

**THE YOUNG PUBLIC SERVANT:
EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF VOLUNTEERING
ON SELF-CONCEPT**

by

Alison C. Wade

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of the University of Delaware in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Science in Human Development and Family Studies

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ABSTRACT

Civic involvement is a multi-dimensional concept that requires a holistic approach to understand. Research about the benefits and motivation of youth volunteerism has considered the factors which predict volunteering; this study however looks at the outcomes of the volunteer experience. In particular, self-concept is the dependent variable because it is a vital component to personal development in young adults. The *National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health Wave III* data was analyzed using propensity scores and linear regression. Analysis identified family structure (i.e. living with biological parents), religiosity, parent education, gender, and race as predicting factors of volunteering. Results of the linear regression analysis showed that volunteering is associated with self-concept. Learning about who volunteers and other associations are beneficial to recreating the public servant in today's youth.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between individuals' volunteer experience and self-concept guided by ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). This relationship is complex and includes many working parts that each has their equally important influence on each other. The following research explores the predictors to volunteering, likelihood to volunteer, and how volunteering influences self-concept. The data for the study is drawn from the *National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health* (Add Health) Wave 3 which includes individuals ages 18-28 (Harris, 2009). This was chosen because of the relevant survey questions, including living with biological parents, parent education, religiosity, volunteering, and self-concept, and representative demographics of the sample.

Research Questions & Hypotheses

Ecological theory has guided the following analysis. The factors influencing an individual that volunteers must be considered in the analyses. Looking at the individual, family, and school traits that are associated with volunteerism, this research develops an argument that volunteering enhances an individual's self-concept in young adulthood. The bidirectional nature of volunteering explores how the individual impacts the community, but also how the individual develops. The youth volunteer movement in today's society holds an immense amount of potential to create

positive change not only in the world, but in themselves (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). Knowing the following pieces of information will better serve the youth volunteers in the form of education, policy, and programming. The current study is guided by ecological theory, and explores the following research questions:

Research Questions

1. What are the individual, family, and school predictors of a young adult engaging in volunteering?
2. To what extent does volunteer experience influence self-concept as a young adult?

Hypotheses

1. Age, gender, race, prior volunteering, religiosity, income, parent education, living with biological parents, volunteer requirement, and available service clubs are predictors of young adult engaging in volunteering.
2. Volunteer experience has a positive influence on the likelihood of having a positive self- concept as a young adult.

Background

The correlation between volunteering and self-concept is explored because of the bidirectional nature of volunteering, influencing both the individual and the community. This background intends to explain the definitions of volunteering and self-concept. Self-concept is considered in this research because of its vitality to the development of the individual. Because self-concept is closely related to other terms

of self perception, the following explanation is helpful for distinguishing between the terms. Bailey (2003) explains the difference between self-image, self-concept, and self-identity as terms that are referring to similar ideas but used in different ways. According to Bailey (2003) self-image is defined as how an individual views themselves in measurable characteristics. These are visible traits that can be described and qualified or quantified. An individual's self-concept is defined as an organized collection of values and beliefs that are held as truth to the individual. These values and beliefs are relevant to the individual's view of themselves, the world around them, and their place in that world. Self-identity refers to the qualities that make an individual different from others. These unique qualities are a group of defining characteristics that the individual believes best describes what makes them who they are (Bailey, 2003). Self-esteem describes how positive or negative a person feels about their characteristics and worth in the world (Levy, Benbenishty, & Refaeli, 2012).

Volunteering, civic involvement, and community service will be used interchangeably in this discussion. The individual is contributing their time and energy to some cause. There are many experiences that would count as volunteering but the underlying idea is that the individual is involved in something bigger than themselves whether it is incentivized or not. Civic involvement indicates that the individual is connecting to their community by giving of their time and energy (Flanagan, 2011). In this research, volunteering is defined as contributing time and energy to a cause free of charge which connects them to the community. Particularly in the United States, this

culture of service is widespread and established in society but not necessarily in other countries (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012).

Civic involvement not only benefits the community but also has influence on the individual who volunteers (Flanagan, 2011). This type of engagement can be characterized in a variety of ways. Volunteering is considered to contribute time or efforts (whether monetary or materially) on a regular basis or occasionally in the community. Civic involvement refers to additionally having a role or connection within a community organization that is on a volunteer basis. These types of civic engagement are beneficial to an individual's development (Flanagan, 2011). Civic involvement will be defined as contributing time and efforts to a community organization. A portion of community service is court ordered or required for school. This research considers various types of volunteering in the analysis to gauge the breadth of volunteerism effects on self-concept. With a multitude of risk factors for development, protective factors such as volunteer experience must also be emphasized in order to promote healthy and progressive development especially in adolescents and young adults. Volunteerism allows the individual to make developmental gains while also improving the community (Flanagan, 2011).

Civic engagement creates a civic identity within the individual, in this case the young adult. The United States, like other democratic countries, relies on its population for its success and progress (Atkins & Hart, 2003). Those who comprise the society are responsible for its outcomes and development as a whole. In order to do this, each individual part of the community must have a connection to and role

within the greater community in the form of a civic identity. Reciprocity and interpersonal trust allow for a society to work towards goals that benefit the group as a whole. According to Atkins and Hart (2003), the three components of civic identity include participation, knowledge, and commitment to democratic principles. Comprehensive volunteer opportunities should cover those three components in order to maximize the bidirectional benefits. Individuals are then interacting in some way with their community through service oriented activities. Volunteer programs that incorporate community values will make for valuable and productive service because of the holistic nature of the experience. All of these pieces need to be in place in order for one to develop a civic identity. The necessity of this condition in individuals is relevant with regard to the success and progression of the community as a whole (Atkins & Hart, 2003).

By fostering volunteering, the individual is likely to create a civic identity which facilitates a better community. The individual develops many valuable lessons and principles through volunteering. Social skills are enhanced through interacting with other community members (Flanagan, 2011). A sense of responsibility and belonging are created while also fostering an emotionally supportive community. An individual is also exposed to real life situations and gathers significant life experiences. Simply spending time volunteering in the community means that is time not being spent engaging in risky activities. Thus, volunteering is a deterrent from negative environments and behavior while also being a protective factor in and of itself (Flanagan, 2011). For individuals that are doing court ordered service, they are

given an opportunity to make a difference and contribute to society. Volunteers, contributing time and efforts within the community, provide manpower to society at little cost. A sense of unity is developed through this bond between individuals and community. Unity creates a positive community environment. Just as the individual is contributing to the community, the community as a whole gives back by providing a better environment for the individual as a product of their contributions. The bidirectional nature of this protective factor makes it an essential area for research and discussion regarding human development (Flanagan, 2011).

Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory will be applied to this discussion of volunteerism and development. Because community service involves the individual's interaction with others in their environment and the environment influencing the individual, this systems theory is useful when understanding this topic. Ecological theory emphasizes the interaction and interdependence of humans and families in a society (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). There is a multidirectional relationship between an individual and their environment. The influence the individual and the environment have on each other is intertwined and cannot be broken according to ecological theory. Volunteering affects the volunteer while also outputting a positive influence on the community. The cyclical nature of the positive effects of volunteerism aligns suitably with the key theoretical elements of ecological theory (Smith & Hamon, 2012).

