will also receive positive and negative feedback regarding the ways in which she engages with social justice. The act of engaging in social justice and the feedback (both informal and sometimes formal) that she receives will become learning experiences that will inform future self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and choices to set goals or take action toward social justice. This feedback loop overtime will either reinforce negative attitudes toward social justice, or build competence and self-efficacy that lead to more social justice behaviors. If Anna were to continue to develop around social justice, according to this framework, at some point she would become critical of her professional

environment to the point that her perception of support would be lower than her rating of multicultural competence. What we do not yet know is at what point this shift would occur.

Lucy's experiences with social justice represent a more developed career related to social justice behaviors, however it is likely that at one point, she was in a similar place developmentally as Anna. And although it is possible that this development occurred prior to Lucy entering the field, she may have also taken advantage of opportunities to develop her knowledge, awareness, and skills as a part of her professional development in Student Affairs. Ultimately, these examples provide insight into how the two pathways that emerged in the social cognitive model may relate to the development of social justice self-efficacy, and the strengthening of engagement in social justice choices overtime. Additionally, these findings suggest the role an institution can play in supporting training and development of multicultural competence to nurture the development of social justice self-efficacy and strengthen pathways toward effective social justice action. This support of training is important so that when SA professionals are engaging in social justice action, they are doing so in effective ways.

Implications and Areas for Future Research

The findings of this study have important implications for research and practice.

Implications for Research

This study advances the use of a social cognitive model to conceptualize social justice behaviors for SA professionals. Utilizing this framework enhances our understandings of the relationships between the person and environment as professionals navigate the goals of social justice in higher education. This study found that different institutions advance different ideas or framings of social justice and that these framings do not always align with the ways that professional organizations frame social justice. Future research studies would benefit from

continuing to disaggregate institutions by characteristics to better understand strategic initiatives toward equity and social justice. Future research could also explore the outcomes of utilizing different approaches toward social justice such as education, religion/spirituality, and advocacy/activism. Further, future research could explore the impact of the disconnect or connection between professional organizations and institutions on SA professionals' behavior. And finally, future research could explore if there are differences in the social cognitive model for social justice-related career behavior by institutional characteristics.

This study also identified areas related to the social cognitive variables that have implications for research and future studies. This study found high correlations between multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy. Although the two concepts are theoretically different, the challenge of capturing multicultural competence as a separate construct, as well as capturing the sub-components of multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skill, made it difficult to understand more about the intricate relationship between multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy. The implication of this finding is that researchers need to determine whether or not it is worth continuing to try to study these constructs separately or if their theoretical distinctions are rendered meaningless by their highly interrelated ideas. Although combining the two constructs into social justice preparedness remedied the issues encountered in the survey measures, future studies could design better measures, or investigate the relationship between multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy through different methods.

This study also found a weaker relationship between the environment of support for social justice and social justice self-efficacy. These findings imply that the environment may not play a large determining role in social justice behaviors for SA professionals with developed

social justice self-efficacy. Future studies should continue to test this relationship, as well as expand the model to include different kinds of environments and contexts such as department levels of support, collective levels of multicultural competence or social justice self-efficacy, and other institutional experiences or contexts.

Finally, the results of the SEM recommended multiple second-order factors, namely for social justice self-efficacy and social justice action. Through the EFA in Chapter Five, I developed two second-order factors under social justice self-efficacy that described self-efficacy to engage with social justice on a person-to-person level and self-efficacy to engage in initiatives for social justice. I also developed three second-order factors to describe intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural social justice actions. These findings suggest that theoretical sub-components of social justice self-efficacy and action are measureable and future studies could explore the development of these different theoretical components or their relationships with other constructs in the social cognitive model.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this study have several implications for practice. As administrators evaluate how these findings relate to their institutions, this study provides insight into the environment created by these two pathways and considers how organizational hierarchies and power structures interact with these pathways. As administrators attempt to develop staff who are equipped to navigate challenging and sensitive social issues, this study also provides insight into hiring approaches for social justice and strategies for development. The stories of Lucy and Anna illustrate the roles of various social cognitive elements that influence social justice choices on an individual level. But if we zoom out to a departmental, divisional, or institutional level, we can

envision how multiple SA professionals like Anna or Lucy would also create an environment with differing levels of support and different approaches to engaging with social justice.

