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**The Influence of Student Disciplinary Participation in Post-Secondary Education on
Career Decision Self-Efficacy**

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Faculty of
Montclair State University in partial fulfillment
of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

by

Jerry S. Collins

Montclair State University

Montclair, NJ

May 2021

Dissertation Chair: Dr. Leslie Kooyman

MONTCLAIR STATE UNIVERSITY

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

DISSERTATION APPROVAL

We hereby approve the Dissertation

**The Influence of Student Disciplinary Participation in Post-Secondary Education on
Career Decision Self-Efficacy**

of

Jerry S. Collins

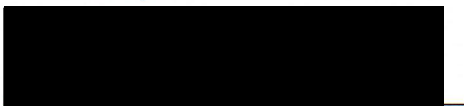
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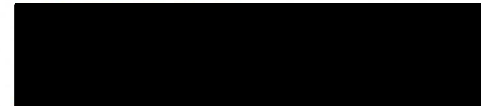
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Abstract

College disciplinary issues may affect students' education and career plans similar to academic issues, yet not enough research has been conducted to analyze this subject area. Students who engage in a disciplinary process for violating a university's code of conduct may be subject to sanctions deemed appropriate to help them learn from the experience and enhance their personal development during college. However, these students may not understand their behaviors' potential impact on their desired career goals. Society continues to place increasing demands on more important career realization for students. Nevertheless, disciplinary education may not be adequate to help students genuinely learn from their errors, which may negatively affect their future career attainment. In the present exploratory study, the researcher collected and analyzed data from traditional-age college students using regression analysis to examine the relationship between participation in a disciplinary process and career decision self-efficacy. Results suggest a significant positive relationship between student disciplinary participation and career decision self-efficacy while calling for future research on the influence of student disciplinary processes.

Keywords: Career Decision Self-Efficacy, College Student Discipline, Career Development, Student Development Theory

Acknowledgments

A mentor once told me: a bachelor's and a masters' degree you do "*for*" yourself, but a Ph.D. you do "*to*" yourself. These words have been proven correct numerous times throughout this journey. I questioned the decision to embark on and carry through this journey so often and could not have done it independently. This dissertation would not have been possible without several individuals who have provided insight, guidance, knowledge, support, and love throughout the process.

I want to begin with thanking my Heavenly Father and Savior, Lord Almighty. There are a handful of verses that come to mind as I reflect on this journey. Jeremiah 29:11 says, "For I know the plans I have for you, declares the Lord, plans for welfare and not for evil, to give you a future and a hope." Psalm 28:7 says, "The Lord is my strength and my shield; in him my heart trusts, and I am helped; my heart exults, and with my song, I give thanks to him." Proverbs 16:3 says, "Commit your work to the Lord, and your plans will be established." Luke 1:37 says: "For with God nothing shall be impossible." If You were not with me on this journey, it would not be finished. For providing me strength when I felt I could go no further, thank you, Almighty Father.

I want to express my utmost gratitude to my Dissertation Chair, Dr. Leslie Kooyman, who has been on this journey from the beginning, as he served as my advisor through my classwork and dissertation. You are indeed an amazing individual to whom I owe so much. If not for your encouragement, wisdom, and support, I would not be writing these words. You have been here for me when I have doubted this day would ever come. You have offered counsel in my most challenging times with kind words. You have been a mentor and will always be a beloved friend. Thank you, Les.

I next want to thank the members of my dissertation committee, Drs. Dana Levitt Heller, Pablo Tinio, and Karen L. Pennington. Dana, you had challenged me throughout my studies, not just to be present, but to engage and share my thoughts, even when I was unsure of my abilities, and for it, I am a better counselor. Your attention to detail and professional meticulousness has enabled me to develop as both a researcher and writer. Your support in my journey will always be cherished. Pablo, I cannot imagine understanding and completing this quantitative study without your guidance. Your energy in the quantitative application is overwhelming; I was always amazed by your instruction and passion. As my methodologist expert, your insight will always be with me. Dr. P., (even here, I cannot bring myself to call you by your first name), I still recall our first meeting. Ever since that day in 2006, I have always been amazed and in awe by your sheer presence, knowledge, and wisdom. You are the epitome of a mentor in my career and believed that I was the right fit for my position. I do not believe that I could ever truly express how much I have learned and developed from having you a part of my lifelong journey. I hope that throughout the years, I have made you proud of having me join your team. I was once told that a Ph.D. was more about perseverance than intelligence. I hold firm that you have all shown greatness in both areas in guiding me to this moment. Thank you, Dana, Pablo, and Dr. P.

With a nod to Dr. Larry Burlew, all my former faculty who strengthened my foundation and growth as a counselor, thank you. To Dr. Susan Fuller and Mary Andreoli, both being genuine treasures for how you aid students in the Counseling program, thank you both. To my fellow Cohort #5, for sharing your experiences with me in classes and support in the following years, thank you.

To my colleagues and friends who have provided reassurance and support (know that I will not get you all, but to name a few): Ms. (future Dr.) Tara Mellor, for your support in our

discussions regarding progress in our respective programs; Dr. Fatima DeCarvalho, for encouragement demonstrated throughout in shared misery during our separate programs; Dr. Kevin Schafer, for guiding me with your experience on this path and program; Ms. Cindy Meneghin, for being my “bacon-buddy” and being an integral force in getting my survey out; Dr. Fernando Padro, for not only sharing with me the statement that began my acknowledgments, but believing I could do succeed on this path; my “sister” Dr. Sandra Collins, for trusting in me enough to support my application to this program; Dr. Rose Mary Howell, for constantly reminding me that I am closer than ever before (well, here I am); Deans Margaree Coleman-Carter and Yolanda Alvarez, for supporting both my studies and my work environment during this journey; Dr. Shannon Gary, for being a friend and supporter; Ms. Sonia Rios, Ms. Pat Fischer, and so many more, whether named and unnamed, thank you all so much.

To those that are not here to share this accomplishment with me but will always be with me, no matter what: my grandparents and foundation, Olin and Amy Collins; my mother-in-law, Elaine Waite; God-mother to my children, Wendy Shephard; and Kobi Collins, who waits at the Rainbow Bridge for his family, I do miss you all so much. Thank you.

To Cosmo Collins, thank you for joining our family when we needed you. To my father-in-law, Ronald Waite, for your support and kindness, whether during our many talks or treating me as a son and allowing me the honor of your daughter’s hand, I love you; thank you, Dad. To my mother, Virginia M. Collins, I can never understand the scope of what you have endured and the sacrifices made by raising three sons on your own. Your dedication to our growth with both your love and discipline is unparalleled. I can but hope that I can have the strength you have exemplified throughout your life and make you proud as your son in this and every action of my life. Thank you, Mom; I love you.

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to three individuals: my wife, Sandra Elaine Collins, and two children, Trevor Olin and Evelyn Grace Collins. You were each there in so many moments that you will never truly know how much it helped me, whether it was a never-ending hug or saying, “I love you.” So much has occurred during these years. Whether through trees falling into our house, car accidents, losing far too many members of our family, dark times, significant surgeries, or even cancer, it is with each of you that I moved forward in this journey. You three are everything to me. This dissertation is as much each of yours as it ever will be mine.

To Trevor Olin Collins and Evelyn Grace Collins. You two are the greatest joys I could ever hope to have in my life, and being your father is everything to me. Seeing you both grow up has been blessed happiness that overwhelms me often. When I am at my lowest, I need only think of you two. You have grown up too fast for my liking. Always know that I will eternally be so proud of both of you for being who you are. You have had to share Dad on this journey, and I can never show you enough love and appreciation for your sacrifice. Thank you, Trevor and Eve; I love you both more than words will ever truly define.

Similarly, Sandra Elaine Collins, words can never do justice with how much appreciation I owe you. For far longer than this journey, I would not be who I am today without your sacrifices, encouragement, support, and love. You are my first and greatest mentor. If not for you, I would not even be in this field; I would not be able to do what I have done professionally for over two decades, much less finished with this degree. One day, I hope that I am truly worthy of your love, as I still cannot imagine how I fooled you into saying “I do,” but I will continue to spend my days rising to that task. You are my best friend. You are my rock. You are the love of my life. You are my only. Thank you, Sandi. S.H.M.I.L.Y.

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The Influence of Student Disciplinary Participation in Post-Secondary Education on Career Decision Self Efficacy

Chapter One-Introduction

Institutions of Higher Education (IHE) have long been given the responsibility to adjudicate students whose behaviors are not in line with their policies and expectations. Student disciplinary processes reflect core goals, two of which are education and personal development (The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2008; Olshak, 2004). The intended outcomes for participation in student conduct systems are to promote one's education and develop that individual, not only for their years at the institution but also for their lives, including their career paths. Advocating this stance, scholars Bickel and Lake (1999) believed that student disciplinary administrators act as facilitators of education and development. Dean (2006) highlighted the critical need for developing educational opportunities through judicial meetings, noting that the first of three principles of student conduct programs was to foster students' personal and social development. While the disciplinary process is the primary intervention regarding student behavior, research has not been conducted on how it influences their future performance (Dannells, 1997; Howell, 2005; Stimpson & Janosik, 2011).

In reviewing the field of student affairs within higher education, the concept of addressing how students develop in their vocational growth has been a central aspect of the institution's focus on advancing a student's education (Luzzo, 1995). In a seminal report on education, the American Council on Education (1937) stated, "This philosophy imposes upon educational institutions the obligation to consider the student as a whole—his intellectual capacity and achievement, his emotional makeup, his physical condition, his social relationships, his vocational aptitudes and skills, his moral and religious values" (p. 3). Numerous researchers

attempted to study various conditions to ensure students' persistence on their path to degree attainment and career attainment (Astin, 1993; Kuh et al., 2008; Tinto, 1993). Braxton (2006) stated that some critical areas that warrant attention include both the development of cognitive skills and occupational attainment.

According to Bandura (1982; 1997), career decision self-efficacy is an individual's belief in their ability to succeed or accomplish a task in their career pursuits. According to criminological literature on the life course, "significant life events can have an influential impact on one's life trajectory, and events such as an arrest and criminal justice processing are likely to have long-lasting effects on one's life" (Jennings & Piquero, 2009; Khey et al., 2010, p. 146). Students experience various situations in their development during college while managing their academics, personal, and social relationships (Pedrelli et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2019). Bandura (1977, 1986) noted the significance of how learning experiences assist students in supporting their self-efficacy. By comparison, in participating in student disciplinary processes, a similar relationship may exist due to the student experience.

College presents individuals with the opportunity to make critical life and career choices. Simultaneously, several factors impact a student's self-efficacy during this time. College is a moment in a lifespan that sees a significant development stage for students, as these students move from being unsure of what they want or undecided to determining a major to pursue (Gordon, 2007). Furthermore, while trying to balance classroom studies, these students need to plan how work will fit their daily lives (Greenhaus & Callanan, 2006). Bandura (1997) found that self-efficacy plays a significant role in a student choosing their college major as it impacts their work environment in later years. Hackett and Betz (1981) originated the concept of applying self-efficacy to career psychology and counseling. Individuals decide to participate in

or evade specific tasks based on their competence to accomplish the tasks (Bandura, 1986; Tang et al., 2008). When reviewing the many facets of career exploration, career decision self-efficacy has received the most research attention due to its importance in career interventions and career decision making (Betz et al., 2005; Conklin et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2016).

According to Peterson (1993), career decision self-efficacy was shown to have a relationship in higher education persistence in underprepared students. Further, various factors, such as family support, mentors, and culture, all play roles in students' self-efficacy as they work toward degree attainment on the path toward their desired career (Greenhaus & Callanan, 2006). Beggs et al. (2008) listed factors that influence college students' career decision-making: family influence, potential job characteristics, and academic major characteristics. Studies have shown that career decision self-efficacy has positively affected decision-making certainty (Bullock-Yowell et al., 2012; Germeijs & Verschueren, 2009). Students enroll in higher education institutions in search of degree attainment leading to career attainment and a healthier financial future, as economists view that college education is the path to future economic success by successful career attainment (Baum et al., 2013). During this critical time, student affairs administrators attempt to aid students in their career decision-making, as errors and mistakes in their choices may lead to negative life consequences and self-efficacy (Fouad et al., 2009). Of the factors studied related to career, college discipline becomes an overlooked construct worth exploring relative to Career Decision Self-Efficacy (CDSE).

Statement of the Problem

My interest in this exploratory study came from my own experience as an administrator in student conduct. In over two decades of working with student conduct systems, I observed students expressing concerns over how their involvement in the disciplinary process would affect

their career options. Students questioned their ability to attain their career objectives and move forward from the incident to the point where they are uncertain whether they will achieve a degree and succeed in their career choices. Students also expressed their concerns about how far-reaching conduct outcomes can influence their lives with the recent history of the #MeToo movement and how it has affected public figures, such as Justice Brett Kavanaugh, decades later. The purpose of this study is to determine how disciplinary participation within a postsecondary institution's conduct process relates to a student's career decision self-efficacy.

Various meetings with students engaged in a student conduct process influenced my interest in this study. The first was a female student who was found responsible for violation of policy but shared that she decided to change her academic major due to participation in the conduct process. She pursued a career in student affairs herself as she felt that she could genuinely benefit others due to her learning experience in student conduct. Another incident involved a male student held responsible for violating policies and questioned his ability to continue his desired path of entering the criminal justice field. He was concerned about how the outcome would follow him in records requests. A second male student was found responsible for violations of policy yet expressed how he was grateful for his outcome due to how it influenced him as he proceeded through his college career. In what I hold to be a powerful statement, he stated that while many would say that they would prefer not to have been in trouble initially, he was thankful for his participation in the process. He shared how, after the process during his first academic year, he consistently achieved Dean's list academically through graduation; he began engaging in a leadership position on campus and gained campus employment. Two of these students shared that they felt more confident about their future career choices and acknowledged that their experiences in the conduct process were crucial in their paths.

Countless other students have expressed how they were concerned if their participation in the disciplinary process would influence them in their careers. Would this participation cost them their desire to pursue a career in pedagogy, law enforcement, and many other career possibilities? Insufficient research has been gathered, as no data exists on how participation in disciplinary processes influences a student's career path, notably their career decision self-efficacy. Dannells (1997) noted that student discipline was initially a prominent aspect of institutions' missions, but now it has fallen to a periphery role. While higher education has engaged in student discipline for hundreds of years, there is remarkably little known about the effects of student discipline participation, thus calling for the need to ensure research is conducted in this area (Dannells, 1997). By reviewing disciplinary participation within the process, the negligible existing disciplinary literature may be enhanced to fill the gaps associated with understanding the influence of disciplinary participation on career decision self-efficacy.

In ongoing studies conducted by the Cooperative Institutional Research Program, researchers found that a predominant reason for first-year students to attend higher education institutions was to attain a better job (Pryor et al., 2012; Stolzenberg et al., 2019). Colleges provide an opportunity to assist individuals in their academic pursuits and inherently to strengthen their future careers. However, this is provisionally based on various conditions, including the student's ability to persist to graduation and the student's life experiences during these years. Studies have shown that attrition rates in the United States have resulted in less than 60% of students deciding to return to the same school for the second academic year (Hoover, 2015). School counselors, parents, and mentors of high school students have shown more significant support for promoting college attendance, as they view that college degree attainment leads to upward mobility (Barnes & Slate, 2010). Ishitani (2003) stated that as the economy

transforms, a more straightforward path from the experience of higher education to a career existed. Studies have demonstrated that students who hold a degree have better career employment opportunities (Peterson, 1993; Peterson & delMas, 1996). Lent et al. (1994) posed that university students are challenged during the school-to-work progression, which is critical in their career development process. These scholars stated that positive self-efficacy contributes to the practical completion of this evolution; thus, research in this area is critical to creating interventions to aid this process.