According to ecological theory (Smith & Hamon, 2012), humans are dependent upon others because of human nature. Humans are social beings that need interaction and shared emotions with one another. They share the capacity to care and

develop with each other and must do so because they exist in a common world. Civic involvement can be one expression of a generative need. The development of the individual is interwoven with the individual's many surroundings. Ecological theory also supports the notion that humans are capable of making changes in their environment in addition to influencing their environment through the element of systems (Smith & Hamon, 2012). Volunteerism and its influences on human development are a relevant area of research guided by Bronfenbrenner's (1986) ecological theory.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous research on volunteering has determined some of the many predictors of volunteering. Volunteers make a difference in their communities while also learning life skills that can be applied to a variety of real world situations. With this information and this research, efforts can be made to encourage volunteering in younger generations to revive the giving spirit of generations past. A decline in volunteerism was witnessed in the late 1970s through the 1980s. Levels are currently where they were in the early 1970s that was regarded as the peak of volunteerism (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). Understanding these changes is critical in an effort to offer explanations as to who volunteers and why.

The literature suggests that choosing to volunteer is influenced by individual characteristics, along with the various contexts they interact with (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). The development that occurs at school affects an individual's home life and vice versa. The individual's unique characteristics also have an impact on the communities and family they belong to just as those experiences influence the individual. Through volunteering, a volunteer is exposed to the community just as the community is exposed to the individual. The bidirectional influences that occur are the focus of this review of literature and study including family, school, and individual influences. The following literature is presented to support the key inputs and outputs

of volunteering to set the stage for the following analysis of volunteering and self-concept.

Individual Inputs of Volunteering

There are a variety of individual characteristics that influence a person's likelihood to volunteer. Research shows that females are found to be more likely to volunteer than their male peers (Cemalcilar, 2009; Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). Additionally, white individuals are more likely to volunteer than minorities. Among minorities, Hispanics are then more likely to be civically involved than other minority groups as found by Mahatmya and Lohman (2012). Matsuba, Hart, and Atkins (2007) researched the psychological and social influences on the amount of time spent volunteering per month in adults. They considered social structure, personality, and identity research traditions and how much a person volunteers their time to the community. A large sample of English speaking American adults between 25 and 74 were reached by telephone in the 48 contiguous states. Measures of interest include civic obligation, helping identity, opportunity, and commitment to volunteering. Findings were consistent with the hypothesis that helping identity and social opportunities contribute to volunteering. Individuals that had developed a civic identity were more likely to volunteer. Having social opportunities available that facilitates volunteering lead to more volunteering simply because it is available. Matsuba et al. (2007) found that older and more educated individuals are more likely to volunteer. Understanding that adults are more likely to volunteer given they have a

developed civic identity and opportunity to contribute their time and efforts led researchers to consider what other predictors could indicate civic involvement such as religion (Matsuba et al., 2007).

Another predictor of volunteering that has been explored is aspects of religion. Van Goethem et al. (2012) strives to explain adolescent volunteering in terms of morality and identity. The researchers use a basis of general moral thought to guide their study. Moral commitment is the motivational element which refers to the sense of responsibility one has about moral rights issues. The adolescent's identity integration is expected to be associated with tendency to volunteer. A digital questionnaire was completed by 698 Dutch adolescents between 12 and 20 years old. The Civic Prosocial Behavior Inventory was conducted to see whether they volunteer, type of organization, motivations, and a self-evaluation of their volunteering. Personal identity and general moral thought questionnaires were also used to see if moral commitment is related to volunteering. Results showed that when individuals feel more committed to a broader, societal, moral perspective, they feel more comfortable in social contexts such a volunteering (Van Goethem et al., 2012; Taniguchi & Thomas, 2011). Individuals with salient central identity of a moral commitment are more likely to volunteer. These individuals that have reported high levels of volunteering have a sense of responsibility to their community. An enhanced sense of moral understanding allowed them to grasp the social realities that exist in their communities (Van Goethem et al., 2012). The telephone survey findings of Matsuba et

al. (2007) are consistent with these results that a developed identity is a valuable contributor to civic involvement.

Understanding that civic involvement is a piece of social concept, other research was conducted specifically looking at the influence of religion on volunteering. Although religion can be viewed as institutional, this study considers the personal moral values and religiosity in individuals. Gibson (2008) studied how religion influences youth civic involvement. The National Study of Youth and Religion (NSYR) questioned 3,370 teenagers between 13 and 17 years old. The questions included topics of teen volunteerism, political activity, and religion. The results of Gibson's (2008) multivariate analysis of this data support the hypothesis that religiosity is a significant indicator of volunteering. Participants that reported they attend church every week are more likely to volunteer at least occasionally and often. Individuals with strong religious beliefs are also more likely to participate in community volunteering (Gibson, 2008). Youth that believe religiosity is important are also more likely to volunteer than youth that do not see religiosity as important in their lives. Being involved in church sponsored service develops a well-rounded perspective on social issues and are committed to serving their communities, both religious institutions and community organizations, as they get older (Youniss, McLellan, & Yates, 1999). This research ties together some of the major contributors to youth volunteering and gives a better description of the type of individual that is most likely to volunteer (Gibson, 2008).

Family and School Inputs

Further predictors of civic involvement are discernible throughout the research by Mahatmya and Lohman (2012). These researchers conducted a study that looked at the developmental factors and milestones influencing civic involvement as adolescents and young adults. Surveys were conducted through the *National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health* and this study chose three waves of responses in the years 1995, 1996, and 2002. Add Health is a multistage, school based, stratified, random sample of 7-12th graders in the U.S (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). The effect each individual has on the greater population is apparent in the volunteerism trends. This research aimed to fill the gap in the literature regarding predictors and pathways that lead to youth volunteering (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012).

The researchers considered three areas of interests in their study. The first was focused on what characteristics of the childhood neighborhood, family, and school connections during adolescence influenced volunteerism later in life. The next topic of investigation was whether changes in family and school monitor the influence of neighborhood on encouraging civic involvement for emerging adults. The final aspect considered the effects of gender and race on civic involvement that were previously mentioned. The interactions between these settings and characteristics are supported by ecological theory's use of the mesosystem in human development. By considering multiple realms of influence, results will better identify a holistic perspective of the young adult volunteer (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012).

The following results from Mahatmya and Lohman (2012) explain some of the links between the individual and their community and social surroundings. Influences on civic involvement were affected by changes in the parent-child bond, shared activities, and school social capital during adolescence. Greater volunteerism is associated with more social connections adolescents make with families and schools. Social capital, meaning relationships and positive connections, also plays a role in more civic involvement. High socioeconomic status and educated parents also are linked with consistently greater chances of volunteerism. Researchers conclude this may be because these children and adolescents are provided with more opportunities and resources for civic involvement (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012).

Emerging adults that live with both of their biological parents are also more likely to be civically involved in young adulthood (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). These results are especially relevant in today's society where individuals are needed to become involved in their community and give back to help the individual and community thrive (Gibson, 2008; Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). The population trends and influences trickle down to affect the individual and vice versa. The individual and population are two separate entities but are constantly affected by each other. The dependency in this relationship is evident through ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Smith & Hamon, 2012).