Additionally, where SA professionals like Lucy and Anna are situated at the institution probably influences how social justice goals are approached and achieved. For example, if people of color and/or professionals with higher multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy are represented at low or middle levels of the institution and less so in upper level administrator positions, there may be less social justice action happening at the upper levels of the institution. Not only that, the representation of SA professionals at different levels of the institution may also effect perceptions of support to engage in social justice. For example, if upper level administrators are predominantly white and/or have lower ratings of multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy, they are likely to have a greater impact on other SA professionals' perceptions of institutional support for social justice than if they were situated lower at the institution. These dynamics could influence, then, how often SA professionals engage in social justice and ultimately develop their multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy.

Hiring. After considering how these findings apply to existing dynamics in Student Affairs, there are several strategies institutions could adopt in hiring, developing, and providing institutional messaging to practitioners around social justice. With respect to hiring, the findings suggest that hiring practitioners with developed multicultural competence and social justice self-efficacy would lead to more social justice behaviors. Given that people of color were more likely to rate their multicultural competence higher than their white peers, hiring more SA professionals of color would also be a valuable strategy to strengthening efforts toward social justice. Given the visibility of racial diversity, hiring more SA professionals of color might have a stronger

effect on perceptions of support for social justice than simply hiring for competence and self-efficacy.

Development. Administrators should also consider these findings as they work to develop their staff around social justice. Institutions could consider the racial or ethnic composition and education levels of their staffs as indicators of which pathways toward social justice may dominate. For example, this study found that more formal education tended to be related to higher ratings of multicultural self-efficacy. If a staff is comprised of highly educated individuals, it would be more advantageous to plan advanced trainings around social justice, rather than basic concepts. Assessing self-ratings of social justice competence and self-efficacy could also be useful strategies toward understanding what kinds of training or development would be most beneficial.

The difference between the role of institutional support within the two primary pathways toward social justice choices suggest the role that the institution can play at different phases of social justice self-efficacy development. If a division or department is comprised of SA professionals like Anna, efforts toward social justice could focus on education toward multicultural competence to build knowledge, awareness, and skills that would lead to greater levels of social justice self-efficacy. If a division or department is comprised of SA professionals like Lucy, they could focus on coalition-building and strategizing toward organizational change. Overall, institutions should do more to train staff on the procedures required to create policy change, federal and state requirements related to social groups (e.g., protected classes, affirmative action or anti-affirmative action requirements), financial and legal matters related to social issues, strategies for organizing groups for action. Not only would training in these areas

demystify certain pathways toward change, they might also alter perceptions of institutional support for social justice.

Institutional Messaging. After considering approaches to hiring and development toward social justice, the findings of this study have implications for missions, visions, and strategic plans advanced at the institution. All institutions, but especially public institutions, should evaluate their social justice messages and ensure that they are not only communicating social justice as a goal, but that they are also outlining approaches to achieving it. These approaches could include education, but should also include advocacy and activism, as well. All institutions and professional organizations should consider the role of religion and/or spirituality as they seek to engage not only SA professionals, but also students, faculty, and other staff in social justice efforts. And finally, professional organizations and institutions should all strive to advance more action-oriented approaches toward structural-level issues in order to move from person-level development to enacting systemic change. Effective approaches include grassroots organizing, developing skills to plan and implement protests or rallies, understanding the processes toward policy change, and managing difficult and sensitive conversations. Ultimately, institutions should continue to send messages of support regarding social justice as it may encourage SA professionals who are not already inclined to participate in social justice to do so.

Chapter Summary and Conclusion

As institutions are challenged to do more to address inequities, Student Affairs as a field continues to play an important role in social justice efforts. These efforts can greatly affect broader higher education goals to create a positive campus climate for all students, to develop students to participate in a diverse and democratic society, and to serve as transformative institutions by challenging systems of inequality. Despite the role SA professionals play in

advancing these higher education goals, little empirical work has been done to understand SA professionals and the ways in which they engage with social justice. The work that has been done has often explored the process of social justice from a personal development aspect (e.g., multicultural competence, intercultural maturity), or through a focus on organizations and environments (e.g. campus climate, organizational leadership). No known studies have combined these two aspects into one comprehensive study of SA professionals and social justice.