Participation in student disciplinary systems may influence a student's career decision self-efficacy, whereas the student questions if they can pursue a degree path that benefits their goals. For example, in 2007, during their freshman year, Joseph T. Lepore and Sean M. Ryan were found guilty of setting a fire in Boland Hall, a residence hall on Seton Hall University's campus. As a result of the fire, over 50 students sustained injuries ranging from smoke inhalation to permanent disfigurement. Unfortunately, three students, Aaron Karol, Frank Caltabilota, and John Giunta, all of whom were 19 years of age, died due to injuries sustained from the fire (Smothers, 2006). While Lepore had withdrawn from Seton Hall and transferred to the University of Delaware during his indictment, Ryan and a third conspirator, Santino Cataldo, who were both seniors, were subsequently suspended from Seton Hall (Alex, 2003; Young, 2003). During their allocution, they admitted that they had been consuming alcohol and were drunk the night of the fire. As a prank, they stated that they set a banner that had fallen from a bulletin board within Boland Hall on fire, which led to several couches catching fire as a result (Smothers, 2006). Arguably, their actions on that fateful night had a severe impact on their careers, as they served sentences in the Garden State Youth Correctional Facility in New Jersey,

both having been denied parole when they went before the New Jersey State Parole Board (Fischer, 2008).

In another example, before moving in for his freshman year at Rutgers University, Tyler Clemente came out as gay to his parents. On September 19, 2010, Clemente's roommate Dharun Ravi set up a webcam and, from the room of Molly Wei, viewed an intimate encounter between Clemente and another male (Byers, 2013; Richards, 2011). Ravi went on social media and invited others to watch a viewing party set for September 21, 2010, as he planned on having the event streamed again (Bui, 2014). On September 22, 2010, Clemente committed suicide when he jumped from the George Washington Bridge. Records show that Ravi had emailed an apology to Clemente shortly before Clemente jumped, but that was also after Ravi learned that he was subject to disciplinary action by Rutgers. Ravi was initially found guilty of 15 counts of crimes involving invasion of privacy, bias intimidation, tampering with evidence, and cyber-bullying in May 2012, yet was overturned on appeal in September 2016 (King, 2016). Six years after the incident, Ravi pled guilty to an attempted invasion of privacy and received time served and court costs. Prior to the hearing, Ravi was overheard saying that he had to challenge the charges as he "didn't know what my future was going to be like" (Schweber & Foderaro, 2016). Much like the Seton Hall students, this situation's outcome bore a substantial influence on Ravi's career, as he forewent beginning his career in information technology for many years due to dealing with the criminal accusation (King, 2016).

Finally, on January 18, 2015, two international students at Stanford University found fellow student Brock Turner, a 19-year-old white male who was a champion swimmer at the University, off a bike path on top of an incapacitated female (Vittello, 2017). While the female was not a student, both she and Turner attended a Greek fraternity party (Salam, 2017). Both

individuals had been reported to be highly intoxicated. While Turner withdrew from Stanford before facing their conduct process, he was charged with multiple offenses, including rape of an intoxicated person, sexually assaulting an intoxicated person, and sexually penetrating an intoxicated person with a foreign object (Vittiello, 2017). While rape charges were dropped before the hearing, Turner was convicted of three sexual assault charges, even though he stated that the encounter was consensual. Turner received six months in jail for which he served three months, three years of probation, lost his swimming scholarship, and was required to register as a sex offender (Kebodeaux, 2017). Turner appealed the outcome in 2017, challenging the result on many fronts; his appeal was denied in August 2018 (Hauser, 2018; Salam, 2017). Turner now appears in a textbook, *Introduction to Criminal Justice* (Rennison & Dodge, 2018), which displays his mugshot with an entry defining rape (Buncombe, 2017). Instead of a medical career goal, Turner currently has a minimum wage job and still lives with his parents (Dey, 2019).

These stories demonstrate that these behaviors as college students forever changed Lepore, Ryan, Ravi, and Turner's lives. The most significant outcome from the respective schools is that none of these individuals received degrees; clearly, their initial vocational paths were altered. While they may not have had the notoriety of the individuals named above, countless other college students have shared similar incidents. In 2012, Sina Chenari, a third-year medical student, was expelled from George Washington University due to academic dishonesty on a standardized test (Campus Legal Advisor, 2016). In September 2014, the University of Houston dismissed students Ryan McConnell and Natalie Plummer due to the institution's sexual assault policy and facilitated sexual assault (Higher Education Law, 2018). Ravi Raithatha was expelled in October 2015 from the University of Pikeville-Kentucky College of Osteopathic Medicine after failing a drug test, a requirement after being suspended and placed on academic

and disciplinary probation for falsifying his clinical rotation logs in April 2015 (Higher Education Law, 2018).

These accounts are just a few of the higher education students who have proceeded through an institution's discipline process for various other charges not listed in the incidents provided. For all these examples, it can be argued that their violations of institutional policies and the outcomes that they received most likely affected their original career paths. While these individuals and their respective cases paint a tragic portrait for the highest level of results, their stories are presented to allow us to question how other less severe outcomes within the discipline process influence students. We know at these conduct levels with more severe outcomes influence individuals' careers. This study attempts to review how lower levels of conduct participation influence students' career decision self-efficacy. These less severe outcomes can be reviewed with the selected population of this study regarding their impact on a student's career decision self-efficacy.

King (2012) points out that student conduct administrators have seen an increase in the number of cases and students in which they believe recidivism will occur. King (2012) also points out that inconsistent outcomes prove detrimental to students' development. Authors Swain and Noblit (2011) noted that the national criminal system provides far too great of a penal system for individuals, functioning without a focus on education. Similarly, if the institutional discipline process mirrors the criminal system, it will not provide for aiding students' developmental goals on their career paths.

Institutions provide opportunities for hands-on experiences and personal development amidst avenues outside of the classroom, such as organizations, programs, and leadership positions (Osteen & Coburn, 2012). Kavoussi (2012) discusses the increased job challenges

faced by today's college graduate population concerning the lack of preparation for what occurs on the job. To this point, Stone et al. (2012) suggested that colleges and universities needed to increase student engagement efforts to assist students in finding appropriate jobs. As suggested, the student conduct process may be considered to meet these efforts.

Conversely, insufficient research has been gathered on how participation in disciplinary processes influences a student's career path, notably their self-efficacy in said area. With a focus on diverse activities, research on this pivotal aspect of many collegiate attendees has been sparse. Researchers focus their assessments on many factors that can positively impact their students' retention level. If those areas are explored more in-depth, the corresponding results could be vital in assisting students in their college experiences.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this exploratory study was to discover and assess how participation in the disciplinary process at an Institution of Higher Education (IHE) influences students' career decision self-efficacy. The study quantifiably measured students' career decision self-efficacy as impacted by participation in a student conduct process at the university level. Further, the study analyzed the influence of several secondary variables, including gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and student engagement activities, on career decision self-efficacy. These factors have been shown in the literature to have relationships with students' career decision self-efficacy (Astin, 1993; Butler, 2012; Grier-Reed et al., 2009; Luzzo, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Perrone et al., 2001). While a weak effect size was found, the results offer critical quantitative data in an area where none is currently found to address a gap in research related to the college population and their career perceptions, therefore calling for more research on this relationship.

Methodology/Research Questions

Two research questions guided this study. The primary research question for this study was:

- I. Does student disciplinary participation have a relationship with career decision self-efficacy among traditional-age college students?

The secondary research question for this study was:

- II. How do the following independent variables: 1) gender, 2) ethnicity/race, 3) socioeconomic status, and 4) participation in student engagement activities relate to the students' levels of career decision self-efficacy?

Subsequent data collection for exploratory consideration was conducted during this process. This data collection will help explore students' career decision self-efficacy in the future.

The dependent variable researched in this study is career decision self-efficacy, which describes an individual's belief that they can complete tasks necessary for making career decisions (Taylor & Betz, 1983). This study utilized the Career Decision Self-Efficacy-Short Form (CDSE-SF) Scale, an instrument developed specifically to measure career decision self-efficacy. According to Norwalk, Norvilitis, and MacLean (2008), the scale is a significant predictor of persistence for college students when matched with preferences, interests, and needs within the institution that they are attending. The study contained one primary independent variable (student disciplinary participation), while other independent variables were analyzed based on literature regarding student engagement activities, gender, racial identity, and socioeconomic status.

Significance of the Study

Students in college are presented with various interactions during their academic journey, transitioning into a new environment to postgraduation planning (Thompson et al., 2019). These interactions may have implications for their educational and career development. A better understanding of career decision self-efficacy and the influence disciplinary participation may pose to enhancing a student's self-efficacy or acting as an obstacle is a critical undertaking. Career decision self-efficacy is a significant construct to review because we can predict an individual's career behaviors based on their belief in themselves (Lent et al., 1994). Identifying students' needs concerning these experiences will assist advisors, student affairs professionals, and career counselors in offering more intentional and effective advising and counseling techniques in helping the student in their career development.

Tinto (1987) noted the importance of retaining students for degree completion and emphasized their development for their future roles. Luke et al. (2014) provided research on numerous factors shared by career development and student development guidelines and how these shared factors influence the student. These researchers found that higher career decision self-efficacy resulted in greater confidence in the student's future career paths. Students with conduct issues face possible legal ramifications due to criminal violations resulting in disciplinary action. As Khey et al. (2010) addressed, students' criminal offenses can alter their future. Pascarella (2006) found limited attention to mapping long-term impacts of specific within-college academic and nonacademic experiences during college. Student discipline fits in this quest for understanding and research. Additionally, this study presents as the first to explore this relationship. As a result, I believed that college administrators must consider how student

conduct influences an individual's career decision self-efficacy with assessing the potential relationship.

Theoretical Framework

As the population studied consists of postsecondary students, student development theory was selected for the study framework. Colleges have found themselves dealing with similar issues to those found during colonial times: students' primary concerns were residential needs, general welfare, morals, engagement in recreational activities, and intellectual development (Pitts, 1980). Patton et al. (2006) stated that student development theory provides numerous frames to view this population's disciplinary process. According to Fischer and Maatman (2008), professionals who manage conduct processes need to understand where students are in their developmental processes. I have witnessed students in my own experience presenting in various developmental stages during their college years. Throughout history, disciplinary officers have focused their processes on student development theory (Lancaster, 2012).

While numerous theories have been developed throughout time that assist in understanding a college student's development, I selected three theories associated with the discipline process (Dannells, 1997; King, 2012; Karp & Sacks, 2014; Patton et al., 2006): identity development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993), cognitive and ethical development (Perry, 1981), and cognitive and moral development (Kohlberg, 1969, 2005). Chickering's Identity Development theory guided this study, with the other theories provided various aspects reflective of a college student's development. These theories are reviewed more thoroughly in Chapter II. These theories are provided to explain and predict potential relationships between variables. Considering these established theoretical perspectives will allow awareness of interconnections and the broader significance of data. As each of these theories provides unique stages, positions,

or vectors representing the theory and the student population, I find that they are the most compelling theories to address in this study.

Chapter Summary

The professionals charged with student discipline embrace the notion that speaking with students and connecting them with resources can help them succeed at their institutions. With this commitment to helping students make wiser choices comes the obligation to examine the effect of institutional efforts. In numerous IHE mission statements, words such as education, human development, safety, and citizenship are valued. As administrators and faculty alike commit to these mission statements, it is incumbent on these professionals to honestly assess how the institution's systems' undertakings affect a student. Too often, the focus is given only to the student's time at college and obtaining their degree. However, as demonstrated thus far, inadequate data exist on how these standard practices that endure on campuses across the country influence the student's future. It is critical to understand how participation in the conduct process may influence students' career decision self-efficacy.

Definition of Terms

Academic Level

For undergraduate degrees, one of four levels (freshmen, sophomore, junior or senior) assigned to a student based on accumulated credits (0-30; 31-60; 61-90; 90+, respectively). The determination of class year was via student self-report based on this information. Freshmen were coded as 0, sophomores as 1, juniors as 2, and seniors as 3.

Career Decision Self-Efficacy

An individual's belief that they can complete tasks necessary for making career decisions successfully (Taylor & Betz, 1983).

Conduct Officer/Administrator

The student affairs official designated to determine if a student has violated established policy and renders an outcome that may include sanctions and educational requirements.

Disciplinary Process

A University's internal conduct/judicial process is used for students alleged to violate state regulations or institutions' policies. The disciplinary process begins when an interaction between a university official and a student occurs where there is an apparent policy violation. This interaction is followed by a disciplinary process provided to the student. The process concludes once the appropriate university official delivers a decision in writing to the student. However, should the student be determined to have violated a university policy, the student often would have the ability to appeal the decision once they have received the written letter outlining the decision. The process itself is inclusive of all levels of appeal.

Educational Value

The utility of the discipline process as a means through which students gain a better understanding of institutional expectations and themselves (Mullane, 1999).

Gender

Gender refers to one's self-identified biological sex. Participants were given the choice of identifying as either female (coded as 0), male (coded as 1), transgender (coded as 2), or other (coded as 3).

In Loco Parentis

Latin meaning "in the place of a parent." <https://www.dictionary.com/browse/in-loco-parentis>

Race

For this study, race refers to one's self-identified "category of persons who are related by common heredity or ancestry and who are perceived and responded to in terms of external features or traits" (Wilkinson, 1993; p. 19).

Sanctioning Level

This study will comprise three sanctioning levels, which would account for a "grouped" independent variable, each representing different "accountability" levels for student conduct. The three that would be studied within this process are:

1. Reprimand Notice---being the lowest level; viewable as smaller than an actual written warning; an acknowledgment of an issue with institutional policy.
2. University Warning—indicates a violation of policy, whereas subsequent violations will be treated more severely.
3. University Probation--- which would be the highest most "severe" of the levels. This sanction informs the student that a subsequent violation of the Code of Student Conduct will result in revocation of certain University privileges and a serious review of their status as a student at the University. <https://www.montclair.edu/policies/all-policies/code-of-conduct/>

Socioeconomic Status

A term used to describe a combination of education, income, and occupation. It is viewed as the social standing or class of an individual or group

(<http://www.apa.org/pi/ses/resources/publications/factsheeteducation.pdf>). For this study, the reported family income level will assess this variable.

Student Affairs

Student Affairs is the division of services and support for higher education institutions to enhance student growth and development in the United States (NASPA & ACPA, 2010). People

who work in this field are also termed student affairs practitioners or student affairs professionals. These student affairs practitioners collaborate to provide services and support for higher education (NASPA & ACPA, 2010).

Student Affairs Professional

A student affairs professional is employed as a member of the department or division of student affairs. This person can work in different areas of the division or department.

Student Code of Conduct

Standards of conduct and behavior students are held at an institution established to ensure students' safe and educational environment.

Student Conduct

“An interaction of student behavior and institutional policy” (Dannells, 1991, p. 169).

Student Development

The way that a student grows, progresses, or increases their development resulting from enrollment in an institution of higher learning.

Student Development Theory

“Student development theory provides the basis for the practice of student development. Student development theories focus on intellectual growth as well as affective and behavioral changes during the college years” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 7)

Student engagement activities (SEA)

Educationally purposeful activities, which assist in acquiring knowledge to succeed in one's envisioned career (for example--study abroad programs; resident assistants; student government; peer leaders; or Greek life)

Traditional-age College Student

For this study, individuals between 18-24 years of age.

University Policy

The governing board approves the policies of the institution. Policies are outlined in writing and made available to all community members in various manners, not limited to online reviews.

University policies are not to be confused with the local, state, or federal governments' laws, but similar descriptions may exist.