The school environment provides the opportunities that surround a student and the values they instill in their students. Service clubs and organizations allow students to participate in service much easier than students that have to seek out those

opportunities. Additionally, the presence of a service hour requirement will directly indicate the likelihood to volunteer. Although the reason for volunteering will influence the magnitude of effects on the individual, having the community service exposure is still instrumental in their development. Their motivations of volunteering will affect how much individual development will take place. Individuals that are exposed to the community in this respect will be influenced in some way (Hoffman & Wallach, 2007). Students that engage in service learning have better academic outcomes which accounts for increasing number of schools to incorporate civic involvement into their curriculum (Hoffman & Wallach, 2007). The education of the parents is additionally a strong predictor of youth's civic involvement. In Mahatmya and Lohman's (2012) research, this was the strongest finding and coincides with research conducted by Son and Wilson (2012) who link parent and youth education to volunteering.

Outcomes of Volunteering

The inputs of individual, family, and school characteristics influencing volunteering that have previously been explored are relevant to the current research considering how volunteering affects individuals. This research takes into account the factors that predict volunteering while also exploring the benefits of civic involvement on the individual's self-concept. As the individual experiences interactions with their community, ecological theory suggests that experience will have an influence on the way the individual thinks, believes, or acts and vice versa (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

The proceeding studies serve as a background of volunteering outcomes and identifying a more fitting measure, self-concept, of the effects volunteering has on an individual. Borgonovi (2008) explored self-reported health and happiness data and its link to volunteering. He explored the various dimensions of well-being to determine which have an influence on volunteering. The Social Capital Community Benchmark Survey (SCCBS) was conducted in 2000 by the JFK School of Government at Harvard University. This included 29,000 adult survey responses across 29 states to be used for this study. Religion and community involvement was also considered in regards to its impact on health and happiness. Results showed that formal volunteering is correlated with well-being. Additionally, the more frequently a person volunteers, the greater likelihood they will report being happy and healthy. People who volunteered with religious groups and organizations tend to be in excellent health and report to being very happy (Borgonovi, 2008). Chong, Rochelle, & Liu (2013) have also conducted studies exploring age and volunteering. Older adults, with previous volunteer experience, show better health, caring engagement, and productive engagement in the community than those who did not self-report that they volunteered. These outcomes are indicative of the individual changes that occur during volunteering.

Hoffman and Wallach (2007) conducted a study to look at the relationship between community service and feelings of self-entitlement as a measure of the effect on the volunteer. Using a pretest and posttest questionnaire for 26 randomly selected participants among psychology students participating in a volunteer program, the

researchers found that their sense of entitlement lessened after being a part of community service work. This change in sense of self is evident in these findings. Levy et al. (2012) considered the effects of volunteering on at risk youth. The sample consisted of 161 at risk youth that participated in a civic national volunteer service program to support transition to adulthood. The researchers explored feelings of life satisfaction and perception of the future among the at risk youth completing the same community service. Their experiences during community service positively correlated to the prediction of life satisfaction. High self-esteem and matriculating out of high school also contributed to the prediction of positive perceptions of the future (Levy et al., 2012). These examples further support the positive outcomes of volunteering on the individual.

Upon the completion of a longitudinal survey study of over 600 high school students, Reinders and Youniss (2006) explored the relationship between self-awareness and community service in high school students. These students that participated in community service had enhanced feelings about their self-awareness. Their awareness of themselves and their community changed as they became a part of something greater than themselves. Changed self-awareness was then associated with a greater likelihood of future volunteering, voting, and demonstrating in some way for a cause. These findings of lowered self entitlement in the volunteer explain some of the connection between individual and community that is developed through volunteerism (Reinders & Youniss, 2006).

In this study, self-concept is measured as the outcome of volunteering particularly because of its key influence in personal development and positive associations with behavior and job performance (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998; Ybrandt, 2008). Huang (2012) conducted a meta analysis including 64 independent studies of self-concept and self efficacy on academic achievement. He defines self-concept as personal perceptions of the individual in various domains. These domains are topics such as social settings, academics, and athletics to name a few. Statements referring to self-concept are not based on skills but more so on personal feelings about a particular domain, situation, or capability. Self-concept is either one-dimensional or multidimensional but is not task specific to knowing math equations or being the life of the party for example. Self-concept is the summation of how the individual feels about themselves within different situations. Because self-concept is constantly adjusting because life continues to affect the individual, it is a challenge to measure self-concept over time while still being able to define an individual's self-concept (Huang, 2012). Demo (1992) focused his research about self-concept on the various ways future research can develop a testable and precise theory of self-concept across the lifespan. In doing so, he describes self-concept as the structural product of self reflection. Self-concept changes as the individual lives through new roles, experiences, and life transitions but is always reflective on the individual's perception of themselves.

Self-concept has an essential influence on functioning as well as general well being. Ybrandt (2008) used a path analysis of survey responses by 227 Swedish

adolescents to explore the relationship of self-concept and problem behaviors. Ybrandt found that self-concept was the central factor for adjustment as well as preventing typical problem behaviors. That is, individuals with positive self-concept were able to transition better in life and had fewer exhibits of problem behaviors. Negative self-concept was identified as a risk factor for internalized problems which are problem behaviors including anxiety and depression. Having these problems then showed aggressive and delinquent behaviors. By promoting positive self-concepts in adolescence, problem behaviors can be prevented to some extent. Furthermore, negative self-concept contributes to mental health problems. According to interpersonal theory used in Ybrandt's research, self-concept is the key contributor to personality disorder. Self-concept is viewed as the product of interpersonal relations (Ybrandt, 2008). Ecological theory supports this deduction and includes the individual's many environments in which they interact as experiences contributing to self-concept.

Not only does volunteering appear to influence self-entitlement and feelings of giving in general, Judge et al. (1998) have found there to be positive effects of having a positive self-concept on job performance. In times of negative feedback, employees with high self-concept are able to increase their efforts to match the expectations. These individuals are valued in the workplace because they are constantly reaching expectations and don't settle for less than their best. Positive self-concept speaks to the employee's motivation and ability. The researchers have found these individuals have better abilities to cope with change, work in teams, and have positive views of others.

The findings suggest that people with positive self-concept also tend to be honest and reliable employees. In contrast, poor self-concept has been associated with escapist behaviors such as substance abuse, binge eating, suicidal tendencies, and other attempts at directing attention inward. As these results show, positive self-concept and feelings of self-worth are desirable in society and in particular the workplace (Judge et al., 1998).

Thus, the exploration of self-concept is a suitable outcome of volunteering to measure. The outcome measures previously used in studies such as this were unable to fully capture the individual's feelings about themselves. The connection between volunteering and self-concept is evident through the framework of ecological theory which is most appropriate for this research. The multitude of factors predicting volunteerism, especially parental influence and religiosity, is apparent in the discussed literature. With this knowledge, there is a need to further consider what changes in the young adult with volunteer experience.