This study advanced a social cognitive model for social-justice related career behavior for SA professionals. Through this model we can begin to understand the relationship between individual SA professionals, their perceptions of their environment, and choices to engage in social justice. The content analysis provided insight into how different institutional messaging can be depending on institutional characteristics, as well as how these messages align with professional organizations. The field of Student Affairs and Higher Education are engaging in social justice efforts, but the findings of this study indicate areas where more work is to be done. This study informs future research and practice-oriented efforts to develop and support social justice goals and actions. These efforts can result in more effective engagement with social justice, leading to a more positive and supportive campus climate for all constituents, including students and staff, and a more adaptive and flexible institutional environment for change.

Appendix A. Institutions for Content Analysis and Survey Sample

Institution Pseudonym	State	Region	Type	Size	Control	Religious	Survey Sample
1	NC	2	Bach/Master	Large	Public		
2	MN	1	Bach/Master	Medium	Public		
3	MA	3	Research	Large	Private	Y	
4	CA	2	Bach/Master	Medium	Public		
5	SC	2	Research	Large	Public		Y
6	VI	2	Research	Medium	Public		Y
7	NY	3	Research	Large	Private		Y
8	NE	1	Bach/Master	Medium	Private	Y	Y
9	IA	1	Bach/Master	Medium	Private		
10	NC	2	Bach/Master	Medium	Private		
11	FL	1	Research	Medium	Private		
12	WA	2	Bach/Master	Medium	Private	Y	Y
13	CA	2	Bach/Master	Medium	Private	Y	Y
14	WI	1	Research	Large	Private	Y	Y
15	WV	3	Bach/Master	Large	Public		
16	MD	3	Research	Medium	Public		
17	NY	3	Research	Large	Private		Y
18	ND	1	Research	Large	Public		Y
19	NJ	3	Research	Medium	Private		
20	NJ	3	Bach/Master	Medium	Private		
21	CA	2	Bach/Master	Medium	Private	Y	Y
22	NJ	3	Research	Medium	Private	Y	
23	PA	3	Bach/Master	Medium	Public		Y
24	CA	2	Bach/Master	Medium	Public		Y
25	TX	3	Research	Medium	Private	Y	Y
26	MN	1	Bach/Master	Medium	Private	Y	
27	NY	3	Bach/Master	Medium	Public		Y
28	AL	1	Bach/Master	Large	Public		
29	CA	2	Research	Large	Public		Y
30	IL	1	Research	Large	Public		Y
31	CA	2	Research	Medium	Private		Y
32	FL	1	Research	Large	Private		
33	PA	3	Research	Large	Public		Y
34	CA	2	Research	Medium	Private	Y	Y
35	PA	3	Bach/Master	Medium	Private	Y	
36	CA	2	Research	Large	Private		
37	MN	1	Research	Medium	Private	Y	
38	WI	1	Bach/Master	Medium	Public		Y
39	PA	3	Bach/Master	Medium	Private	Y	
40	VA	2	Research	Large	Public		Y

Appendix B. Survey Participants by Institution

Institution Pseudonym	Sample N	Total N	Response rate
5	16	100	16.0%
6	31	—	—
7	19	183	10.3%
8	32	—	—
12	18	—	—
13	21	300	7.0%
14	40	153	26.1%
17	5	—	—
18	49	344	14.2%
21	16	40	40.0%
23	11	40	27.5%
24	7	49	14.2%
25	36	124	29.0%
27	39	127	30.7%
29	108	500	21.6%
30	30	140	21.4%
31	18	30	60.0%
33	7	—	—
34	18	—	—
38	23	—	—
40	64	—	—

Some schools were unable to or did not provide population information to calculate response rates