Chapter II: Review of Literature

The development of a student's career path is a critical component for colleges to demonstrate the benefits of higher education (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Research has also shown that significant life events, such as experiences in disciplinary matters, can influence an individual's life course (Khey et al., 2010). While an extensive amount of literature exists reviewing what can impact a college student's career trajectory, none exists on the relationship between career decision self-efficacy and disciplinary processes. This study addressed how participation in the disciplinary process may affect a student's career decision self-efficacy.

This study's primary research question was: does student disciplinary participation have a relationship with career decision self-efficacy among traditional-age college students? A secondary question studied is how gender, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and student engagement relate to a student's career decision self-efficacy. This literature review provides a presentation of multiple areas relevant to this study. These areas include (a) the theoretical framework of the proposed study from student development literature, (b) the evolution of the student conduct process as it exists within postsecondary education student affairs, (c) the current conduct processes utilized, and (d) current literature on career decision self-efficacy and the factors that influence this construct.

Student Development Role in Higher Education

According to Kegan (1994), "People grow best where they continuously experience an ingenious blend of support and challenge" (p. 42). The faculty's primary role is to focus on instruction in the classroom and to produce research. However, the student affairs officer's role is to focus on the whole student's education, which is the paramount desire and framework within higher education (Doyle, 2004; Evans et al., 2010; Jones & Stewart, 2016; Reynolds,

2011). Bowen (1977) and Lester (2013) outlined higher education goals and the influence students' behavior and environmental dynamics have on student outcomes. Bowen (1977) narrowed these goals of higher education to three main functions: "cognitive learning, effective development, and practical competence" (p.27).

Further, these researchers discussed the learning difficulties for students in their development stages and the beneficial influence of higher education students' engagement activities. Bowen (1977) suggested that requirements in developing a student, both having the ability to understand what they learned and how they have developed through their engagement activities, are educational desires. He identified how these activities aid students in their learning progression.

The Student Development and/or Student Affairs field discovered its roots during the creation of the first American College in 1636 and has continued to evolve regardless of the terminology associated with the field (Doyle, 2004). Over the past several decades, philosophical views that were established within the seminal document *Student Personnel Point of View (SPPV)* are a constant in today's setting, as the field of student affairs sets its foundation focused on the development of the student (American Council on Education, 1949). According to the American Council on Education (ACE, 1949), the *SPPV* states:

The development of students as whole persons interacting in social situations is the central concern of student personnel work and other agencies of education. The concept of education is broadened to include attention to the student's well-rounded development physically, socially, emotionally, and spiritually, as well as intellectually. The student is thought of as a responsible participant in his own development and not as a passive recipient of an imprinted

economic, political, or religious doctrine, or vocational skill. (p. 2)

In 1987, ACE partnered with NASPA, Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (formerly titled The National Association of Student Personnel Administrators), to create enhancement in the SPPV in its document *A Perspective on Student Affairs*, focusing on the point of continuous change within the Student Development and Student Affairs field. To demonstrate this point, these organizations stated, “Substantial changes have occurred in student characteristics and the nature and organization of colleges and universities. Student affairs assist institutions in responding to changing conditions by providing services and programs consistent with students’ needs and the institutional mission” (National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, 1987, p. 8).

According to researchers (Coomes & DeBard, 2004; Harper & Wilson, 2010), the college experience’s continuous change resulted in student affairs professionals needing to evolve in their practices to meet the ever-evolving environment and serving students. In 2010, The American Association for Higher Education (AAHE), the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), and NASPA advocated that all student affairs professionals understand and promote ideas and practices for the development of college students (NASPA et al., 2010). Specifically, these professional groups encouraged student affairs practitioners to develop several competency areas including, 1) to review and evaluate their practices in order to strengthen services offered to both students and administrators, 2) monitor student learning in areas of interpersonal development, and 3) apply student development theory within institutional practices (Schuh et al., 2017).

Student Development Theory

Student development theory promotes growth in understanding an individual's values, identities, and accountability (Pavela, 2000). "Student development was defined as the process in which a student grows or increases his or her developmental capabilities because of their experiences as a member of higher education" (Evans et al., 2010, p. 6). Student development theories were initially grouped into five categories that have evolved over the years (Jones & Stewart, 2016). The categories were identified as psychosocial, cognitive-structural, person-environment, humanistic-existential, and student development process models (Evans et al., 1998). Student development theories created best practices within student conduct processes (Boots, 1987; Patton et al., 2006; Schrage & Giacomini, 2009).

Boots (1987) stated that student discipline processes allow student affairs practitioners to intervene in developing a student by providing a proactive approach in their education. Student conduct professionals are advised to understand theory to value where students are in their developmental stage, as this knowledge helps understand the student's needs and nurturing growth (Fischer & Maatman, 2008). These foundational theories focus on the individual within areas of engagement, learning, and life success across higher education (Jones & Abes, 2010).

Subsequently, many researchers (Dannells, 1997; Karp & Sacks, 2014; King, 2012) cite that the developmental theories that have been linked mainly to disciplinary processes examine students from the following perspectives: identity development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993), cognitive and ethical development (Perry, 1981), and cognitive and moral development (Kohlberg, 1969, 2005). Chickering's Identity Development is viewed as a psychosocial theory, while Perry and Kohlberg's perspectives are viewed as cognitive-structural theories (Evans et al., 1998; Jones & Stewart, 2016). All these theories suggest that individuals move through stages,

and in doing so, they can achieve higher levels of decision-making standards and identity development (Evans et al., 1998). This study was primarily guided by Chickering's Identity Development theory, while Perry's Cognitive Development and Kohlberg's Moral Development theories were reviewed to frame the theoretical foundation regarding student conduct fully.

Chickering's 7 Vectors of Identity Development

According to Liversage et al. (2018), students are afforded experiences through new and evolving friendships and environments that assist with their identity development in college. Traditional age college students (18-24) are in the stage of life where they are trying to establish their identity (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Erikson, 1963). Arthur Chickering held that a student's path in establishing their identity was one of the first difficult transitions they faced during their college years (Evans et al., 1998).

Chickering's (1993) theory of identity development finds its foundation in Erikson's fifth stage of development (identity achievement versus identity confusion). In the fifth stage, Erikson (1963) stated that individuals are in a search for their identity. Students must explore their personal beliefs, goals, and values during this search. Erikson (1963) stated that "the adolescent mind is essentially a mind or moratorium, a psychosocial stage between childhood and adulthood, and between the morality learned by the child, and the ethics to be developed by the adult" (p. 245). During this stage, the student determines their roles as they mature into an adult. Additionally, the student explores different lifestyles in education and career (Erikson, 1963). Erikson cautioned that if individuals failed to establish their identity, they would move from job to job, unsure of what they want to do with their lives (Erikson, 1963).

Chickering's model guides student affairs practitioners by depicting development as a series of vectors, rather than consecutive stages, that they move through during their time in

college and into their career and lifespan. The choice to use the term ‘vector’ for these dimensions was based on each of the concepts having a direction and magnitude, which allows for stages not to be viewed just as a straight line, but more of a spiral concept (Chickering, 1969; Evans et al., 1998). Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) revised vectors cover multiple aspects that postsecondary students experience. Chickering and Reisser stated that the flow of movement, along with any of the vectors, might coincide as the individual experiences change in another vector. These seven vectors represent areas of college students’ lives in which difficulty may exist, such as dealing with beliefs, relations, and feelings. As these vectors are not linear, they may be repeated by the student, and there is no standard length that one may exist (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Evans et al., 1998). Movement between the vectors allows for growth in confidence, stability, awareness, and integration (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). However, as Black and Allen (2017) stated, while the vectors do not progress in any set order, it is generally held that the first four are prerequisites for establishing identity and developing purpose and integrity. According to Chickering and Reisser (1993), while movement demonstrates growth in the process, it does take time for students to process their experiences.

The seven vectors are identified as 1) developing competence, 2) managing emotions, 3) moving through autonomy toward interdependence, 4) developing mature interpersonal relationships, 5) establishing identity, 6) developing purpose, and 7) developing integrity (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Evans et al., 1998). Chickering and Reisser (1993) state that the first vector of developing competence is measured by the student’s increased confidence to meet the challenges they face. It would mean that there has been an increase in both the physical and psychological competence so that the student attains both skills and knowledge that would assist the student in completing tasks in their college studies or development. Students realize that their

social and interpersonal development proficiency is as high as their academic achievement desire in this vector. The following vector, managing emotions, would see a student learning to process their emotions more effectively, whether it be a student who has difficulty expressing their emotions or overly expresses their emotions (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). A student who cannot manage their emotions healthily may find themselves violating policies with unhealthy or destructive choices/decisions.

Moving through autonomy toward interdependence (formerly referred to as developing autonomy) includes developing emotional independence, which sometimes can be a challenge to a student due to a desire to be viewed as an adult (Evans et al., 1998). Nevertheless, the student still desires to have a dependent relationship with specific individuals, such as parents and administrators (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Evans et al. (1998) stated that the student could develop problem-solving abilities during this time and recognize the importance of mutual dependence.

Developing mature interpersonal relationships (originally termed Freeing Interpersonal Relationships) would include the student building healthy intimate relations with diverse populations (Evans et al., 1998). A student in this phase would experience developing mature relationships due to respect. The student may also find themselves reexamining prior stages and the issues that they have dealt with during those stages.

The following vector of establishing identity is viewed as problematic by Chickering and Reisser (1993), as they describe it as the individual focusing on gaining a personal awareness of one's own identity. It is akin to asking oneself, "who am I" and beginning to get a sense of one's own identity. These numerous identities include consideration of sexual, social-economic,

racial, body image, and gender, allowing students to strengthen their self-efficacy, self-esteem, and self-worth.

Developing purpose sees the student determining goals and identifying what they would like to accomplish. This stage also sees the individual making choices on how they plan on overcoming challenges that they may face in meeting their goals (Evans et al., 1998). This vector may include personal aspects and vocational experiences (paid positions or volunteer jobs), as the student may be progressing in their career choice.

The next and final vector is developing integrity, where an individual takes part in three tasks. These tasks develop their values, followed by personalizing their values and concluding with developing congruence (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). In this vector, the student leaves the binary construct within their value system (i.e., right or wrong) and focuses on incorporating a comprehensive system that also involves others' feelings. In doing such, the student can develop their value system in a manner that allows them to affirm their core values. This process is supported by developing congruence, where the individual chooses actions to complement their values (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Using Chickering's theory, a student in the college environment is presented with numerous challenges due to new influences and challenges that may serve as learning opportunities filled with new influences and experiences (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). The process of identity development is complex and involves establishing adult roles, including entering the world of work or establishing a career plan (Erikson, 1963; Super, 1990). Discipline processes serve as a substantial intervention time for administrators to use "teachable moments" with the student to assist them in their development. Due to providing a comprehensive review of how students proceed in their development, as well as demonstrating the validity of the theory

itself amongst diverse populations, Chickering's theory is one of the most utilized theories in higher education for understanding students' development (Evans et al., 2010; Liversage et al., 2018), thus making it relevant in driving this study with the provided population.

Perry's Cognitive Theory of Intellectual and Ethical Development

William Perry (1970) studied college students' development and introduced a scheme for understanding knowledge received during their college years. Perry conducted the first significant study between 1954-1963 to focus directly on the undergraduate population, with a series of interviews among male and female students from Harvard and Radcliffe (Black & Allen, 2017). Perry created a theory based on cognitive development positions ranging from dualism through relativism.

Perry asserted that students travel within four phases or "positions" of development during their college years (Perry, 1981). Each phase is defined with the shifting views toward the level of knowledge the student comprehends. Perry's (1981) positions are *dualism* (basic and full), *multiplicity* (early and late), *relativism* (contextual and pre-commitment), and *commitment*. Dualism is the lowest level where the individual has received knowledge and understands there is right and wrong and looks to those in authority for answers (Perry, 1981). Dualism then may be viewed as "basic" and "full" dualism (Brady & Kearns, 1987; Perry, 1981). Basic dualism offers that all problems are answerable, but the student must learn the correct answer, while full dualism refers to the student selecting the correct answer and ignoring answers offered by others that are "not correct." In this stage, the student is dichotomous in their thinking, being "either/or," with knowledge delivered by authoritative persons (Black & Allen, 2017).

The next phase follows with "subjective" knowledge, where there are conflicting answers, and students must use their intuition to determine their choices, which is called

multiplicity. Multiplicity occurs when two types of problems exist (Perry, 1981). Early multiplicity states that there are problems that we know the answers to and those that we do not know the answers to yet. However, late multiplicity suggests that most problems are those that we do not know the answer to, but students have the right to have their answers to the problem. Perry (1981) proposes that most freshmen students fall into the multiplicity phase. Students often question their continuance of education in this period, as they may feel that if they do not have the correct answer, they cannot continue their studies or that there is too much emphasis placed on only the prescribed “right” answers.

According to Perry (1970), the next phase of knowledge regards relativistic and procedural knowledge and is termed relativism. This phase focuses on disciplinary reasoning techniques between connected (subjective) knowledge and separated (objective) knowledge. This phase finds students comprehending contextual relativism, where they understand that reasons support an answer, but the answer must be viewed as relevant to the situation’s context. This phase allows individuals to understand that various views can be equally valid. Perry (1981) states that the student will enter the “pre-commitment” phase to see that making choices and committing to the correct path is necessary. For students to commit to this phase, they must internalize their feelings as a way of grieving the prior stage (Winston & Saunders, 1998). This stage may obstruct students’ progress, as they need to grasp how their behaviors impact not only themselves but others in this period (Brady & Kearns, 1987; Perry, 1981).

Perry’s (1981) final stage, termed commitment, addresses the views of full commitment or constructed knowledge. Perry stated that students would incorporate what they have learned through personal experiences and self-reflection of that experience. Perry’s theory offers that a

student commits, explores the implications of that commitment, and understands that the commitment is an ongoing engagement.

Student development administrators who follow Perry's theory can help students manage the many changes presented during college. In keeping with this position, the disciplinary process would be applicable in assisting students in their transitions within and after their college years. First-year students may be near Perry's first position as they know right from wrong. As students move from their first year, where they are being challenged in their knowledge and critical thinking, they can be provided experiential opportunities to learn how their decisions impact their lives and future careers. While this theory is secondary to this study, it is worthy of review as it assists in understanding why a student may violate policy. Specifically, Perry (1981) stated that individuals behave in specific ways, as they believe what they do is correct, which means it is not against the law. Thus, students may violate policy as they do not understand it is a violation. Additionally, the theory allows the student affairs practitioner to support the student's development through Perry's positions and is appropriate for the intended population.

Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

Lawrence Kohlberg's (1969) theory of moral development addresses an individual's judgment and how they determine what may or may not be a justifiable action. Kohlberg's approach follows from Piaget's (1932/1977) work on moral development. An individual will determine the value of what direction or choice they have before them based on factors like social impulses, standards of groups, and individual judgment (Evans et al., 1998; Kohlberg, 2005). Kohlberg (1969) initially used his theory to define individual ethical reasoning regardless of any actions occurring during that moment. Kohlberg (1986) expressed that moral judgment decision-making allowed for the development of moral consciousness. In stating such, he

positioned that when a student matures, they can make better and more competent moral judgments than when they have lower moral judgment. Kohlberg's theory focuses on understanding the consequences of one's behavior and the resulting discipline.

As Perry did with incorporating cognitive development into a set of stages, Kohlberg also provides a set of stages that an individual will progress through (Evans et al., 1998). These stages are divided into pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional or principled (Kohlberg, 1986). The pre-conventional level consists of two stages labeled Heteronomous Morality and Individualistic Morality and sees students begin with only focusing on themselves (Evans et al., 1998; King, 2012). Within these stages, an individual would be viewed as selecting to follow all rules to not face negative consequences or punishment in their lives, while the individual would follow policies that benefit themselves (Evans et al., 1998; King, 2012).