The Conceptual Model, Figure 1, demonstrates the relationship of inputs and outputs related to volunteering and self-concept. Conceptual models such as this one have been used in previous studies on other topics including International Baccalaureate programs in high schools by May et al. (2013). This study will also be used as a guide for the methodology of this proposed research.

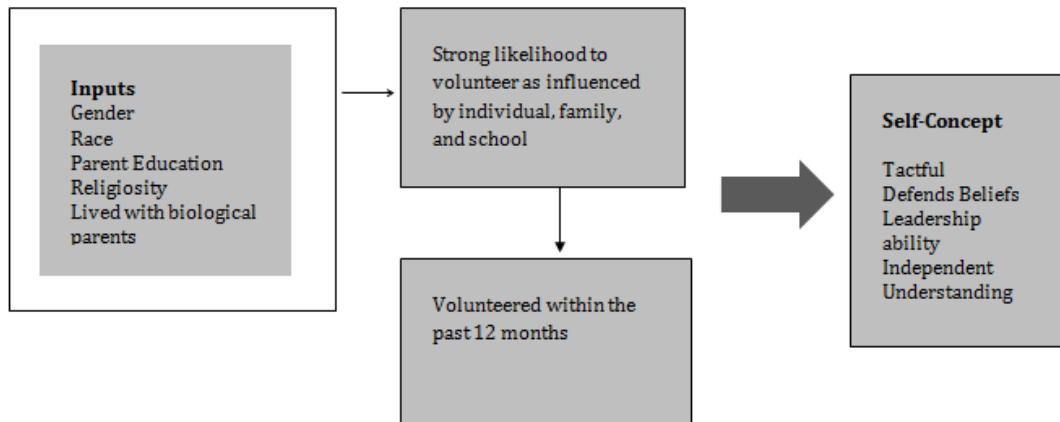


Figure 1 The conceptual figure depicts the relationship between volunteering and self-concept in the following analysis.

The figure reflects ecological theory's guidance on the direction of this study. The predictors, parent education, gender, race, religiosity, and living with biological parents, are thought to influence the likelihood of an individual volunteering. The likelihood to volunteer from these predictors show the connection to those who actually volunteered as indicated in the data set. Finally, volunteering is analyzed to show the correlation between volunteering and the self-concept variables.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Population, Sample, and Data

A secondary data analysis was conducted using data collected from Wave III of the *National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health* (Harris, 2009). In the first wave, this study surveyed adolescents in grades 7-12 in 1994-1995 in 80 high schools and 52 middle schools in the United States with an unequal probability of selection. Topics include but were not limited to school factors, family dynamics, community experiences, and health information. The study incorporated systematic sampling methods and implicit stratification into the design which ensures a representative sample of United States students with respect to region of country, urbanity, school size, school type, and ethnicity. The original cohort has been followed into young adulthood with four in-home interviews, the most recent being in 2008 when the sample was ages 24-32 with an exception of 52 respondents being 33-34 at the time of Wave IV interview. More information on the sampling procedure is located on the Add Health website (<http://www.cpc.unc.edu/projects/addhealth>). The following quotes the required explanation directly from the Add Health website.

This research uses data from Add Health, a program project directed by Kathleen Mullan Harris and designed by J. Richard Udry, Peter S. Bearman, and Kathleen Mullan Harris at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, and funded by grant P01-HD31921 from the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, with cooperative funding

from 23 other federal agencies and foundations. This data collection was initiated by a mandate from the U.S. Congress to fund a study of adolescent health. Topics include health and risk behaviors such as personal traits, families, friendships, romantic relationships, peer groups, schools, neighborhoods, and communities. Special acknowledgment is due Ronald R. Rindfuss and Barbara Entwisle for assistance in the original design.

Information on how to obtain the Add Health data files is available on the Add Health website (<http://www.cpc.unc.edu/addhealth>). No direct support was received from grant P01-HD31921 for this analysis (UNC Carolina Population Center, n.d.).

Wave III data set was chosen because of the relevant questions to civic involvement included in the research. The ages of the respondents at this time are at a critical time in their young adult development where the research can assess their self-concept at its peak. The college and work contexts these participants have experienced have continued to shape their development which is evident in this wave of study. Friend and romantic relationships have become more influential in these participants' lives as they begin to settle or find their way in the world. Wave III captures these individuals in the young adult stage covering many domains of experience. Wave III was conducted in 2001 and 2002 which includes in-home interviews with the original respondents and in-home interviews with their partners. Interviews with 15,170 original Wave I respondents were initiated during Wave III when they were between 18 and 28 years old between August 2001 and April 2002. For this analysis and these

particular variables, 4882 sets of responses were available. This wave of survey asks participants questions on a variety of topics. Questions regarding the individual's personal life, volunteer experience, parents, and their self-concept are analyzed using the following methods. The measures are indicated below with the exact questions analyzed located in Appendix A.

Measures

Volunteerism

To measure volunteering, one question was utilized in the survey. The question asks about any unpaid volunteer or community service work in the past 12 months. The response is indicated with a yes or no (*0=no, 1=yes*).

Self-concept

To develop the self-concept measurement, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) (Tennessee Self-concept Scale, 2009) was used to guide the formation of the self-concept variable in this study. The full TSCS questionnaire, listed in Appendix B, was matched with a separate group of survey questions in the Add Health dataset. The Add Health variables that matched with TSCS include defends beliefs, independence, understanding, tactful, and leadership ability. This grouping best represented self-concept given the available survey questions. The response for each of these statements is indicated on a scale of *1 to 7* (*1=usually not true, 7 always or almost always true*). Of the 4882 individuals, 25.1% were valid response sets for the self-

concept variable. Therefore, N=1227 for the linear regression. The Cronbach's alpha was .72.

Covariates

Age, gender, race, prior volunteering, religion, income, living with biological parents, and parent education are all available in the data set. However, based on the propensity score analysis results, parent education, living with biological parents, religiosity, gender, and race yielded propensity scores most supported by literature. Religiosity was measured on a Likert scale of 0 to 4 (not very religious to very religious). Living with biological parents was recoded based on the survey wording and order. Individuals that answered they did not live in a foster home and were not adopted were coded to have lived with biological parents. Additionally, individuals that were adopted by the spouse of a biological parent were coded to have lived with biological parents. This was recoded with a yes or no (0 = no, 1 = yes) response. Race was coded as white (1), Hispanic (2), African American (3), Asian (4), and Other (5). Gender is coded as female (1) and male (0). Parent education was included in this data from Wave I of the Add Health dataset and ranked less than high school, high school graduate, some college, bachelor's degree, and post graduate degree.