Appendix C. Survey Participant Sample Information

	N	Percent
Gender		
Male	192	30.9
Female	421	67.8
Transgender	2	.3
Genderqueer	5	.8
Other	1	.2
Race or Ethnicity		
African-American/Black	45	7.0
American Indian/Alaskan Native	12	1.9
Asian	41	6.6
Hispanic/Latino	56	9.0
Pacific Islander	6	1.0
Caucasian/White	495	79.7
Other	14	2.3
Childhood social class		
Poor	4	.6
Below Average	50	8.1
Average	371	60.2
Above Average	180	29.2
Wealthy	11	1.8
Highest Level of Education Obtained		
High school graduate – or equivalent	3	.7
Some college	16	3.6
Associate’s degree (including occupational or academic degrees)	12	2.7
Bachelor’s degree (B.A., B.S., etc.)	88	20.0
Master’s degree (M.A., M.S., M.S.W., etc.)	243	55.4
Professional school degree (M.D., J.D., etc.)	16	3.6
Doctorate degree (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.)	61	13.9
Professional Level		
Entry	122	27.9
Mid	258	59.0
Senior	57	13.0

	N	Percent
Member of Professional Organization		
Yes	240	54.1
No	204	45.9
ACPA	67	10.8
NASPA	102	16.4
Functional Area		
Academic Advising Programs	24	3.9
Adult Learner Programs and Services	4	.6
Alcohol and Other Drug Programs	22	3.5
Assessment Services	20	3.2
Auxiliary Services Functional Areas	13	2.1
Campus Activities Programs	66	10.6
Campus Information and Visitor Services	17	2.7
Campus Police and Security Programs	9	1.4
Campus Religious and Spiritual Programs	15	2.4
Career Services	30	4.8
Civic Engagement and Service-Learning Programs	23	3.7
Clinical Health Services	24	3.9
College Honor Society Programs	1	.2
College Unions	28	4.5
Commuter and Off-Campus Living Programs	10	1.6
Conference and Event Programs	21	3.4
Counseling Services	42	6.8
Dining Service Programs	15	2.4
Disability Resources and Services	20	3.2
Education Abroad Programs and Services	3	.5
Financial Aid Programs	7	1.1
Fraternity and Sorority Advising Programs	16	2.6
Graduate and Professional Student Programs and Services	18	2.9
Health Promotion Services	30	4.8
Housing and Residential Life Programs	78	12.6
International Student Programs and Services	17	2.7
Internship Programs	10	1.6
Learning Assistance Programs	6	1.0
Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Programs and Services	24	3.9
Master's Level Student Affairs Professional Preparation Programs	7	1.1
Multicultural Student Programs and Services	35	5.6
Orientation Programs	38	6.1
Parent and Family Programs	23	3.7
Recreational Sports Programs	27	4.3

	N	Percent
Registrar Programs and Services	7	1.1
Sexual Violence-Related Programs and Services	28	4.5
Student Conduct Programs	28	4.5
Student Leadership Programs	59	9.5
Transfer Student Programs and Services	14	2.3
TRIO and Other Educational Opportunity Programs	13	2.1
Undergraduate Admissions Programs and Services	10	1.6
Undergraduate Research Programs	2	.3
Veterans and Military Programs and Services	11	1.8
Women's and Gender Programs and Services	10	1.6
Other	50	8.1

Appendix D. Survey Items Considered for Latent Constructs

Survey Item	Mean	Std. Dev.
Multicultural Competence		
I attend workshops to learn about racial and/or ethnic groups other than my own.	4.92	1.75
Some college students of color may be academically under-prepared because of inequities in primary and secondary schools.	5.39	1.61
I believe White people have certain privileges in society.	5.82	1.72
Past societal injustices still have a negative effect on college students of color.	5.76	1.47
I believe that I must constantly evaluate my world view and how it may affect my interactions with other racial and/or ethnic groups.	5.59	1.58
I believe that being born a person of color in this society presents certain challenges that White people do not have to face.	5.96	1.46
I can discuss at length current issues facing students of color in higher education.	4.69	1.61
I have studied and can discuss at length a racial and/or ethnic group that is different from my own.	4.39	1.70
I believe that my racial and/or ethnic heritage influences my world view, values, and assumptions.	5.62	1.49
I am aware of my limitations in working with students who are racially and/or ethnically different from me and can readily specify these limitations.	4.98	1.39
I am aware of my biases and prejudices when I work with students who are racially and/or ethnically different from me.	5.14	1.33
Within the last month, I can recall a personal interaction where racial dynamics played a significant role.	4.58	2.12
I have taken time to learn about my own racial and/or ethnic heritage.	5.12	1.64
Based on my interactions with others, I have changed some of my beliefs about race and ethnicity.	5.58	1.51
I attempt to learn about races different from my own through reading, attending lectures, and/or conversing with others.	5.55	1.47