The conventional level consists of stages three and four, called Interpersonally Normative Morality and Social System Morality. In stage three, progress is made as the individual demonstrates signs of meeting expectations of essential individuals in their lives, such as parents and teachers, followed by the fourth stage where the individual realizes that everyone has morals that form society's overarching morals (Kohlberg, 1986).

Kohlberg's (1986) final level, post-conventional or principled, encompasses Human Rights and Social Welfare Morality and the final stages of Morality of Universalizable, Reversible, and Prescriptive General Ethics Principles. These final stages see the individual move to a point where they enter groups to maintain values that they hold and determine morals that apply to everything that one does (Evans et al., 1998). Individuals progress through these stages in only one direction, forward, with the individual expanding their views of morality from internal to a societal construct (Evans et al., 1998; King, 2012). According to Kohlberg (1986), a

student would typically be entering college at either stage 3 or 4, seeking social conformity and pleasing others.

According to Kohlberg and Hersh (1977), a focus of student development is stimulating student thinking to the extent that they can develop their reasoning patterns in the future. Much like Perry's theory, while not the guiding theory, Kohlberg's theory is beneficial to understand when working with a student engaged in the student conduct system because of the belief that students make decisions based on their morals. This theory sheds necessary insight into students' participation within the disciplinary process.

Student affairs practitioners dealing with student conduct practices often find themselves discussing concepts with the student of what they did and addressing why the institution has the policy, which promotes understanding what stage of morality the student finds themselves during the conduct process. A university's objective is to prepare students to succeed in their professional careers and assist them in entering the "establishment" stage of career development; it makes sense that every university's process should achieve this goal for its' respective students. Evans et al. (2010) state that research communities view cognitive learning as how individuals process information and the importance of this step for an individual's overall development. As outlined by NASPA/AAHE/ACPA (2010), the student affairs field is guided by the firm view that learning and development intertwine throughout the campus environment, both academically and outside of the classroom.

The Discipline Process

According to Stimpson and Stimpson (2008), universities and their respective student development administrators have had concerns about student behavior since students started attending postsecondary institutions. A historical contextualization of student conduct within

higher education institutions in the United States is needed to understand how the process has evolved. Institutions have developed these processes to determine student behavior expectations and the repercussions for not adhering to established student conduct guidelines as outlined in institutional policies. Students' misconduct led to the need to incorporate disciplinary processes to address students' actions.

From before *in loco parentis* to the current day, colleges and universities have been expected to address student behavior to include inclusive education for the respective student. The process is intended to aid the student in their educational pursuit and not be punitive, as is often the case with the criminal system. Pavela (1985) detailed the value in holding students accountable within the discipline process, stating, "In reality, if the discipline is successful, then the student regains self-control and remains in the college and the college has one less disruptive student" (p. 47).

Student Discipline Historically on College Campuses

Higher education established its foundation in America before 1770, with New College (now known as Harvard) founded in 1636. This foundation was followed by eight other degree-awarding colleges that were implemented in colonial days: New Jersey (now known as Princeton), King's (now known as Columbia University), Queen's (now known as Rutgers University), College of Rhode Island (now known as Brown University), College of Philadelphia (now known as University of Pennsylvania), Collegiate School (now known as Yale), William and Mary, and Dartmouth (Rudolph, 1991). As reports of disruption and poor behavior started to become ever more frequent, debates ensued about whose role it was and how to handle student misbehavior. In 1763, Yale found itself having to discipline students when they went into the local town of New Haven, Connecticut, and caused problems, as the students were reported to be

intoxicated. The town demanded that Yale act regarding the students' behavior. In 1805, James F. Cooper, who entered Yale in 1803 at age 13, was removed from the University for varying accounts of misconduct. Stories ranged from attempting to blow another student up with gunpowder to that of having a donkey sit in a professor's chair (Schiff, 2006). His brother had been rumored to have been removed from Princeton in 1802 after attempting to burn down Nassau Hall. In 1807, Francis Cummings was expelled from Princeton University because he was harassing the townspeople when he was drunk. His expulsion led to student protests called the Princeton Rebellion of 1807, which resulted in over 100 students being expelled (Gayle & Norment, 2009).

These events were primarily precursors to Thomas Jefferson's letter of declaration regarding students' independence concerns (Kaplin & Lee, 2014). In 1836, Charlottesville's riots on the University of Virginia grounds saw faculty and others being assaulted by students who were reportedly intoxicated, which made Thomas Jefferson and other leaders examine student conduct. Years before the riots, Jefferson (1904-1905) wrote his opinion to Thomas Cooper on November 2, 1822, where he was concerned about what lay ahead. Jefferson (1904-1905) stated:

The article of discipline is the most difficult in American education. Premature ideas of independence, too little repressed by parents, beget a spirit of insubordination, which is the great obstacle to science with us, and a principal cause of its decay since the revolution. I look to it with dismay in our institution, as a breaker ahead, which I am far from being confident we shall be able to weather (Jefferson, 1822).

Thomas Jefferson (1904-1905) details the incident where 14 students, reportedly 16 years of age, who had been drinking wine disguised themselves and went out on the

lawn (a sizeable grassy court surrounded by academic buildings akin to a quad) and were disruptive. Professors confronted the students and demanded that the students identify themselves after the students insulted and threw items at the faculty. The students were able to escape, but the next day, when the administration called the guilty to come forth and identify themselves, not only did the responsible students not come forth, but the remaining students sided with their classmates. When visitors met with the students the following day, they pled with the innocent students to not be complicit with the guilty and for those to come forth so that the non-responsible would not be punished. Three were expelled when the responsible students came forth, and the rest suffered suspensions and other lower consequences. Jefferson (1904-1905) stated in a letter to Ellen W. Coolidge in November 1825:

It determined the well-disposed among them to frown upon everything of the kind hereafter, and the ill-disposed returned to order from fear, if not from better motives. A perfect subordination has succeeded, entire respect towards the professors, and industry, order, and quiet the most exemplary has prevailed ever since. Everyone is sensible of the strength which the institution has derived from what appeared at first to threaten its foundation. We have no further fear of anything of the kind from the present set, but as at the next term their numbers will be more than doubled by the accession of an additional band, as unbroken as these were, we mean to be prepared, and to ask of the legislature a power to call in the civil authority in the first instant of disorder, and to quell it on the spot by imprisonment and the same legal coercions provided against disorder generally committed by other citizens, from whom, at their age, they have no right to distinction. (Jefferson, 1825)

According to Smith (1994), college presidents or tutors initially handled student conduct incidents. As there was a focus in early education regarding religious ministry and teachings, tutors were young men waiting for positions within the ministry to assist colleges in different roles (Lancaster & Waryold, 2008). Faculty in early America were only focused on educating students in the classroom, not on student behavior. Institutions were guided by Academic Abstention as they were established, which was a concept created in medieval times that reflects the ideological basis of both academic autonomy and freedom (Kaplan & Lee, 2014; Rudolph, 1991). Rudolph (1991) discusses this period as when faculty had almost an ownership of the student in a process much like a guild's master-apprentice relationship. Universities had possession of the student and provided for them as their parents, as they took care of their food, studies, and housing. This arrangement came to be known as *in loco parentis*, Latin for "in place of the parent" (Kaplan & Lee, 2014). Rudolph (1991) stated that this stance allowed institutions to become the de facto parent for the student regarding all aspects of the student's life and afforded no learning opportunity or fundamental fairness.

In loco parentis provided colleges with the ability to educate the student and discipline the student in whatever manner they saw fit. As was typical during those days, the discipline was both verbal and physical, where the students were subject to mockery, whippings with belts, or additional work assignments (Rudolph, 1991). For numerous decades, courts did not weigh in on institutions' action; indeed, courts viewed all colleges' faculty decisions as binding. This practice continued the trend of faculty-led institutions that exacted capricious and often punitive-based disciplinary outcomes when dealing with questionable behavior.

Starting in the early twentieth century and lasting well into the 1960s, the Supreme Court decision in *Gott v. Berea* (1913) held that postsecondary institutions were responsible for

students' oversight and development during their college years in place of their parents (Lancaster, 2012). In *Gott v. Berea* (1913), Berea College was sued by a local proprietor who disagreed with the college limiting students in pursuits off-campus (Loss, 2014). The college had implemented a new policy in their code, which forbade students from visiting any non-Berea College establishment, resulting in dismissal if a student was found at these prohibited locations. Gott challenged the school for their policy, which affected his business. The courts ruled that due to *in loco parentis* the college had the right to make the rule (Loss, 2014). In the 1920s, Harvard University faculty were reported to have engaged in pseudo "witch-hunts" at the Massachusetts campus. The University interrogated students they believed were gay or friends with those who identified as gay to expel those individuals (Ronner, 2007; Wright, 2005). The President of Harvard arranged for a "secret court" that both expelled students and attempted to keep these students out of other schools after being subjected to Harvard's corrupt conduct system. At Hobart College (a private college now named Hobart and William Smith College in New York), students were reported to roll cannonballs down hallways and injure live-in faculty in 1922. As demonstrated by these instances, to this point in history, colleges were not viewed as developmental in their dealings with student conduct as students were under the authoritarian control of faculty (Kaplin & Lee, 2014; Lancaster & Waryold, 2008; Pavela & Pavela, 2011).

However, in the 1960s, these operating processes diminished as the conclusion of *in loco parentis* neared. This end came in the era of the Civil Rights movement. The first precedent case which affected college student affairs professionals was *Dixon v Alabama State Board of Education* (Kaplin & Lee, 2014). This case involved a group of students who were protesting civil rights. When they did not comply with the administration's demands to stop protesting, they were expelled without any process provided to them. The students went to court in 1961, and

Alabama State was found to violate the students' due process rights respective to the Constitution's 14th Amendment (Kaplan & Lee, 2014). This legal decision introduced precedence that students who are alleged to violate policy must be given due process.

These due processes vary from institution to institution, with primary differences seen in the type of institution, respective of public or private status. Conduct processes at private institutions typically differ from those required by public institutions; however, all institutions must adhere to their approved or established policies regardless of whether they identify as public or private (Kaplin & Lee, 2014). Courts have generally limited their restraint within private universities, allowing more autonomy for those institutions (Travelstead, 1987). While private institutions must serve their stakeholders, they tend to hold to contractual law so that whatever requirements and policies are listed in the admission acceptance package is what the student is held accountable to, such as prohibited use of items. It is hugely beneficial for a private institution to provide as many of the disciplinary requirements that a public institution must, such as notice of charges and opportunity to be heard, so that legal issues are avoided. Throughout the legal cases that have been presented and the development of student due processes, higher education institutions have matured in their understanding of assisting a student who faces disciplinary action (Kaplin & Lee, 2014).

Current Practices in College Campus Discipline

Colleges and universities have been expected to address student behavior to have a comprehensive education for their respective students since colonial times (Smith, 1994). Universities determine what is acceptable behavior within their codes of conduct so that they not only ensure safety for all their constituents but allow students the ability to grow in their understanding of personal responsibility and campus-wide accountability (Healy & Liddell,

1998; King, 2012). Komives and Woodard (1996) noted that student conduct and development processes have evolved to expand beyond the classroom and take a holistic view.

Lancaster and Waryold (2008) indicate that student discipline is intended to aid the student in their educational pursuit and not be punitive, as is often the case with the criminal system. Lopez-Phillips and Trageser (2008) identified the significant role that student conduct professionals possess due to their positional power to alter a student's reality with their "caring and just" decisions in facilitating development. As demonstrated in the prior section, concerns about student behaviors on university campuses is not a new development and have at times led to institutions of higher education determining that the best outcome is removing students from the college due to the impact of students' behaviors on the school, the faculty, and other students (O'Reilly & Evans, 2007). Now, student affairs professionals have replaced faculty as conduct decision-makers. An educational and fair process has replaced those seen as unfair and punitive, and these processes continue to expand.

In current conduct processes, student affairs professionals are focused on two types of knowledge foundations: student development and legal issues (Stimpson & Stimpson, 2008). Student affairs professionals balance an intersection of an educational role in the institution with pseudo-legal expertise. While they must understand legal concepts, they have been advised not to imbue their processes with legal terminology, as when done, courts traditionally have been skeptical of their focus on education (Gehring, 2013). Student conduct processes will substitute terms like the guilty, defendant, and prosecutors with responsible, reported party, and conduct officer. Likewise, processes are not meant to be akin to what occurs in courtrooms or as seen on television shows. Conduct processes must focus on the student's education and determine the

relationship between the student and the institution. This stance is stated eloquently in the following court ruling:

“[Student disciplinary proceedings] are not criminal in nature as they only regulate the relationship between the student and the university, and have no bearing on a student’s legal rights or obligations under state or federal laws.” *The United States v. Miami University*, 91 F. Supp.2d 1132, 1157 (S.D. Ohio 2000)

Whether they are termed disciplinarians, student conduct officers, or judicial affairs administrators, these individuals are tasked with providing a process that focuses on their development. As the years have passed, student discipline has become more regulatory, focusing on incidents involving sexual assault, alcohol and other drugs, and campus safety (Kaplin & Lee, 2014). Much the way institutions are subsets of society, student conduct processes mirror what criminal and civil judiciary systems deal with in court. Schuck (2017) discusses how these processes focus on development and deterrence, even though the goals may appear opposite to the student. According to researchers, deterrence is grounded in rational choice theory with the view that individuals will weigh potential risks and benefits in making their decisions before engaging in the determined action (Bernard et al., 2010; Tomlinson, 2016). Student affairs professionals must again balance the ability to deter policy violations with students' opportunities to learn and develop.

Student Affairs practitioners often are guided to implement a Facilitator Paradigm design within the disciplinary process (Bickel & Lake, 1999). This view encourages universities to facilitate student development by providing rules and consequences but demands that they respect responsible adult students' due process when they must discipline them. Discipline systems were viewed very negatively and received harsh criticism (Pavela, 1997; Pavela &

Pavela, 2011; Schuck, 2017; Stoner & Lowery, 2004). Accordingly, colleges and universities developed "codes of conduct" that, regardless of model, focus on the student's development and discourage initial or repeated policy violations. Higher education institutions create these codes to protect all community members by setting restrictions on the actions allowed in being a member of the said community (Braxton & Bray, 2012). Established written codes of conduct govern student behavior and provide clear guidelines of the possible sanctions or outcomes for violation (King, 2012; Lake, 2011; Lindsay, 2009).

During the conduct process, a common goal is to provide the student the opportunity to learn about the process; reflect on the incident and how it affects not only the student who violates the policy, but also the community, and learn from the experience (Kaplan & Lee, 2014; Lancaster, 2012). If found responsible in the process, the student is often given sanctions with the outcome, hopefully, intended to continue the student's educational opportunity. Student compliance with the code of conduct is overseen by student affairs personnel within college campuses, and members of the staff are charged with ensuring students follow the university's published behavioral code to protect the institution, its staff, and students. The student code of conduct also clearly outlines the due process available to students if they are charged with violating the code. This due process is like that afforded to plaintiffs in legal proceedings (Lancaster, 2012). However, while the process may mirror the legal process, it is quite different, as the outcome is viewed more educationally instead of punitive, which is the case in the criminal process (Delworth, 2012; Kompalla & McCarthy; 2001; Lancaster, 2012).