Data Analysis

This research involved nonequivalent comparison groups design because of the inability to randomize sampling with volunteers (May, 2012). IBM SPSS Statistics 22 was used to conduct the analysis. Because many outcomes in human behavior and development are influenced by a multitude of situations, experiences, and choices,

propensity scores allow for statistical analyses to account for these predictors (Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983). Following the logic model identified in Figure 1, the relevant variables were analyzed using logistic regression (Thoemmes, n.d.). The logic model recognizes the inputs supported by the literature that indicate which individuals are most likely to volunteer. Gender, parent education, race, religiosity and living with biological parents are the independent variables with volunteer experience as the dependent variable. Instead of ignoring all the predictive factors of volunteering, propensity score matching takes into account the relevance of these variables and identifies which are supported statistically. Propensity scores are defined as the conditional probability that a treatment will be observed given the relevant covariates. Using logistic regression, the available inputs were analyzed with the dependent variable being those who have or have not volunteered in the past 12 months. The predicted value of each individual is the propensity score for each individual. In the statistical process that propensity scores are developed, a numerical value is determined for each respondent using predictors to volunteering (Thoemmes, n.d.). This score takes into consideration the influence of each available input and whether or not they actually volunteered. The numerical values associated with the propensity scores are guided by theory and literature but are limited by the availability of key information using a pre-existing data set (Thoemmes & Kim, 2011).

This approach was used to isolate like samples because of challenges associated with randomly selecting samples using secondary data (May, 2012; May et al., 2013). A stratification of the propensity scores is then conducted to form 10 groups

of like propensity scores (Thoemmes & Kim, 2011). Linear regression was conducted to assess how much of a predictor, volunteering, can explain a continuous variable, self-concept given the predictive factors of the propensity scores (Caliendo & Kopeinig, 2008). Linear regression was conducted within each strata so as to consider the influence of self-concept among individuals with similar likelihoods of volunteering. Propensity scores acted as control for the independent variable, volunteering, and the dependent variable, self-concept. Linear regression was most fitting for this exploration to consider the conditional probability distribution of Y (self-concept) given X (volunteer experience) (Caliendo & Kopeinig, 2008). Pairing propensity scores with linear regression, explaining the amount of influence an independent variable has on the dependent variable, makes it the most applicable method of analysis (May et al., 2013; Thoemmes & Kim, 2011). These analyses were able to focus on the specific variables supported by theory and literature to explore the association between volunteering and self-concept.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The following results show the findings of this analysis that considers volunteer experience and self-concept. The descriptive summary of the sample will review the demographics of the participants in the study. The analysis for this study includes logistic regression to determine propensity scores and linear regression to explore the amount of influence volunteering has on self-concept. Gender, race, religiosity, parent education, and living with biological parents were supported by literature as high predictors for volunteering in this study. The propensity scores including these predictors depict the predicted value of who is a likely individual to volunteer. Using these scores as control in the form of 10 strata, the linear regression analysis found the correlation between self-concept and volunteer experience and to what degree the two were associated (May, 2012).

The below table shows descriptive information about the sample for this research. The sample is 54% female ranging from ages 18-28 with the mean 22 years old and standard deviation 1.81, $N=4882$. The demographic items in Table 1 depict the identified races, gender, and religion. Because religiosity is used in the propensity score development, the identified religion was relevant. The majority of participants identify as Christian, Catholic, and Protestant in descending order.

Table 1

Descriptive Summary of Sample

	Percent %	Mean	Std. Deviation
Race			
White	67.8	.61	.49
Hispanic	.7	.12	.31
Black	24.5	.24	.43
Asian	4.1	.04	.19
Other	2.6	.01	.10
Gender			
Female	53.9		
Male	46.1		
Religion			
None/atheist/agnostic	19.2		
Protestant	16.7		
Catholic	21.1		
Jewish	.9		
Buddhist	.4		
Hindu	.1		
Moslem	.3		
Other	8.6		
Christian	32.8		

To better understand the variables used in this analysis, Tables 2-5 describe the response sets from the participants. Table 2 depicts the yes and no responses to volunteering and living with biological parents growing up. The volunteering responses were analyzed as the independent variable in the linear regression analysis. Table 3 represents the responses on the 4-point Likert scale about religiosity. Table 4 indicates the mean and standard deviation for the parent education responses from Wave I. The responses regarding gender, parent education, race, religiosity, and living with biological parents were utilized in the logistic regression analysis to generate

propensity scores. Table 5 illustrates the self concept variable that is answered on a 7-point Likert scale which was the dependent variable in the linear regression analysis.

Table 2

Volunteering & Lived with Biological Parents Responses

	Yes	No
Volunteered	28.1%	71.9%
Lived with Biological Parents	97%	3%

Table 3

Religiosity Responses

	Percent
Not religious	18.70
Slightly religious	34.49
Moderately religious	35.13
Very religious	11.67

Table 4

Parent Education Responses

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Less than high school	0.1062	0.30813
High school graduate	0.2630	0.44032
Some college	0.2861	0.45197
Bachelor's degree	0.1796	0.38291
Post graduate degree	0.1651	0.37134

Table 5

Self Concept Responses

	never or almost never true	usually not true	sometimes but infrequently true	occasionally true	often true	usually true	always or almost always true
Defends Beliefs	4.4%	2.6%	5.6%	9.3%	18.5%	23.1%	36.4%
Independence	2.8%	3.9%	7.3%	17.4%	23.5%	24.9%	20.2%
Understanding	1.3%	0.7%	2.3%	6.0%	18.7%	32.3%	38.6%
Tact	2.2%	1.9%	3.9%	8.9%	16.3%	27.7%	39.0%
Leadership Ability	1.9%	2.0%	5.4%	11.4%	17.1%	27.3%	34.8%

To determine which individuals were most likely to volunteer based on the cornucopia of predictors to volunteer, logistic regression was conducted to determine the propensity scores for the sample, as shown in Table 6, N=4882. Based on the propensity score model, the factors in this dataset that held the most influence on likelihood to volunteer were parent education, gender, race, living with biological parents, and religiosity. Propensity scores were determined for all participants and signify a positive numerical value for the likelihood that a person will volunteer. This table also identifies how the variables, parent education, gender, race, religiosity, and living with biological parents, included in the logistic regression affect an individual's likelihood to volunteer. Considering the Exp(B) values in Table 6, these odds ratios identify to what extent that variable influences likelihood to volunteer in an individual. Going down the list results are as follows: females are 18% more likely to volunteer than boys, Hispanics are 41% less likely to volunteer than white individuals, African

Americans are 18% less likely to volunteer than white individuals, Asians are .6% more likely to volunteer, individuals classified as other are 69% less likely to volunteer, participants with high religiosity are 31% more likely to volunteer, and participants that lived with their parents are 50% more likely to volunteer. Youth with parent that have not earned a high school diploma are 12% more likely to volunteer, some college are 20% more likely to volunteer, bachelor's degree are 16% more likely to volunteer, and post graduate degree are 11% more likely to volunteer.

Table 6

Logistic Regression Analysis

	B	S.E.	Sig.	Exp (B)
Female	.167	.070	.017	1.182
Hispanic	-.531	.124	.000	.588
African American	-.203	.085	.017	.817
Asian	.006	.179	.974	1.006
Other	-1.172	.478	.014	.310
Religiosity	.271	.038	.000	1.311
Lived with bio parents	.407	.223	.068	1.502
Less than high school	.115	.126	.363	1.122
Some College	.190	.094	.044	1.209
Bachelor's degree	.147	.107	.167	1.159
Post graduate degree	.108	.110	.325	1.114
Constant	-1.778	.240	.000	.169

Table 7 shows that each of the variables included in the propensity score were insignificant when the strata are analyzed. All of the values are greater than .05 so they were not influencing the results of the impact model which shows the success of the

propensity score model. The propensity scores control for the other influencing predictors so that the dependent and independent variables can adequately be assessed.