Survey Item	Mean	Std. Dev.
I can discuss at length the limitations of student development theories as they apply to students of color.	3.76	1.80
Racial/ethnic identity can affect individuals and their experiences.	6.32	1.06
My definition of multiculturalism has been influenced by a broad range of literature.	4.79	1.59
My definition of multiculturalism has been influenced by my own lived experiences	5.61	1.27
I can cite examples of how racism operates at the individual level, cultural level, and/or institutional level.	5.54	1.50
My definition of racism has been influenced by a broad range of literature.	4.74	1.66
My definition of racism has been influenced by my own lived experiences	5.46	1.44
I synthesize multicultural research to guide my practice.	4.08	1.74
I can implement multicultural policies and programs that challenge and help students grow developmentally.	4.41	1.70
I am confident in my ability to evaluate the effectiveness of multicultural programs or events.	4.11	1.69
I set goals for myself to increase my knowledge and awareness of multicultural issues.	4.58	1.69
I am comfortable speaking about issues of racial/ethnic diversity in a group.	4.75	1.70
When I interact with persons who are racially/ethnically different from me, I am usually aware of the existing dynamics related to race/ethnicity.	5.23	1.27
I believe students who are racially/ethnically different from me feel comfortable sharing their concerns with me.	4.94	1.26
I am not afraid to say what I think or believe when discussing issues related to race/ethnicity.	4.48	1.59
My cultural assumptions affect the ways I perceive and interact with others.	4.92	1.64
Affirmative Action is necessary in higher education.	5.14	1.68
I have acted upon a personal commitment to combat racism.	5.26	1.57
Everyone is negatively affected by racism, even White people.	6.10	1.34
I have examined my assumptions and biases about people who are racially and/or ethnically different from me.	5.66	1.23

Survey Item	Mean	Std. Dev.
Racism continues to operate on an institutional level within higher education.	5.77	1.41
Social Justice Self-Efficacy		
Respond to social injustice (e.g. discrimination, racism) with nonviolent actions	5.55	1.24
Actively support the needs of marginalized social groups	5.57	1.13
Challenge an individual who displays racial and/or ethnic intolerance	5.51	1.10
Convince others as to the importance of social justice	5.26	1.22
Discuss issues related to racism with students	5.42	1.36
Discuss issues related to racism with your colleagues	5.54	1.25
Discuss issues related to racism with your supervisor	5.53	1.43
Challenge or address institutional policies that are covertly or overtly discriminatory	4.84	1.40
Lead a group of coworkers in an effort to eliminate workplace discrimination in your place of employment	4.52	1.62
Serve as a consultant for an institutional committee aimed at providing equal opportunities for underrepresented groups	4.13	1.78
Advocate for social justice issues by becoming involved in professional organizations geared toward these efforts	4.90	1.64
Collaborate with members of marginalized student groups to develop relevant skills that facilitate opportunities for success (e.g., educational, career)	5.32	1.44
Raise others' awareness of the oppression and marginalization of targeted groups	5.00	1.34
Confront others that make inappropriate generalizations about members of marginalized groups	5.43	1.14
Identify the unique social, economic, political, and/or cultural needs of a marginalized group in your campus community	4.76	1.40
Encourage and convince others to participate in events that address social issues specific to your campus community	5.11	1.34
Develop and implement a solution to a social issue impacting your campus community (e.g. homelessness, racial tension, and sexual violence)	4.53	1.57