Adjudication Practices

Schuck (2017) suggested that discipline processes may positively influence students due to how an institution reviews the conduct violation. Two typical processes have been identified

in the literature, which offers the framework involving student conduct practices guidelines. The two processes that address student conduct violations are 1) the model code and 2) restorative justice (Karp & Sacks, 2014). The model code was developed by Stoner and Lowery (2004) to provide a standard of conducting a fair discipline process, which institutions could implement for their students. It is generally viewed as a formal assurance of due processes provided to the accused students. Some also view this as a modified court process mirroring the criminal justice system. In a study of the model code process, Howell (2005) mentioned students indicating the opportunity to learn to think about possible consequences. In considering these consequences, students can select better options to assist them in their futures. Researchers have shown that model code processes emphasize student development theory application to aid students (Fitch & Murray, 2001; Howell, 2005).

In comparison, the restorative justice aspect is akin to a mediation process, where the focus is placed on the accused student understanding how their actions affected the community and working with that community to make amends (Karp & Sacks, 2014). Restorative justice is a “process whereby all the parties with a stake in a particular offense come together to resolve collectively how to deal with the aftermath of the offense and its implications for the future” (Braithwaite, 2002, p. 11; Latimer et al., 2005). Karp and Frank (2016) advocate for restorative justice processes as they view traditional (i.e., model code) conduct systems aligned with a focus only on applying punitive sanctions instead of providing educational opportunities. These practices include identifying harm, repairing the harm, and rehabilitating the offender while empowering those who identify as victims.

It has been argued that restorative justice practices can be combined with knowledge on social justice, identity development, and diversity among students to assist in building

community (Adams et al., 2007). In helping students understand how their actions have affected others via an open discussion, restorative justice practices are viewed as aiding an individual in making more thoughtful future decisions (Adams et al., 2007). Restorative justice has also been recommended in some criminal cases, such as those involving non-violent offenders, so that they can be provided the ability to give back to those impacted by their actions (Kebodeaux, 2017).

Karp and Sacks (2014) propose that as student conduct is intended to aid in a student's learning, there must be a manner of identifying the learning goals. Their research states six indicators for learning outcomes within student conduct: just community/self-authorship, active accountability, interpersonal competence, social ties to the institution, due fairness, and closure. Their study, the Student Accountability and Restorative Research, or STARR Project, found that students benefited from their participation in the given institution's conduct process, as their scores in the six learning outcomes increased significantly (Karp & Sacks, 2014). Komives and Woodard (1996) point out that like Chickering's first vector, the focus of developing competence from a student development viewpoint includes both intellectual and interpersonal competence. However, the model has received criticism for being "too legalistic" and that in restorative justice practices, there must be an actual victim to have the offender provide reparations (Kaplin & Lee, 2014).

While many institutions differ on how they implement their respective processes, Fitch and Murry (2001) found in their study that there were no significant differences in the effectiveness of the differing systems. Some institutions have also attempted to use "merged" processes so that the students and institutions can benefit from various aspects of the model code and restorative justice processes or with a counseling focus. This paradigm of blending is seen throughout the various areas that fall under the umbrella of student affairs. Protivnak et al.

(2013) stated that institutions seek staff members to be competent in administrative and counseling aspects. This approach is supported by various studies, which have demonstrated that universities prefer having student affairs employees understand counseling dynamics (Cuyjet et al., 2009; Protivnak et al., 2013; Stone & Lucas, 1994). Student development professionals attempt to provide students the opportunity to let these interactions be an educational experience.

Using counseling techniques within institutional discipline allows the disciplinary officer to assist the student before them. This researcher's experience finds that many students come into the process with fear of the outcome regarding their violation of policy. When this occurs, they present with defensive mechanisms, like having guarded responses and not being open with their respective student affairs administrator, which circumvents the conduct officer's desire to aid the student. When student affairs professionals work with college students in these crucial interactions, having the ability to use counseling techniques is quite valuable (Harper & Wilson, 2010), as the outcome of the discipline process may impact the student's ability to continue at the institution and in turn, have a crucial impact on their life's journey.

According to Protivnak et al. (2013), counseling skills are imperative for student affairs professionals in their roles as supervisors, program coordinators, case management, crisis response teams, and group facilitators, even more so as they often provide advising and counseling to groups and individuals. Roles that offer additional counseling areas include advocating for students that identify as underrepresented populations or with the individual student, consulting with student organizations, faculty, staff, and parents, often seen in student conduct professionals.

The Disciplinary Process Procedure

If a student is suspected of violating a code of conduct, they are subject to the process laid out within the university's student code of conduct (King, 2012; Lindsay, 2009). These processes, wide-ranging at times from informal discussions to formal court hearings, include options of mediation, discussions, or referral to appear in front of the judicial review board or individual administrator who would determine the responsibility of the student and corresponding sanctions (King, 2012; Lancaster, 2012).

Janosik and Stimpson (2017) outlined the formal discipline process as sending the student notice of charges, explaining the process and options, providing a hearing process where the student is offered the opportunity to be heard, and providing a fundamentally fair and timely process. The institutional process is designed to deter students from violating a policy and educate those who find themselves in policy violations to consider alternatives in the future and choose to comply with institutional guidelines. The conduct process is generally divided into three phases: intervention, review, and resolution.

Incidents begin with intervention on behalf of the institution. These interventions take the form of both passive and active. For example, active interventions would include but are not limited to a faculty member confronting a student in the classroom about disruptive behavior or finding the student cheating on an exam; institutional police involvement resulting in an arrest for driving a motor vehicle under the influence of alcohol or a narcotic; or residence life staff confronting a room reported for excessive noise, at which time they might find other policy violations occurring in that location. Passive intervention examples are faculty finding plagiarism during the review of a submitted paper or residence life staff entering an on-campus housing facility and noting that the occupants of a room have failed inspection. After the intervention,

there is a review phase at the institution. The review phase consists of the student affairs professional(s) who deal with disciplinary incidents reviewing the submitted documentation to determine if enough evidence, based on institutional standards, has been submitted to warrant moving forward in the process.

According to Lancaster (2012), the resolution phase consists of various steps and processes itself. At the institution where the study occurred, students may have their incidents determined in various options. Students may receive a “reprimand or notice letter” for incidents involving first-time minor residential or academic dishonesty violations. Students may have meetings that involve discussing options in understanding the guidelines or proper citation and how to avoid the same issues that may have led to the incident after the process concludes. They may also receive these notices for participating in the institutional amnesty program regarding drugs and alcohol. Students generally have their results determined in one of two processes afforded to students at the institution: a panel/conduct board hearing or an administrative hearing. Administrative hearings offer the accused student the ability to meet with one student affairs officer, who will hear their account of the incident, discuss their behaviors, and then render an outcome based on the findings and institutional guidelines. Panel hearings allow the accused student to be heard by trained faculty, administrators, and sometimes students to present their accounts of the incident and determine the outcome. If the student is held responsible for policy violations in either scenario, they are afforded an appeal process. This phase concludes the process.

For students to be held responsible for policy violations, the institution must meet a standard of information/evidence. Various standards have been applied depending on the environment; however, three levels are consistently discussed when reviewing behaviors.

Criminal courts have established their level to be beyond a reasonable doubt, which means that “facts proven must, by virtue of their probative force, establish guilt” (Black & Garner, 2004, p. 111) and leave no doubt for the determining party(s). This standard is typically viewed between 98-99% positively sure and is the standard for criminal courts. Colleges and universities do not typically hold this level, as the institution neither has the same abilities as courts (e.g., the power of subpoena) nor determines if someone’s violation results in depriving them of liberties (i.e., placing a person in prison). Some colleges have established clear and convincing guidelines “that proof results in reasonable certainty of the truth” (Black & Garner, 2004, p. 172). This level is viewed approximately as 75% proof, and the Federal Department of Education implemented standards that allow colleges that receive federal funds to use this standard in proceedings and Title IX guidance. The final standard that colleges traditionally utilize is that of the preponderance of evidence standard, which is also used in civil lawsuits. This standard is defined as “the proof need only show that the facts are more likely to be than not to be” (Long, 1985, p. 74). This standard is expressed as 50.1%, allowing student affairs officers more flexibility in determining behavior and educationally resolving incidents.

University professionals who administer the conduct system or adjudicate alleged violations of policy seek to ensure that the process is educational and insightful. This action is done to broaden students’ understanding of how their behaviors are not aligned with the institution's mission (Karp & Conrad, 2005). In this vein, institutions demonstrate a commitment to a student’s development, as the process fosters building rapport with students, active discussion and review about the incident, and encourages personal growth for the student. Student compliance to the code of conduct is overseen by student affairs personnel within college campuses, and members of the staff are charged with ensuring students follow the

university's published behavioral code to protect the institution, its staff, and students.

Accordingly, student affairs personnel have been identified as having a significant influence on students throughout their college journey (Dungy, 2010).

Lancaster (2012) posits that the myriad of options for dealing with student discipline range from extensive systematized processes such as those that mirror courtrooms to those that are less formal, which may consider attributes associated with mediation, coaching, and restorative justice applications. Examples of student offenses include drug and alcohol violations, sexual misconduct and harassment, vandalism, theft, forgery, fire safety policies, weapons, bias actions, bullying, physical assault, and violations of various local, state, or federal laws (Consolvo & Dannells, 2000; Kiracofe & Buller, 2009).

Likewise, examples of offenses may also include acts of academic dishonesty. Academic dishonesty violations typically consist of various violations such as plagiarism, unapproved collusion, altering answers, or cheating on tests. These dishonesty forms typically violate the conduct policy and result in failing the class, a formal complaint letter in the student's file, or even removal from the institution (Bennett, 2019). Determination of academic dishonesty and the resulting penalties differ from institution to institution, as some universities have decisions made by a single faculty or a group of faculty members. In contrast, others allow the outcome to be determined by student affairs professionals under the established code or honor tribunals. McCabe and Trevino (1993) produced the best-known data in which they studied academic dishonesty prevalence. Their study found that almost seventy-five percent of participants reported committing academic dishonesty (Whitley & Keith-Spiegel, 2002). It is hypothesized that the increase in academic dishonesty incidents in colleges will result in future workplace improper actions (Mohr et al., 2011).

The extent of the offense and whether the student is a repeat offender are various factors, which influence if the student may be given a sanction by the student affairs personnel or the judicial review committee. Sanctions may include warnings and probation, allowing the student to continue their time at the institution and different suspension lengths, resulting in the student leaving the institution for a specified period. Further, the sanction can result in the student being expelled from the institution, which prohibits any return to the university, and typically marks the transcript so that potential future institutions are aware of the prior sanction. According to Kaplin and Lee (2014), students who face expulsion may attempt arguing injunctive relief in courts so that institutions would not be able to use this sanction; however, courts have ruled that this argument is not appropriate for sanctions like warnings and probation that fall beneath that threshold.

As the seriousness of the offense rises, so does the severity of the resulting sanctions. The judicial review outcome can influence a student to drop out of school or take longer to graduate from the institution. If the offense results in criminal charges, the student may have a record that will affect potential employment opportunities. Further, the outcome may affect relationships between the student and his/her parents, friends, or mentors. Lukosius et al. (2013) discuss how various support systems, including social and community support, family support, and academic support structures, influence students' intention to continue college. However, Lent (2005) notes that obstacles in a person's environment would affect career goals and actions. If an outcome is rendered that results in these support systems being affected or presenting an obstacle for the student, it will most likely influence the student's learning outcome and future career development.

Career Development

Career development is dynamic and influenced by individual and social factors (Lent, 2005; Super, 1990). While individuals will hold various jobs throughout their lifespans, this alone does not define one's overall career. To understand career development, understanding what defines the term "career" needs to be addressed. Donald Super (1976) states that a "career" can be recognized as:

the course of events which constitutes a life; the sequence of occupations and other life roles which combine to express one's commitment to work in his or her total pattern of self-development; the series of remunerated and non-remunerated positions occupied by a person from adolescence through retirement, of which occupation is only one; includes work-related roles such as those of student, employee, and pensioner together with complementary avocational, familial, and civic roles. Careers exist only as people pursue them; they are person-centered. It is this last notion of careers, "they exist only as people pursue them," which summarizes much of the rationale for career guidance. (p. 4)

Super outlined a lifespan theory of an individual's development regarding their career, which helps understand what a college student may be experiencing during this period. Individuals will go through several stages in their development, referenced as growth; exploration, which contains three sub-phases (crystallizing, specifying, implementing); establishment, maintenance, and disengagement (Smart, 1994; Super, 1990).

In the growth stage, individuals form their career attitudes based on peer interactions with family members and teachers. The exploration phase follows the growth stage. According to Super's (1990) theory of vocational development, most college students are in the exploration stage of career development and are working on one of the three developmental tasks listed prior.

The next step of career development in Super's (1990) model is establishment, and witnesses the individual having an entry-level job in one's profession after obtaining the requisite skills through completion of a degree, involvement in campus activities, and developing a resume of skills that employers are looking for in new graduates (Chegg, 2013). The final stages set forth by Super are the maintenance stage, where individuals are focused on stability within their chosen career choice and finish with the fifth stage, disengagement, which is the end of the career journey when the individual retires (Nevill, 1997; Super, 1976).

Career Development of a College Student

Super (1990) notes that higher education students are typically in the exploration stage of career development. They are working on one of the three tasks of this stage: crystallization, specification, or implementation to establish themselves within their chosen professions. Students' time in college is about obtaining their academic degree and about the other engagement activities to help them complete these development tasks and build a resume.

According to Super (1990), crystallization for the student encompasses when the student develops a tentative career goal and predominantly when the student is pre-college to the first-year studies. This stage sees the student considering different interests and exploring these interests and ideas by taking classes and participating in activities. Other individuals may have entered the specification phase and have selected a major. Specification, traditionally when the student is between 19-21 years of age, finds the student determining their career path (Super, 1990).

Those further ahead in their career development may be nearing the end of the exploration stage and working on the implementation phase (Super, 1990). Implementation sees the traditional college student when they are engaged in specific training and searching for their

chosen careers. In this final sub-stage, they are implementing their career choice through internships and entry-level positions in the field of their choice (Super, 1976). Super (1990) describes these stages as when students choose a major or field of training and maybe trying out new jobs to see if the job is in line with their career path.

Taken primarily from Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, the framework itself accentuates the concept that people exercise personal agency or direct actions for a given purpose in the career development process and extra-personal factors either enhance or constrain agency (Lent et al., 1994). A basic tenet of Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) is that an individual's career development is highly influenced by their social context (Lent, 2005). The most critical factors of SCCT related to university students who engage in purposeful activities are how these experiences may affect the students' self-efficacy, outcome aspirations, and perhaps, more importantly, perceived barriers to achieving career goals (Lent, 2005; Lindley, 2005).

Career Decision Self-Efficacy for Students

Originally referred to as career decision-making self-efficacy, career decision self-efficacy (CDSE), stemmed from Bandura's (1977) findings on self-efficacy, refers to an individual's belief that they can effectively complete tasks related to making career decisions (Betz et al., 1996; Taylor & Betz, 1983). Betz and Hackett (2006) continued to refine the concept of career decision self-efficacy as one's belief in accomplishing the tasks involved in the career development process, including collecting information, determining goals, selecting future career plans, and then solving problems. Career decision-making for any student becomes what most would view as a paramount life expectancy (Yang & Gysbers, 2007). The establishment of a career plan is not a linear process but rather a process that occurs throughout

the lifespan and involves individual and social contexts (Super, 1990; Woodside et al., 2003). Building on the work of Erikson (1963), Chickering and Reisser (1993) stated that for most students, the purpose of college is to develop a whole student for their career. According to the National Career Development Association (2011), these factors consist of psychological, sociological, physical, economic, and educational components, impacting an individual's overall career. One of the most studied paradigms in career development literature is self-efficacy, specifically, career decision self-efficacy (Choi et al., 2012).