Table 7

Propensity Score Strata Effect

	Sig.
Female	.820
White	.740
Hispanic	.512
African American	.767
Asian	.962
Other	.243
Religiosity	.907
Lived with bio parents	.756
Less than high school	.884
Some College	.913
Bachelor's degree	.996
Post graduate degree	.907

The propensity score method allows to show the differences between who volunteers and who doesn't while accounting for the predictors influencing that treatment. In addition to stratifying the propensity scores for the linear regression, the groups of volunteer and non-volunteers must be identified in order to conduct the analysis. The visual in Figure 2 shows where the volunteers and non-volunteers fall on the propensity score scale. Even though the volunteers are slightly higher values, the majority of the groups overlap showing their eligibility for adequate analysis.

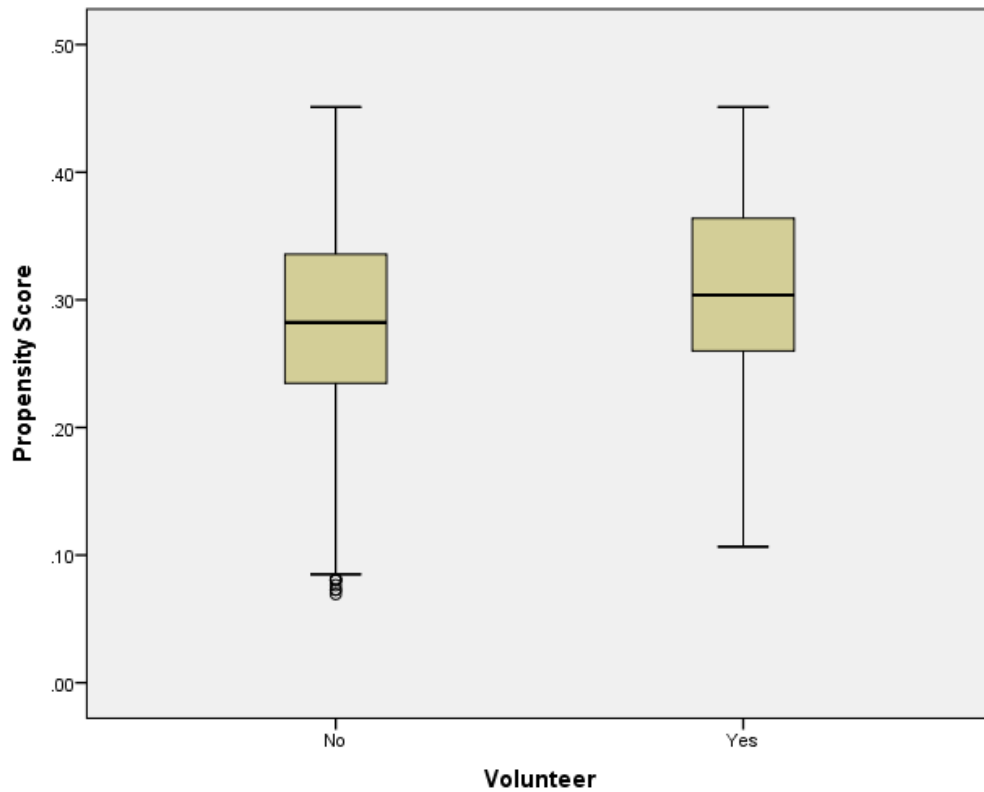


Figure 2 This image depicts the propensity score distribution of who volunteers and who does not.

Using the determined propensity scores of volunteering for the sample, linear regression was conducted to examine the influence of volunteering on self-concept which is shown in Table 8, N=1121. The self-concept outcome was created to include *defends beliefs, independent, tactful, leadership ability, and understanding* characteristics within an individual using the Tennessee Self-concept Scale (Tennessee Self-concept Scale, 2009). Table 8 shows the amount of influence volunteering has on self-concept which is reflected in the R Square value. The B value indicates to what degree volunteering in the past year explains a portion of self-concept.

Table 8

Linear Regression Analysis^a

	R Square	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant		27.817	.500		55.659	.000
Volunteered in the Past Year	.067	2.184	.351	.182	6.223	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Self-concept

The analysis above indicates that volunteering explains 6.7% of self-concept in this model. This significant amount of influence is largely due to the sophisticated method of analysis which was able to focus the results in an insightful manner. As depicted in Table 8, individuals who volunteered had scores that were an average of 2.2 points higher (.18 standard deviations higher) for self-concept, $p < .01$, which encompasses an individual's likelihood to defend his or her beliefs, exhibit leadership ability, sense of understanding and tactfulness, and independence. These results offer insight to the association between volunteering and these variables that measure self-concept in this study.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

Discussion

This research on volunteering and self-concept was guided by ecological theory . Bronfenbrenner's (1986) ecological theory emphasizes the importance of systems in an individual's life that contribute to human development. Volunteering is an example of how the individual also has an influence on the community. Previous literature on these subjects lacked research supporting the relationship between the individual's self concept and their volunteer experience. Using data collected from the *National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health*, the association between volunteering and self concept was analyzed through propensity scoring and linear regression to answer the following research questions. 1) What are the individual, family, and school predictors of a young adult engaging in volunteering? 2) To what extent does volunteer experience influence self-concept as a young adult?

The following findings were concluded regarding the two research questions posed in this study. In response to the first research question, parent education, gender, race, religiosity and living with biological parents proved to be the predicting factors to volunteer for this particular dataset. Some of the directions for these associations are not as originally hypothesized. Although parent education was a strong predictor in other studies such as Son and Wilson (2012) and Mahatmya and Lohman (2012), in this case more education did not necessarily indicate a greater likelihood to volunteer. With regards to gender, race, religiosity, and living with biological parents, the data supports the hypothesis that these variables have a positive influence on likelihood to volunteer. Individuals with religious backgrounds may feel more inclined to give back to their community given their ties to service to others within their religion (Gibson,

2008). Parental involvement may play a role because the individuals have lived with their biological parents and the parental levels of education play a part in the child's upbringing. Relationships with parents are essential to individual development which could contribute to their willingness to volunteer in the community (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). Well-developed young adults may have a positive world and community view and are interested in contributing to their community in meaningful ways (Matsuba et al., 2007).

Volunteering is a valuable asset in today's society and this research continues to explore this experience. Volunteers contribute an immense number of hours to the community which have a huge impact in numerous ways. The impact on the volunteers has been the focus of this study which is measured through self-concept identified in the second research question. Self-concept not only describes positive or negative feelings, but opinions about how a person feels about themselves and how they contribute to the world. The findings directly answer the second research question that volunteer experience is positively associated with positive self-concept through leadership ability, defending beliefs, tact, understanding, and independence. The extent of these self-concept variables goes far beyond the numbers previously shown. Findings suggest that young adults may have the potential to make a greater change in the community and world. Leadership ability shows the individual how they can take control of the situation and make something great out of it. When an individual defends their beliefs, it shows they feel confident in them self and what they stand for. Tact within the participants shows their maturity and grace to know when to speak and when to act. Individuals with a sense of understanding show awareness and sensitivity to others and other situations. Independence is a valued quality because it shows their

ability to stand on their own and take initiative. Similar findings were explored with regard to workplace behavior and success and self-concept (Judge et al., 1998).