Survey Item	Mean	Std. Dev.
Address structural inequities and barriers facing particular racial and ethnic groups by becoming politically active (e.g., helping to create government policy)	4.11	1.63
Raise awareness of social issues (e.g., inequality, discrimination) by engaging in dialogues on campus	5.10	1.51
Institutional Support for Social Justice		
My institution has a history of welcoming social change (e.g., opening admission to people of color prior to federal requirements)	4.54	1.63
Colleagues in my department act in ways that demonstrate that social justice is an important part of our work on campus	5.38	1.50
I feel supported by my department to take action on campus issues	5.32	1.55
My colleagues spend a lot of time finding ways to advocate for students	5.41	1.52
I can identify upper level administrators on campus who support and engage in social justice work	5.39	1.59
I have concerns about the negative repercussions I may endure as a result of speaking or acting out against issues on campus.	3.71	1.93
The institution I work for values diversity	5.31	1.49
I know who to go to if I wanted to address a controversial campus issue	5.33	1.67
This university cares about addressing social justice issues on campus	5.28	1.46
I feel pressured at this institution to engage in social justice work	3.33	1.73
The institution I work for values social justice	5.34	1.45
The institution I work for is supportive of student initiatives for justice	5.47	1.33
I regularly see people working to make the campus a better environment for students of various backgrounds	5.52	1.30
Colleagues or supervisors have described my work as 'too controversial'	2.17	1.61
I feel supported at this institution to engage in social justice work	5.11	1.42

Survey Item	Mean	Std. Dev.
I am met with resistance from colleagues to enact social justice work in my position	2.55	1.62
Outcome Expectations		
Be praised by your colleagues for your work	4.86	1.57
Fear the negative repercussions of your actions	2.75	1.60
Expect that your efforts would result in change (in behaviors, attitudes, practices)	4.14	1.24
Goals to Engage in Social Justice		
In the future, I intend to engage in social justice activities.	5.42	1.45
I have a plan of action for ways I will remain or become involved in social justice activities over the next year.	4.30	1.76
I think engaging in social justice activities is a realistic goal for me.	5.12	1.60
I am fully committed to engaging in social justice activities.	5.01	1.65
Social Justice Actions		
Seek out opportunities to improve my understanding of the oppression and marginalization of targeted groups.	4.99	1.49
Consider and re-consider what I have been taught about the world around me	5.80	1.17
Get out of my comfort zone to better understand myself	5.33	1.29
Explore my own biases	5.48	1.18
Actively pursue opportunities to understand my own social identities and how they influence my work on campus	4.99	1.54
Actively support the needs of students from marginalized social groups	5.38	1.54
Challenge an individual who displays racial and/or ethnic intolerance	4.78	1.57
Convince others as to the importance of social justice	4.74	1.61
Discuss issues related to racism with students	4.49	1.78
Discuss issues related to racism with your colleagues	4.81	1.58
Discuss issues related to racism with your supervisor	4.44	1.68
Challenge or address institutional policies that are covertly or overtly discriminatory	3.69	1.73

Survey Item	Mean	Std. Dev.
Lead a group of coworkers in an effort to eliminate workplace discrimination in your place of employment	2.92	1.78
Serve as a consultant for an institutional committee aimed at providing equal opportunities for underrepresented groups	2.81	1.91
Advocate for social justice issues by becoming involved in professional organizations geared toward these efforts	3.57	2.01
Collaborate with members of marginalized student groups to develop relevant skills that facilitate opportunities for success (e.g., educational, career)	4.01	1.97
Raise others' awareness of the oppression and marginalization of targeted groups	4.42	1.78
Confront others who make inappropriate generalizations about members of marginalized groups	4.72	1.64
Identify the unique social, economic, political, and/or cultural needs of a marginalized group in your campus community	4.40	1.68
Encourage and convince others to participate in events that address social issues specific to your campus community	4.52	1.78
Develop and implement a solution to a social issue impacting your campus community (e.g., homelessness, racial tension, and sexual violence)	3.60	1.84
Address structural inequities and barriers facing particular racial and ethnic groups by becoming politically active (e.g., helping to create government policy)	3.08	1.84
Raise awareness of social issues (e.g., inequality, discrimination) by engaging in dialogues on campus	4.40	1.79
Consider the various activities mentioned in the above section.		
On average, how often does your job afford you the opportunity to engage in these social justice actions?	4.50	1.58

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