Alfred Bandura developed his self-efficacy theory in 1977, where he proposed that career decision self-efficacy (CDSE) will determine if someone will perform or abstain from performing a task (Bandura, 1977). Bandura's (1977) theory explains self-efficacy as a cognitive structure determined by experiences throughout a person's life. Bandura (1995) states that self-efficacy can influence multiple aspects of an individual, including their decisions, emotions, level of effort, and persistence over obstacles. Self-efficacy sources include experiences where the person watches others perform tasks and experiences in which the individual engages in the performance or activity (Bandura, 1995; Kim et al., 2014). Stickel and Bonett (1991) state that perceptions of efficacy have been thought to derive from four possibilities: (1) performance accomplishments; (2) vicarious learning, which includes role-modeling; (3) verbal persuasion and support from others; and (4) emotional arousal. According to Bandura (1997), when individuals display higher self-efficacy levels, they can effectively perform tasks instead of having more considerable self-doubt that manifests with lower self-efficacy levels.

Luzzo (1996) noted that applying Bandura's self-efficacy theory to career decision-making allows for established levels to assess an individual's self-efficacy. In doing so, we can expect that low levels of career-decision self-efficacy may inhibit or weaken the individual's

ability to make career decisions. Research has shown that high levels of confidence in career decision self-efficacy are related to positive career behaviors and outcomes amongst individuals (Ojeda et al., 2006). In contrast, high levels of career-decision self-efficacy would lead to increased involvement in career decision behaviors. Additionally, a student's career decision self-efficacy is thought to forecast the actual onset of their career decision-making (Luzzo, 1993). Bandura (1977) states that an individual's desire to master their environment is perhaps the most potent self-efficacy resource. This condition can be viewed that if an individual perceives their career-related performance outcome as triumphant, in turn, that individual's career decision self-efficacy will be bolstered moving forward. Betz (2000) stated that an individual's persistence in the face of obstacles or negative experiences would result in higher self-efficacy, but conversely, the lack of persistence would result in lower self-efficacy. Further, career decision self-efficacy is significantly positively correlated with positive life experiences (Dumulescu & Opre 2014; Jiang et al., 2017; Praskova et al., 2015; Sari, 2019).

Influencing Variables of Career Decision Self-Efficacy

According to Hackett and Betz (1981, 2006), research has shown that higher perceived career self-efficacy improves achievement-related behavior and future occupational ambitions. Fundamental career researchers Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994; 2000) advocated in their studies that research needs to include variables that stifle and support career self-efficacy. A literature review has demonstrated that various variables are relevant to an individual's career decision self-efficacy. However, research has produced inconsistent results when measuring demographic factors like socioeconomic status, gender, and race/ethnicity (Choi et al., 2012; Berger et al., 2019). Information on these variables will be presented to support their inclusion in this study.

Gender

Studies regarding the influence of gender on career decision self-efficacy have been mixed. Hackett and Betz's (1981, 2006) research demonstrated that individuals who identified as women had a higher association with lower career decision self-efficacy levels due to limited career options. This result was demonstrated in subsequent research studies (Brown, 2004; Whiston & Keller, 2004). Seminal empirical studies supported these conclusions about career decision self-efficacy and gender, as results demonstrated that a college-aged female's self-efficacy within male-dominated fields was significantly lower than their self-efficacy in traditionally female occupations (Post-Kammer & Smith, 1985; Wheeler, 1983). Lopez and Ann-Yi (2006) proposed that females would have lower self-efficacy due to their views of career barriers based on their gender. Males were found to have higher scores on all five subscales on the career decision self-efficacy scale than females in a study conducted by Bozgeyikli, Eroğlu, and Hamurcu (2009).

Scott and Ciani (2008) noted more significant gains in CDSE for female college students than male students in research findings. Their study results, which utilized the CDSE scale, suggested that females had significant gains in their own self-efficacy beliefs after taking a career exploration course, most notably in the problem-solving sub-category of the CDSE scale. Migunde et al. (2015) asserted in their study that significant positive correlations exist between career decision-making self-efficacy and female students. Conversely, no significant differences existed amongst gender in a study involving undergraduate students in China and South Korea (Jiang, 2014). Bolat and Odaci's (2017) study of high school seniors in Turkey showed no difference in career decision self-efficacy amongst gender.

Further, in a study by Shin and Lee (2018), demographic factors such as gender were studied regarding career decision self-efficacy. The study results favored other factors such as classism and modern sexism as having more significance in predicting career decision self-efficacy than gender. In limited research, results from a study involving transgender students indicated differences in career decision self-efficacy based on one's gender identity (Dickey et al., 2016). Due to the results from the studies mentioned above, it is surmised that the relationship between gender and career decision self-efficacy is not conclusive, and continued research is necessary. The results of having the gender variable included in this study will add to the existing literature, allowing the researcher to control gender as a possible extraneous variable in the current study.

Race/Ethnicity

As demographics continue to change in the student population, continued research needs to be conducted by institutions to understand the implications that services offered have on a diverse body of students. Ortiz and Waterman's (2016) research supports the everchanging demographics as they stated that students with ethnic identities like African Americans, Native Americans, and Hispanics would see increased higher education attendance. Research that has studied the relationship between race/ethnicity and career decision self-efficacy has produced inconclusive results. In a study conducted by Chaney et al. (2007), Black students reported higher career-decision self-efficacy than those students from other ethnic backgrounds, such as Asian Americans and Native Americans. Black students showed higher career decision self-efficacy scores than White students in an earlier study (Chung, 2002). Brown (2004) demonstrated in his study that race was a barrier in career development, as participants felt their access was limited due to their identity. Studies have shown a relationship between career

decision self-efficacy and individuals identifying as Black and Hispanic, with these populations showing more significant levels of self-efficacy than other ethnicities represented in the respective research (Luzzo, 1993; Luzzo, 1996; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001). While using a small sample size, Grier-Reed et al. (2009) conducted research using the CDSE-SF that demonstrated students of color had their career decision self-efficacy scores rise like those of their white counterparts.

Further, Gloria and Hird (1999) studied the relation between CDSE and ethnic identity with students who identified as African American, American Indian, Asian, Biracial, International, Latino, and Pacific Islander, in comparison to White students. Their study showed that white students had higher levels of CDSE. Austin's (2010) study using multiple regression demonstrated positive relationships regarding racial identity, socioeconomic status, and CDSE. Duffy and Klingaman's (2009) research found similar results to Gloria and Hird (1999). They stated that a higher ethnic identity could shift career decision self-efficacy levels in a study with African American, Asian American, Latino/Latina, and White undergraduate students. Higher ethnic identity is associated with individuals having a more reliable connection with their identity and showing resilience toward various barriers (i.e., racism) in their aspirations (Killen et al., 2007; Tovar-Murray et al., 2012). A recent study indicated significant differences in CDSE scores between African American, White, and Asian American students (Lewis et al., 2018). This study conversely demonstrated that African American students have higher career decision self-efficacy levels than both White and Asian American students, which the authors asserted could be due to ethnic identity. Much like gender, research related to the relationship between race/ethnicity and career decision self-efficacy has continued not to demonstrate a consistent result. I am selecting to incorporate race and ethnicity as a variable within this study so that it

can be studied to understand the current study's relationship and add to the existing literature, but additionally to moderate any external influence in the study.

Socioeconomic Status

According to Hsieh and Huang (2014), career-related findings regarding socioeconomic status have been mixed and inconsistent. However, the researchers also stated that when studies find a significant relationship between socioeconomic status and career constructs, the relationship between the variables has been positive (Hsieh & Huang, 2014; Metheny & McWhirter, 2013). The data show that hopeful students from lower socioeconomic statuses have endured a struggle for many years with degree attainment due to the cost of attaining a degree (Cabrera et al., 2003; Freeman, 1997; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). Individuals with lower socioeconomic status have been shown to have reduced career decision self-efficacy due to the view of limited career options (Brown, 2004; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001; Perrone et al., 2001; Whiston & Keller, 2004). Ali, McWhirter, and Chronister (2005) found that socioeconomic status was not a significant predictor based on a study of only low-income individuals; however, they questioned if this was due to the socioeconomic status being assessed objectively rather than subjectively.

Further, via ANOVA testing, significant differences were found between low, middle, and high socioeconomic groups in a study of career decision self-efficacy (Bozgeyikli et al., 2009). In their study, these researchers found that students from higher socioeconomic statuses had higher scores for career decision self-efficacy based on their financial resources. In a study of first-generation community college students, Harlow and Bowman (2016) found that socioeconomic status had a negative relationship between the variables, whereas students from higher socioeconomic statuses reported lower career decision self-efficacy. Socioeconomic

status, however, was shown to not be a significant predictor of career decision self-efficacy as other factors in a recent study (Shin & Lee, 2018). The research results regarding socioeconomic status relationships have provided varied career decision self-efficacy results. This variable will be included in this study to understand its potential relationship with career decision self-efficacy. The inclusion of this variable will also allow the researcher to control for incidental interactions between the variables, which will provide more robust observations from the results.

Student Engagement Activities

Research has demonstrated that there is a significant connection between student engagement activities and career decision self-efficacy (Betz, 2004; Gibbons & Shoffner, 2004). The usual engagement activities that provide these connections include participation in career-related programs, experiential activities like internships and fieldwork placements, and career advisement opportunities. Harper and Quaye (2009) list the advantages of student engagement activities, including academic performance, persistence, cognitive and moral development, college adjustment, and skills transferability. The results from Hu and Wolniak's (2013) study showed that both academic and social engagement plays an essential role in a student's initial career earnings. Interestingly, Hu and Wolniak (2010) conducted a study that examined linkages between engagement activities in college and career earnings. The results demonstrated that student engagement in "social" activities led to more positive outcomes than "academic" activities in early earnings.

Student engagement activities are an area of growing interest by educational practitioners and researchers. Kuh et al. (2007) identify how key engagement behaviors relate to student outcomes. They assert that what students actually do in college is more significant than persistence and educational environment regarding learning outcomes. In efforts to prevent

attrition, programs such as first-year seminars, learning communities, service-learning, diversity experiences, study abroad, and internships are established to assist students in their academic achievement (Mann et al., 2003; Kuh et al., 2007). As a result, administrators place more significance on improving student engagement activities to increase positive student outcomes ideally. Engagement is still loosely defined, but more clarity regarding the construct has occurred in recent years. It can be viewed as students participating in educationally productive activities that intersect the individual's time and organizational learning opportunities and support services (Kuh et al., 2010). Due to the importance of student engagement, colleges and universities monitor student engagement levels using student self-assessment surveys, such as the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE, 2009).

Astin (1993) and Carini, Kuh, and Klein (2006) stated that engagement activities aid students in their persistence in completing their college degrees. Furthermore, Astin (1985) stated: "...the greater the student's involvement in college, the greater the learning and development" (p. 157). Purposeful activities, such as developing oral skills and interaction with peers, are akin to what students would gain in leadership positions (student government, residence life, peer mentors). Through participation in these activities, the student can learn more about specific careers in narrowing their career choice and provide opportunities for identifying preference and fit for future careers (Kim & Bastedo, 2016; Super, 1990).

Rocconi's (2011) research findings supported the stance that participation in learning communities is strongly related to engagement activities. Tinto (2001) noted that institutions that provide engagement opportunities that integrate academic, social, and personal support such as mentoring and participation in student organizations, create environments in which students are more likely to persist and graduate. Persistence has been demonstrated in research to

positively correlate with college students' career decision self-efficacy (Garza et al., 2014; Peterson, 1993; Peterson & delMas, 1996; Wright et al., 2013). Other campus activities like involvement in student government or leadership positions, peer program involvement, study abroad programs, internships, living and working as residence hall counselors or student assistants, all allow students to further their career development as well as gain specific skills and experiences that will make them attractive to companies (Blau & Snell, 2013; Reason, 2009). These researchers assert in their studies that individual student experiences in or out-of-the-classroom are proximal factors in learning and professional development.

Astin (1993) examined the importance of student engagement activities concerning student development, student learning, and student success. Astin provided the five criteria of involvement as 1) focus on investment of energy; 2) continuous interaction; 3) may be qualitative or quantitative; 4) the gain is proportional to the extent of involvement; and 5) academic achievement is strongly correlated with involvement (Renn, 2013). Astin (1993) stated that engagement activities must be purposeful and intentional to better the student's experience. These criteria would serve as an operationalized view of engagement by how students are involved in activities (Mandernach, 2015). Barkley (2010) notes that as a foundation, engagement assessments typically rely on reviewing students' active role and frequency in participation in the activity.

Typically, student government involvement also aids in developing positive behavioral engagement and skills (Lester, 2013). Students give substantial time, vigor, and thought to their involvement in these available but optional activities. According to Perrin (2014), experiential-learning programs and other engagement activities provide multiple benefits in a student's

college experience. In fostering learner autonomy, these engagement programs allow students to select internship sites, design learning objectives, and select projects.

Further, student confidence and self-efficacy may improve by performing projects which have real-world implications. The inclusion of the variable of participation in student engagement activities will allow me to determine if this variable moderates the relationship between conduct participation and career decision self-efficacy. Based on long-standing research results regarding student engagement activities' benefits, the variable's inclusion allows the study to regulate its influence on the primary research question and provide additional research findings to the variable's literature foundation.

Theoretical Underpinnings of Career Concerns

Numerous career development theories consider the development, abilities, interests, and social context of the individual. According to Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), an individual's career development and aspirations are impacted by multiple factors, including self-efficacy, outcome expectations, perceived barriers, and social context (Lent, 2005; Wright et al., 2014). These researchers assert that individuals with lower access to education, higher financial insecurities, and lack of engagement have lower self-efficacy related to their career decisions. Various researchers have asserted that individuals with stronger career decision self-efficacy can not only understand employment changes better but can affect better working conditions and experiences for themselves (Bubic, 2017; Hou et al., 2019; Miraglia et al., 2015). Furthermore, the conduct process is designed to assist student learning and development (King, 2012). Reddan (2015) found that learning experiences in coursework benefitted career decision self-efficacy in second-year students. Research has also shown that an individual's learning experiences have a relationship with levels of self-efficacy beliefs within a person's lifespan, which then leads to

influence over behavior, level of performance, and persistence (Bandura, 1977; Cervone et al., 2006; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Ye et al., 2018).

The basic tenet of SCCT is that an individual's career development is highly influenced by their social context (Lent, 2005). Outcome aspirations and self-efficacy have been shown to interact with demographics and life experiences to influence career activities (Hou et al., 2019; Lent, 2005; Lindley, 2005). The disciplinary system may have a relationship with students and their eventual establishment in their chosen professions, as it is a life experience. However, certain sanctions may harm a student because of restrictions on their activities, thereby limiting career exploration and resume building. For example, disciplinary probation may prevent students from participating in student government on campus. This loss of participation will prevent the student from learning about leadership roles inhibiting their career growth and not allow them to have experience and skills to add to their resume.

Chapter Summary

Reviewing the literature surrounding the current trends in student discipline, career decision self-efficacy, as well as the influencing factors of gender, socioeconomic status, racial/ethnic identity, and student engagement activities, it becomes evident that several dynamics place considerable pressure on student affairs practitioners in their efforts to aid students. Devoted professionals believe an educational discipline process can assist students in their development. These same professionals hold the same value, if not more, for the benefits of participation in student engagement activities. The question that arises is how extensively these factors have been studied concerning the student's future career path. This study was developed to share the effect on students' perceived career self-efficacy from their involvement in these college foundations.