These findings give an explanation to the association between volunteering and self-concept. This analysis gives future researchers another angle to consider when examining motivations for volunteering and self-concept. Through school and youth programs, the benefits of youth volunteering will hopefully be instilled in children as they develop their sense of self (Hoffman & Wallach, 2007). With a positive self-concept, that individual is likely to continue making an impact on their community and exhibiting valued qualities that build character. The value of volunteering is evident especially with these findings. This research further demonstrates the benefits of volunteering on the individual in hopes that programs and society's knowledge will become more aware of the power of civic involvement (Cemalcilar, 2009). This awareness might then lead into program change and enhanced values in the individual, family, school, and community.

Limitations

Common limitations exist in this research and yet do not diminish the findings. With any analysis of preexisting data, there is the possibility of encountering missing or incomplete data. The same is true in this research regarding the self-concept variable, rather the survey questions that make up the variable. The five responses used to compute the self-concept variable lack some valid data and therefore have narrowed down the number of individuals analyzed through linear regression from 4882 to 1121 participants (in addition to minimal missing data in other variables). The specific and deliberate methods of analysis used stand independently of this limitation because the remaining cases are still representative as well as broad. Because of the

quantitative nature of this study, future research should consider other measures in the areas of interest discovered through this secondary analysis to further support these findings. Qualitative research may explore motivations of volunteering, characteristics of volunteers, and additional influences on human development in more depth than quantitative measures are able to because these topics are extensive and complex.

Additionally, the measure of self-concept is not as comprehensive as other existing scales. Because this is a secondary analysis of data, the measures were restricted to what the original researches included. Five statements were utilized in this outcome and may not comprehensively capture self-concept entirely. For the purpose of this research, the self-concept variable developed is satisfactory as the items included are guided by the larger and commonly used Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. While there are an incredible number of feelings individuals possess that make up their self-concept, these are guided by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and represent a portion of self-concept (Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, 2009). Most measures of self-concept exist at one point in time; that is, a single survey question measuring their feelings at that moment. That measurement is satisfactory but could be developed in future studies longitudinally to show how the self-concept stabilizes or changes over time. Future studies should develop the self-concept measure more while also defining the volunteer variable. Volunteering was only measured using a single survey question and does not delve into motivations or circumstances of the experience.

Finally, the linear regression results must be taken with the understanding that both the dependent and independent variables were measured at the same time. The drawback exists because pre and post test measures of self-concept are unavailable given the use of secondary data. Furthermore, the use of propensity scores cannot

control for the selection bias associated with any confounders that were not measured. Propensity scores sufficiently control for the selection bias relating to the observed variables but not for predictors such as personality, prior self-concept, school environment, and other predictors that are not accounted for in this analysis. Therefore, the results are not causal findings but rather an association between self-concept and volunteering. Without seeing the change in self-concept over time, causal relationships cannot be identified. However, the positive association between the two is evident in the analysis of this research. Taking into account these limitations, the findings of this research can be more comprehensively interpreted.

Implications & Recommendations

Despite the limitations, this study provides insight into the outcomes of volunteering and the development of the volunteering will lend itself to policy, programs, and future research. With the potential knowledge of positive self-concept being rooted in volunteering, schools and youth organizations can better develop and utilize the young public servants. There is often a volunteer requirement in schools and colleges look favorably on volunteer experience. Efforts should be made to encourage youth volunteerism if society wants to foster healthy development and positive communities. Society generally understands there are benefits to volunteering and rewards it, however in some cases there is a lack of sufficient fostering the experience (Mahatmya & Lohman, 2012). Some programs exist to incentivize volunteering and provide opportunities for youth to be involved in their community. These results will have the most impact for program administrators that have the opportunity to implement these findings in the community and schools. The outcomes of volunteering are obvious to some considering the output is a benefit to the

community. The outcomes within the individual are less widely known but have incredible potential to affect choices school administrators, families, and youth organizations make (Hoffman & Wallach, 2007).

The following recommendations are made for future studies and discussion. This analysis defined volunteering very generally, however future studies could break down volunteering into various types such as direct service, administrative, event planning, or manual labor to name a few. This type of analysis would allow for clarity regarding which volunteer experiences are most influential in human development. Additionally, the individual's motivations and interests for volunteering may play a greater part in their development. In particular, understanding which students are recruited for volunteer opportunities will be valuable in future studies (Cornelis, Van Hiel, & Cremer, 2013). These suggestions would best be developed with qualitative measures, including focus groups and interviews to provide clarity regarding volunteering. These results could be applied to prevention as well as intervention programming and evaluation. Current programs could adopt a community service component to their curriculum to encourage self-concept development and engagement with the community. Perhaps the findings regarding self-concept will also play a role in future research particularly with at risk youth. Because that population is in most need of intervention services in particular, future studies may find that volunteering is particularly empowering for underprivileged youth (Cemalcilar, 2009).

Self-concept is a crucial piece to a person's existence in the sense that it guides all other functioning. Positive self-concept is shown to be an immense benefit to the workforce and society as a whole in multiple capacities. Positive self-concept leads to productive and desirable behaviors while negative self-concept is associated with

destructive and difficult characteristics. Linking these ideas offers indicators to support and encourage programs, organizations, and schools positively influencing today's youth. As an individual is exposed to a new social situation, one learns about a piece of the world from another perspective. Volunteering allows the individual to put someone else's needs before their own and decrease their tendencies of self-entitlement that today's society often rewards (Hoffman & Wallach, 2007). According to ecological theory, the individual recognizes in this instance they are in some way connected to the person or group or community they are helping. As a part of the human race, each person is ultimately helping themselves through volunteering (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). By contributing their time and energy to someone else, they are connected even in a distant way while also developing as a more experienced individual. This research gives a better understanding of the relationships between volunteering and self-concept which is of use to policy makers, program developers, and educators to encourage volunteerism and spread awareness about the need for enhanced civic involvement from youth.

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Appendix A

SURVEY QUESTIONS FROM ADOLESCENT HEALTH DATA SET

Propensity Score Variables

1. Biological Sex
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
2. What is your race?
 - a. White
 - b. Hispanic
 - c. African American
 - d. Asian
 - e. Other
3. What is your highest level of education? (asked of parents in Wave I)
 - a. Less than high school
 - b. High school
 - c. Some college
 - d. Bachelor's degree
 - e. Masters or Doctorate degree
4. To what extent are you a religious person?
 - a. Not religious at all
 - b. Slightly religious
 - c. Moderately religious
 - d. Very religious
5. Did you ever live with either of your biological parents?
 - a. No
 - b. Yes

Linear Regression Variables

1. During the last 12 months did you perform any unpaid volunteer or community service work?
 - a. No
 - b. Yes

2. Self-concept (never or almost never true, usually not true, sometimes but infrequently true, occasionally true, often true, usually true, always or almost always true)
 - a. I am independent.
 - b. I am understanding.
 - c. I have leadership abilities.
 - d. I am tactful.
 - e. I defend my own beliefs.

Appendix B

TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

1=always false, 2=mostly false, 3=partly, false and partly true, 4=mostly true, and 5=always true

1. I have a healthy body.
2. I like to appear neat and attractive.
3. I am an attractive person.
4. I am full of pain and suffering.
5. I am an untidy person.
6. I am not a healthy person.
7. I am not too fat and not too thin.
8. I am not too tall nor too short.
9. I like the way I am now.
10. I don't feel as healthy as I should be.
11. I wish to change a few parts of my body.
12. I should have more sex appeal.
13. I take good care of my physical self.
14. I feel happy most of the time.
15. I am very careful about my self appearance.
16. I am not good in games and sport.
17. I often behave like a know-all person.
18. I have trouble sleeping.
19. I am a well-mannered person.
20. I am a pious person.
21. I am an honest person.
22. I don't have good morals.
23. I am a bad person.
24. I am a weak-willed person.
25. I am very satisfied with my manners and behaviors.
26. I am as pious as I wish to be.
27. I am satisfied about my relationship with God.
28. I feel that I am not very trusted.
29. I rarely go to the mosque or place of worship.
30. I tell lies often.
31. Religion is my guide in everyday life.
32. I do what is right most of the time.
33. I will work on changing when I realize that I have made a mistake.

34. Sometimes I use unfair ways to move forward.
35. Sometimes I do bad things.
36. I have problems doing the right thing.
37. I am a cheerful person.
38. I have a high self-control.
39. I am a calm person and easy to befriend.
40. I am hated.
41. I am not important.
42. I can no longer think straight.
43. I am satisfied with myself now.
44. I am as intelligent as I wish to be.
45. I am a good person.
46. I am not the person I hope to become.
47. I hate myself.
48. I am someone who gives up easily.
49. In any situation, I can take care of myself.
50. I can solve my problems easily.
51. I am willing to admit my mistake without feeling angry.
52. I often change my mind.
53. I often act without thinking first.
54. I try to escape from facing problems.
55. I have a family that is always ready to help when I am in trouble.
56. I am important to my family and my friends.
57. I am from a happy family.
58. I am not loved by my family.
59. My friends are not confident of me.
60. I think my family does not put their trust in me.
61. I am satisfied with the relationships in my family.
62. I have treated my parents as I should have treated them.
63. I understand my family adequately.
64. I am very sensitive about what my family says.
65. I must increase my faith towards my family.
66. I should have loved my family more than I love others.
67. I try to be fair towards my family and friends.
68. I make sure that I do my part in the house.
69. I give full attention towards my family.
70. I often quarrel with my family.
71. I always give in to both my parents.
72. I do not act wisely as perceived by my family.
73. I am a friendly person.
74. I am more popular among females.
75. I am more popular among males.
76. I feel angry towards everybody.

77. I am not interested in what others are doing.
78. I find it difficult to develop closeness with others.
79. I can socialize in ways that I want.
80. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people.
81. I make an effort to win people's heart, but I don't overdo it.
82. I should have more manners with other people.
83. I am not good in socializing.
84. I am not satisfied with the way I mix with other people.
85. I try to understand other people's view.
86. I have good regards towards everybody that I met.
87. I can be friends with everybody.
88. I don't find it hard to talk with other people.
89. It is difficult for me to forgive other people.
90. It feels difficult to talk with somebody that I do not know.
91. I do not always speak the truth.
92. Sometimes I think of bad things to say.
93. I sometimes get angry.
94. Sometimes I become angry when I don't feel well.
95. I don't like everybody that I know.
96. Sometimes I badmouth other people.
97. Sometimes I am entertained by obscene jokes.
98. Sometimes I feel like cursing.
99. I prefer to win rather than lose in a game.
100. Sometimes I will postpone work that I should be doing.

Appendix C

IRB



RESEARCH OFFICE

210 Hullihen Hall
University of Delaware
Newark, Delaware 19716-1551
Ph: 302/831-2136
Fax: 302/831-2828

DATE: May 16, 2014

TO: Alison Wade
FROM: University of Delaware IRB

STUDY TITLE: [609283-1] THE YOUNG PUBLIC SERVANT: EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF VOLUNTEERING ON SELF CONCEPT

SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
DECISION DATE: May 16, 2014

REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category # (4)

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this research study. The University of Delaware IRB has determined this project is EXEMPT FROM IRB REVIEW according to federal regulations.

We will put a copy of this correspondence on file in our office. Please remember to notify us if you make any substantial changes to the project.

If you have any questions, please contact Nicole Farnese-McFarlane at (302) 831-1119 or nicolefm@udel.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

Appendix D

HUMAN SUBJECTS CERTIFICATION

COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI) COURSE IN THE PROTECTION HUMAN SUBJECTS CURRICULUM COMPLETION REPORT Printed on 01/23/2014

LEARNER	Alison Wade (ID: 3964044)
PHONE	302-547-5742
EMAIL	awade@udel.edu
INSTITUTION	University of Delaware
EXPIRATION DATE	01/22/2017

HUMAN SUBJECTS PROTECTIONS FOR GRADUATE STUDENTS

COURSE/STAGE:	Basic Course/1
PASSED ON:	01/23/2014
REFERENCE ID:	12167862

REQUIRED MODULES	DATE COMPLETED	SCORE
Belmont Report and CITI Course Introduction	01/23/14	3/3 (100%)
Students in Research	01/23/14	6/10 (60%)
History & Ethics of Human Subjects Research	01/23/14	6/7 (86%)
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBE	01/23/14	5/5 (100%)
The Regulations - SBE	01/23/14	4/5 (80%)
Basic Institutional Review Board (IRB) Regulations and Review Process	01/23/14	5/5 (100%)
Informed Consent	01/23/14	4/4 (100%)
Privacy and Confidentiality - SBE	01/23/14	4/5 (80%)
Records-Based Research	01/23/14	2/2 (100%)
Research With Protected Populations - Vulnerable Subjects: An Overview	01/23/14	4/4 (100%)
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Prisoners	01/23/14	4/4 (100%)
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Children	01/23/14	3/3 (100%)
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Pregnant Women, Human Fetuses, and Neonates	01/23/14	3/3 (100%)
International Research - SBE	01/23/14	3/3 (100%)
Internet Research - SBE	01/23/14	5/5 (100%)
FDA-Regulated Research	01/23/14	5/5 (100%)
Research and HIPAA Privacy Protections	01/23/14	4/5 (80%)
Conflicts of Interest in Research Involving Human Subjects	01/23/14	5/5 (100%)
University of Delaware	01/23/14	5/5 (100%)
ELECTIVE MODULES	DATE COMPLETED	SCORE
Unanticipated Problems and Reporting Requirements in Social and Behavioral Research	01/23/14	2/3 (67%)

For this Completion Report to be valid, the learner listed above must be affiliated with a CITI Program participating institution or be a paid Independent Learner. Falsified information and unauthorized use of the CITI Program course site is unethical, and may be considered research misconduct by your institution.

Paul Braunschweiger Ph.D.
Professor, University of Miami
Director Office of Research Education
CITI Program Course Coordinator