Chapter III: Methodology

The purpose of this study was to explore how disciplinary action within a postsecondary institution's conduct process will influence a student's career decision self-efficacy. Statistics by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) indicate that in fall 2015, 17 million undergraduate students were enrolled in postsecondary institutions in the United States. The National Center for Education Statistics projects that this number will increase an average of 12% by 2026, which will result in thousands of more individuals in the student population (McFarland et al., 2018). As stated in previous chapters, most of the literature in higher education focuses on the overall undergraduate experience with limited literature on how disciplinary participation may influence students.

Career decision self-efficacy (CDSE) was the dependent variable of this study. Several variables were identified in the literature associated with career decision self-efficacy as it pertains to undergraduate populations, including race/ethnicity, gender, student engagement activities status, and socioeconomic status (Butler, 2012; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Perrone et al., 2001; Tovar-Murray et al., 2012). It is not clear if or how these variables may impact the self-efficacy of students who are subject to discipline processes within institutions of higher education. This study adds to the existing literature by examining the effects of the discipline process in undergraduate students and exploring the relationship between sanctioning effects and the factors mentioned above. Additionally, the researcher assessed the possible interaction between the achieved year in school (credit status) with student disciplinary participation. The exploration of these variables will allow a better understanding of how disciplinary participation may influence an undergraduate student's overall future career decision-making process.

Research Design

This study used quantitative research methods, as the study assessed relationships among factors and delineating characteristics of particular conditions (Field, 2013; Salkind, 2010). Regression analysis allowed for testing the relationships between multiple predictor variables and one dependent variable (Saklind, 2010; Field, 2013). This study had several categorical predictor variables (gender, socioeconomic status, racial identity, and student engagement activities status) along with the primary independent variable (student disciplinary participation). The dependent variable is career decision self-efficacy. Regression analysis allowed the researcher to predict a continuous outcome by analyzing the predictor variables' resulting means. Subsequent exploratory data analysis was conducted via regression analysis on students' academic class-level attained and resident status on the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. As students are experiencing different career developmental tasks during their years in college, their class year differences may help understand the study's results (Budescu & Silverman, 2016; Super, 1990; Thurber & Walton, 2012).

The study was conducted using a survey instrument. It is generally held that the most used quantitative research is done via surveys, as surveys are designed to identify the occurrence of behaviors (McMillan & Schumacher, 2009). The survey consisted of the following components: (1) Career-Decision Self-Efficacy-Short Form (see Appendix A), (2) demographic data questions regarding secondary independent variables (see Appendix B), (3) student engagement activities status, and (4) student disciplinary participation. The primary data set was obtained from the anonymous survey instrument, distributed electronically, which asked college students questions about their experiences with a disciplinary process and their beliefs regarding career decision self-efficacy at a four-year public university. The survey consisted of questions

that were answered via multiple-choice and Likert-type scales. To measure career decision self-efficacy, I administered the Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale Short Form (CDSE-SF) online. Permission to use this instrument was obtained from Mind Garden Inc. The CDSE-SF consists of 25 Likert-type questions (See Appendix A). The study determined two subsets to conduct measurements based on submitted responses. The "control group" consisted of participants who did not participate in the conduct process. The second group contained the "intervention group," or those who have participated in the disciplinary process. All data was provided in anonymous and confidential survey results.

Research Questions

The research questions were developed based on a review of student developmental theory, student conduct history, demographic concerns, and implications toward career decision self-efficacy. Accordingly, the primary research question that guided this study was:

- I. Does student disciplinary participation have a relationship with career decision self-efficacy among traditional-age college students?

The secondary question that was studied concerning career decision self-efficacy was:

- II. How do the following independent variables: 1) gender, 2) ethnicity/race, 3) socioeconomic status, or 4) student engagement activities status relate to the students' levels of career decision self-efficacy?

Variables

The dependent variable in this study was career decision self-efficacy. According to the literature, gender, socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, and student engagement activities are factors that may impact career decision self-efficacy in undergraduate students (Astin, 1993; Butler, 2012; Luzzo, 1993, 1996; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005;

Perrone et al., 2001; Tovar-Murray et al., 2012). The study assessed these variables to see if there is any correlation between these independent variables and career decision self-efficacy in undergraduate students who have participated in the student conduct process.

Career Decision Self-Efficacy

Career decision self-efficacy refers to the trust that one has to complete a task or job related to career decisions (Taylor & Betz, 1983). It is their perceived ability to obtain a goal and produce a positive outcome in a career-oriented task. A person increases their self-efficacy by overcoming obstacles through seeing others succeed and in their success in completing the task (Bandura, 1997; Kim et al., 2014). Career Decision Self-Efficacy will be measured using the CDSE Scale (Betz et al., 2005) and will serve as the study's dependent variable.

Student Disciplinary Participation-SDP

This study operationalized the term “Student Disciplinary Participation” to serve as the study's primary independent variable. The disciplinary process is the process in which a student is charged with violation of policy; receives notification and potential opportunity for a conduct process, which may include a meeting with institutional officials to discuss their alleged violation; and has been given an outcome that may include the requirement of completion of educational stipulations. Participation in the process was measured by requesting students to identify if they were alleged to have violated a disciplinary policy established by the University, received documentation alleging conduct violation, and received a reprimand notice, university warning, or university probation status. Further, respondents were asked what class level they were when they participated in the process for those identified with SDP. They were also asked the finding their participation resulted in (e.g., not responsible, reprimand notice/university

warning, or university probation; and students were also asked to identify their own perceived view of the conduct process and were provided three options: positive, neutral, and negative.

Student Engagement Activities-SEA

Student engagement activities (SEA), which serve as a second independent variable, are defined as educationally purposeful activities which help acquire knowledge to succeed in one's envisioned career while in college. SEA is the time and effort students devote to activities that are empirically linked to the college's desired outcomes (Kuh et al., 2007). Research has shown that engaging in campus activities has impacted student success and college to career transitions (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Tinto, 1993). Study abroad programs and serving as resident assistants, student government, peer leaders, Greek life, and orientation leaders are examples of SEA noted in the literature. Examples provided to respondents were institutional mascot programs, student government association, residence life employment, peer leaders, Greek life, club leadership or membership position, or study abroad programs. Respondents were able to respond indicating no participation = 0 or participation = 1. Additional data points were gained for this variable by requesting students identify the number of student engagement activities, identified engagement level with 'very active,' 'moderately,' and 'little' as options.

Gender

Gender, which will serve as a secondary independent variable, is defined as the participants' self-identified biological sex. The survey intentionally did not use gender as a dichotomous measure with traditional categories as either male or female, thus allowing participants to self-identify their gender preference with transgender or other added choices. Female was coded as 0, male was coded as 1, transgender was coded as 2, and other was coded as 3. The transgender and other categories were combined due to the small number of responses

gathered. Gender has been shown to have a mixed relationship with CDSE as research has indicated that there is no relationship (Bolat and Odaci, 2017; Jiang, 2014), while other research has found an existing relationship (Betz & Hackett, 2006; Brown, 2004; Migunde et al., 2015).

Race/Ethnicity

Perrone, Sedlacek, and Alexander (2001) reported a significant difference regarding race and ethnicity related to career development. Research has also indicated that career decision self-efficacy has been highly correlated with race and ethnicity, particularly by Hispanic and Black student populations (Grier-Reed et al., 2009; Luzzo, 1993; Luzzo, 1996; Tovar-Murray et al., 2012). This secondary independent variable will be measured on the survey by participants identifying their race or ethnicity, then analyzed via regression analysis after dummy coding to specific groups.

Socioeconomic Status

Research has shown that students identifying with lower socioeconomic statuses report feeling that they have barriers that impact their career decision self-efficacy, as they do not feel that they have many career opportunities or role models in their desired fields (Hsieh & Huang, 2014; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001; Perrone et al., 2001). The coding of this secondary independent variable will allow groups to be unique. Participants will be informed to select their socioeconomic status responses based on family income, as family support has been demonstrated to have a relationship with students' career decision self-efficacy (Greenhaus & Callanan, 2006).

Instrumentation

The Career Decision Self-Efficacy (CDSE) Scale was selected to serve this study's goal of measuring the dependent variable. The Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale (CDSE), created

by Karen Taylor and Nancy Betz in 1983, is one of the most used instruments in the career development and counseling literature in the United States (Luzzo, 1993; O'Brien, 2003). Their focus was to analyze an individual's self-efficacy views and how those views apply to making career decision tasks, such as identifying career dreams and researching career options (Luzzo, 1993). Betz et al. (2005) and Isik (2013) state that the CDSE measures an individual's degree of confidence that they can complete tasks essential to making career decisions. Instrument questions include questions to gauge students' confidence in items such as: "Determine the steps you need to take to complete your chosen major successfully" and "Persistently work at your major or career goal even when you get frustrated" (Betz et al., 2005; Betz & Klein, 1996).

Students who participated were asked to rate items on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The scale ranges from a high score of "5," which signals complete confidence, down to a "1," which signals no confidence. Luzzo (1996) conducted tests for validity, with the results indicating $r=.41$, which showed significantly positive relations between the scores of career-decision self-efficacy and career decision-making perspectives. Accordingly, it is shown that individuals who have developed sound perspectives regarding their career decisions will see higher scores in their self-efficacy scores. Further, the CDSE consists of five subscales measuring the five Career Choice Competencies of Crites' Theory of Career Maturity (Betz et al., 2005; Crites, 1978). Betz et al. (2005) list the subscales as follows, with each subscale having the sum of the respective five items ranging from 5 to 25:

1. *Self-Appraisal*- How confident is an individual about accurately assessing their abilities? This subscale assesses the psychological facility of accurately evaluating and estimating what an individual's assets and liabilities were (i.e., knowing yourself) and is

measured in item numbers 5, 9, 14, 18, and 22. Questions used for this subscale are “Accurately assess your abilities” and “Determine what your ideal job would be.”

2. *Occupational Information*- How confident are individuals that they could find out information about specific occupations? This subscale measures an individual’s knowledge of what workers in over 80 different occupations do (i.e., knowing about jobs) and captured in item numbers 1, 10, 15, 19, and 23. Example questions used for this subscale are “Talk with a person already employed in a field you are interested in” and “Find information about graduate or professional schools.”

3. *Goal Selection*- How confident are individuals choosing a career that will fit their preferred lifestyle, personality traits, and skill level? This subscale measures the ability to match an individual with the occupation they are best fitted (i.e., selecting a job) and found in item numbers 2, 6, 11, 16, and 20. Examples of questions in this category were “Select one major from a list of potential majors you are considering” and “Choose a career that will fit your preferred lifestyle.”

4. *Planning*- How confident are individuals that they could plan for their specified goals? This subscale measures an individual’s ability to make plans by presenting a series of actions that must be performed in the proper sequence to enter and progress in each career (i.e., looking ahead). This subscale was measured in item numbers 3, 7, 12, 21, and 24 with example questions of “Make a plan of your goals for the next five years”; and “Prepare a good resume.”

5. *Problem Solving*- How confident are individuals to change occupations if they were not satisfied with their career choice? The final subscale poses various concerns that arise during career decision-making, intending to select what an individual considers to be the

best solution from the options (i.e., what should you do). This subscale was measured in item numbers 4, 8, 13, 17, and 25 with questions like “Change majors if you did not like your first choice”; and “Change occupations if you are not satisfied with the one you enter.”

Betz et al. (2005) state that within the given subsections, *Goal Selection* was demonstrated to be the most reliable and valid with alphas higher than .80; *Problem Solving* and *Self Appraisal* were noted as the least reliable. As pointed out by Betz, Taylor, and Klein (1996), this instrument comes in a short form (CDSE-SF), a 25-item survey with an administration time of 10 minutes, which assists in keeping the total time to complete the overall survey to a minimum. The CDSE-SF has demonstrated in studies that it is almost as reliable and equally valid as the original 50-item scale (Betz et al., 1996; Betz & Luzzo, 1996; Betz et al., 2005). Alpha reliability has been measured at .94, which indicates an excellent measurement for gathered results (Betz et al., 1996; Betz et al., 2005; Isik; 2013). The reliability coefficient for the career-decision self-efficacy scale has been measured with a range from .83 to .97 (Betz et al., 1996; Luzzo, 1996; Betz et al., 2005). Furthermore, studies have shown that the instrument allows for test-retest reliability over six weeks with a measurement of .63 (Betz et al., 2005).

Table 2 provides the alpha values for both the 50-item and the 25-item scales.

Table 1

Coefficient Alpha values for the CDSE and CDSE-SF Scale

Scale	50-Item form	25-Item short form
Self-Appraisal	.88	.73
Occupational Information	.89	.78
Goal Selection	.87	.83
Planning	.89	.81
Problem-Solving	.86	.75
Total CDSE score	.97	.94

Source: Taylor and Betz (1983)

Both validity and reliability analysis has been demonstrated with the CDSE-SF on diverse groups of college students, including Whites, African Americans, Asian American/Pacific Islanders, Latinos, Native Americans, and Multiracial students, as well as across college academic levels (Betz et al., 2005; Chaney et al., 2007). According to Betz et al. (1996), the CDSE-SF results are calculated by summing the 25 total items' response values and then dividing by 5. Regarding the five subscales, each subscale result is the sum of the five items' responses to the respective subscale (Betz et al., 2005). Scores are then analyzed relative to their prediction of behaviors for either avoidance or approach. Scores that indicate high self-efficacy predict approach behavior, while low self-efficacy predicting avoidance behaviors (Betz et al., 1996; Betz & Taylor, 2006). Betz and Taylor (2012) state that the scale scores interpretation is conducted using the following criteria: 3.5 or above (reasonable confidence), 2.5 to 3.5 (moderate confidence), 1.0 to 2.5 (low confidence).

Setting

The research study was conducted at Alpha Beta University, a pseudonym, accredited by the Middle States Commission on Higher Education. Alpha Beta University was founded in 1908 as a teachers' college, and teacher education remains a significant focus for the University. In 2016, the University was recognized by the Carnegie Classification of Higher Education Institutions as a Research Doctoral University and designated as a Hispanic-Serving Institution (HSI). In 2017, it was named one of Campus Pride's Top 25 LGBTQ-Friendly Colleges and Universities, and in 2018 as a top degree producer for minority students by *Diverse Issues in Higher Education*. In 2019, the institution was recognized by the Carnegie Classification of Higher Education Institutions as a Doctoral University – High Research Activity. It was ranked

among the top 200 national universities in the country by U.S. News and World Report (Alpha Beta University, At a Glance, 2019).

Procedures

Students at Alpha Beta University were invited to complete the anonymous survey instrument via an all-student University email listing (see Appendix D). The right of use of this list is permitted by Alpha Beta University only when the institution believes that there is a benefit to the institution. Access to this list was accomplished through administrative support personnel, who have access to this email transmission, specifically to the undergraduate population. The anonymity of student names was provided so that no identifying names were recorded for the study. The survey was created using a secure website provided by Qualtrics, and the link to the survey was included in the email to the prospective participants. The survey was structured to allow completion within 10-15 minutes, with responses uploaded to a secure database. The survey was encrypted with password protection to allow for efficient security. Due to the nature of student conduct violations, the participant pool consisted of individuals identified as registered students in the 2020 spring semester. Using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), the researcher analyzed the data by administering a regression analysis with the presented variables.

Students were presented with the request to participate in the survey and complete an IRB-approved electronic consent form (see Appendix D). If the student chose not to provide consent, they exited the survey. Students who chose to complete the informed consent were kept anonymous, as they were informed that their signature was not required, nor would there be a record of identifying information, including their name, email address, or identification number. After providing informed consent, students were asked to complete a survey comprised of the

following: 1) a question indicating academic class level attained; 2) the Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale-Short Form consisting of 25 questions; 3) a demographic questionnaire regarding secondary variables including questions in the following areas: a) gender, b) race/ethnicity, and c) socioeconomic status; 4) a question indicating participation or lack thereof in student engagement activities, as participation in engagement activities has shown a strong link toward career decision self-efficacy; 5) a question indicating participation or lack thereof in the student disciplinary process at the institution; and 6) if participation in student conduct, a question indicating the outcome received within the process.

Students who participated in the study who identified as having no participation in the conduct process represented the control group. Both research questions were analyzed using regression analysis. This method allowed for assessing the continuous dependent variable of CDSE and if it will be predicted or moderated based on numerous independent variables (Field, 2013). Due to respondents who identified as participating in the disciplinary process, a subsequent exploratory analysis was performed regarding the outcome level. These groups indicate levels of intervention resulting from participating in the conduct process with the following groups: 1) intervention with the outcome of not responsible; 2) intervention with the outcome of University Warning/Reprimand Notice; and 3) intervention with the outcome of University Probation.

Sample

Participants were recruited from registered undergraduate students at the selected institution, referenced as Alpha Beta University. Alpha Beta University is an accredited public post-baccalaureate degree-granting institution in the northeast with a total undergraduate student population of 16,687 as of fall 2019. Scarcely over sixty-one percent (approximately 10,227) of

students identify as female, and 6,460 students identify as male (Alpha Beta University, Quick Facts, 2019). Most undergraduate students reported as White (40.3%; $n = 6729$), followed by Hispanic/Latino (30.0%; $n = 5009$), Black/African American (13.9%; $n = 2327$), Asian (6.2%; $n = 1029$), and Unknown (4.3%; $n = 725$). Non-resident Aliens were also reported to encompass almost 2% ($n = 325$) with minuscule numbers identifying as American Indian/Alaska Native and Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific (Alpha Beta University, Quick Facts, 2019).

Alpha Beta University allows research studies to be conducted online, pending Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval. For this study, the researcher collected a convenience sample by inviting all undergraduate students registered for courses during the 2020 spring semester of the academic year to participate in the survey. The researcher used Qualtrics, a survey website, to create and distribute the CDSE-SF scale instrument and questionnaire. The study consisted of a convenience sample using a census approach with a desired total of $n = 376$ to allow for power sampling. This sample size is determined based on the total population of 16,687, a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$, a confidence level of 95%, and a standard deviation of 0.5 (Field, 2013). The researcher assessed the study's power to detect if a difference in the groups exists (Cohen, 1962; Field, 2013).

Table 2 provides general rules for sample sizes linked to specific inferential analysis tools.

Table 2

Sample Size General Rules

Relationship	Reasonable sample size
Measuring group differences (e.g., T-test, ANOVA)	Cell size of 30 for 90% power, if decreased, no lower than 7 per cell
Relationship (e.g., correlations, regression)	Approximately 50
Chi-Square	At least 20 overall, no cell smaller than 5.
Factor Analysis	Approximately 300 is "good."

Source: Wilson Van Voorhis and Morgan (2007).

Standards provide that if researchers have six or more predictors, the number of participants should be 10 per predictor variable (Wilson Van Voorhis & Morgan, 2007). Field (2013) stated that a sample size of 50-75 would be needed when using regression with five predictors. Similarly, researchers have stated that a general rule for five or fewer predictor variables is to have 50 more than the total number of variables (Harris, 1985; Wilson Van Voorhis & Morgan, 2007). Several researchers (Comrey & Lee, 1992) have suggested sample guidelines of 50 samples being inferior, 100 are low, 200 are fair, 300 are good, 500 are very good, and 1,000 are excellent.

According to researchers (Cohen, 1962; Field, 2013), power analyses will also allow the researcher to focus on a sample that is not larger than necessary or one that is too small, which results in an insignificant effect. The study used the G* Power software to determine the overall group's necessary sample size (Erdfelder et al., 1996; Faul et al., 2009; Field, 2013). However, while it is desired that the collection will result in equal distribution, researchers Dickerson, Adelson, and Owen (2012) have pointed out that gender imbalances occur within undergraduate population samples, which may be noticeable in the data analysis.

Informed Consent

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was required from only one institution, Alpha Beta University, the researcher's degree-granting institution, as it also serves as the institution where participants will be solicited. The study consisted of a web-based survey using the CDSE-SF with data collected via Qualtrics. The online survey informed the participant of the study's nature and purpose, the opportunity to elect to participate or not, participants' anonymity, how the data will be used, access to the data, and data protection guidelines used in securing data

results. The researcher used the online consent form template provided by Alpha Beta University (Appendix D) to introduce the survey. The researcher sent the survey out with assistance through the University's Student Communications. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved this method (see Appendix E for IRB approval) to not collect names or identifying information. Students were informed that the completion/non-completion of the instrument would not affect their institutional statuses, regardless of identified conduct outcomes. Participants were provided an online link to participate in the survey by agreeing to the informed consent form or, if they disagree, a link to close the webpage.

Data Analysis

The survey's research study results were entered into an Excel spreadsheet then imported into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS was used to produce all measurement tests regarding the survey results. Descriptive statistics were tracked so that analysis could be made regarding possible significant differences between independent variables like gender and ethnicity and aiding in determining the data variables' normal distribution. Gender was measured by having participants indicate whether they identify as male, female, transgender, or other. After consolidation, coding for the gender variable was: female = 0; male = 1; other = 2. The race variable was measured by asking participants to select which category applied to them (White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, American Indian/Alaskan Native, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, Other). After consolidation based on responses, coding for the race variable resulted in: White = 0, Black = 1, Hispanic = 2, and Other = 3. Socioeconomic status was measured by requesting participants to enter their families' perceived income level. After consolidation based on responses, it was coded into the following three categories: \$0-49,999 = 1, \$50,000-99,999 = 2, \$100,000+ = 3, and no response = 4.

Student engagement activities (SEA) were measured by students' responses indicating Yes = 0 and No = 1. Likewise, student disciplinary participation (SDP) was measured by students' responses of Yes = 0 and No = 1 within the study. Exploratory variables were reported for Class and Residential Status. The Class variable was measured by having participants indicate their current grade level based on earned credits and was coded as Freshmen = 0, Sophomore = 1, Junior = 2, and Senior = 3. Residential Status was coded as Residential = 0 and Commuter = 1.

A regression analysis was conducted due to the multiple variables and the quest for predictability. First, a linear regression assessment was completed with student disciplinary participation on CDSE to answer the primary research question. Then, linear regression assessments were conducted with the secondary independent variables of gender, race, SES, and SEA on CDSE. This analysis was followed by a multiple regression assessment using all five independent variables on CDSE to answer the second research question. The study also assessed the effects of independent variables using regression analysis with the identified five CDSE sub-categories. Additionally, an effect-size analysis was performed along with significance to understand the results' magnitude across studies (Fields, 2013).

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the research questions guiding this study and its design. It also included descriptions for the variables, population, and setting from which the desired sample for this study will be collected. Next, the instrument that has been selected for the study was reviewed thoroughly. Data collection and analysis were also described in detail, and a review of variables was provided. The section concluded with informed consent. This research gained from this study provided valuable insight into how participation in a conduct system might be

reviewed within an institution's process so that students receive outcomes that are developmentally focused and positively influence the student's career self-efficacy. In completing the research in the proposed manner, the researcher is confident that the model presented would attend to the desired research questions.

Chapter IV: Results

This study sought to examine the association between career decision self-efficacy (CDSE) and student disciplinary participation (SDP) among traditional college students. Further, the study examined the association between CDSE and four other independent variables: student engagement activities (SEA), gender, race, and socioeconomic status. The study also reviewed the effects of independent variables with the identified five CDSE sub-categories. Finally, interaction effects between the categorical independent variables were assessed.

As discussed in Chapter III, the participants were postsecondary college students. Sixteen thousand six hundred eighty-seven full and part-time students registered in degree programs were eligible to participate in this research study. All participants completed the survey online via Qualtrics, which consisted of a demographic questionnaire, questions related to the level of participation in Student Conduct and Student Engagement Activities (see Appendix B), and one instrument: the Career Decision Self-Efficacy-Short Form (CDSE-SF; Betz & Klein, 1996). The CDSE-SF (see Appendix A) assesses to what level individuals identify their self-efficacy regarding their career decisions. Demographic data collected included gender, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, with exploratory data adding class level attained and residential status.

Data results were collected as participants completed the survey using Qualtrics. Upon finishing data collection, the results were transferred into SPSS 20.0. All data were cleaned, and participants' data with missing values were discarded. The number of students who completed the survey was 608. While conducting data cleaning, data points were removed from the initial set of responses due to reports of spam (40 students), lack of consent (3 students), unfinished survey (54 students), and incomplete responses to the CDSE-SF (8 students), resulting in a total of 105 responses that were removed. While the overall response rate was low, the provided

responses exceeded 376 students, which was the minimum number necessary for the suggested power analysis, fulfilling the desired confidence level of 95% with a 5% margin of error (Erdfelder, Faul, & Buchner, 1996; Faul et al., 2009; Field, 2013). The final convenience sample comprised 503 participants from a public institution in the United States' northeast region.

Hypothetical Model Tested

Figure 4.1 offers a hypothetical model of the relationship between the variables presented in the study. This hypothetical model was tested using the primary independent variable of SDP expected relationship with CDSE followed by the secondary variables of gender, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and SEA status relationship with CDSE. This model acknowledges the individual relationship of the variables tested on CDSE.

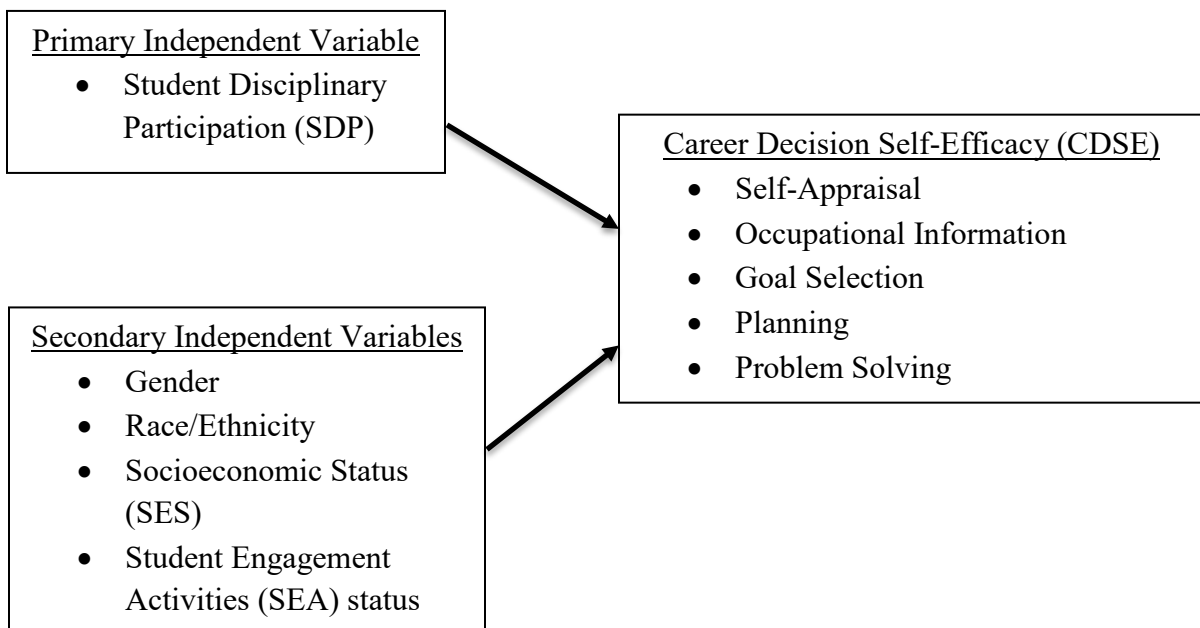


Figure 4.1. Hypothetical model of the relationship of student conduct participation on career decision self-efficacy in college students.

Participants

Table 3 provides the demographic characteristics of the 503 student respondents and how the study's responses equate to the demographics of the institution. The respondents identified

as being 65.6% women (n = 330), 32.4% men (n = 163), and 2% as respondents as other (n = 10). Participants identified as 42.5% White/Caucasian (n = 214), 21.1% Black (n = 106), 21.9% Hispanic (n = 110), and 14.5% Other (n = 73). Regarding both gender and race, reported percentages align with overall student records at the University. Students identified their socioeconomic status, as related to family income, as 41.2% falling between \$0-49,999 (n = 207), 34.99% falling from \$50,000 to 99,999 (n = 176), 17.3% as falling in excess of \$100,000 (n = 87), while 6.6% did not provide a response (n = 33).

Table 3

Demographical Breakdown

Variable	Category	n	%	Total %
Gender	Male	163	32.4%	39%
	Female	330	65.6%	61%
	Other	10	2%	-
Race/Ethnicity	White	214	42.5%	40%
	Black	106	21.1%	13%
	Hispanic	110	21.9%	29%
	Other	73	14.5%	18%
Socioeconomic Status	No response	33	6.6%	-
	\$0-49,999	207	41.2%	56.5%*
	\$50,000-99,999	176	34.99%	20.1%*
	\$100,000+	87	17.3%	22.7%*

Adapted from "At a Glance," by Montclair State University, 2019. *Data provided by Office of Financial Aid based on undergraduate students who filed FAFSA 2019-2020 academic year.

Independent Variables

Table 4 provides data regarding the primary independent variable of participation in a student disciplinary process (SDP) and a fellow independent variable of student engagement activities (SEA). The primary independent variable resulted in 70.2% (n = 353) identifying as having no participation, while 29.8% (n = 150) of the respondents identified as having participation. In closer review of the 29.8% (n = 150) of respondents that identified as participating in SDP, 18% (n = 27) reported being found not responsible for their alleged

violation, 53.3% (n = 80) reported being held accountable with a reprimand notice/warning, and 28.7% (n = 43) reported being held to the outcome of probation. Within this group, 43.3% (n = 65) reported their disciplinary involvement to have occurred during their freshman year, 31.3% (n = 47) during their sophomore year, 17.3% (n = 26) during their junior year, and 8% (n = 12) during their senior year. Students' perception of their experience within the process was also gathered within the study's parameters. These results reported 10.7% (n = 16) as negative, 66.7% (n = 100) as neutral and 22.7% (n = 34) as positive

Students identified as 37.2% (n = 187) participating in student engagement activities and 62.8% (n = 316) with no participation. Closer assessment found 13.9% (n = 70) of students identified as participating in only one activity, 17.5% (n = 88) participated in 2-3 activities, and 5.8% (n = 29) participated in four or more activities. Regarding those that identified with SEA participation, 12.8% (n = 24), reported little engagement in their activity, 45.5% (n = 85) reported moderate engagement, and 41.7% (n = 78) identified as very active in their activity.

Table 4

Analysis Breakdown of SDP and SEA variables

Variable	Category	n	%
SDP	No Participation	353	70.2%
	Participation	150	29.8%
SDP Outcome Level	Not Responsible	27	18%
	Warning/Reprimand	80	53.3%
	Probation	43	28.7%
SDP Outcome Received	Freshman	65	43.3%
	Sophomore	47	31.3%
	Junior	26	17.3%
	Senior	12	8%
Perception of SDP	Negative	16	10.7%
	Neutral	100	66.7%
	Positive	34	22.7%
SEA Participation	Yes	187	37.2%
	No	316	62.8%
# of SEA Participation	None	316	62.8%
	One	70	13.9%

	Two-Three	88	17.5%
	Four or more	29	5.8%
Level of Engagement	Little	24	12.8%
	Moderate	85	45.5%
	Very Active	78	41.7%

Dependent Variable

Table 5 provides descriptive data regarding the Career Decision Self-Efficacy Short Form (CDSE-SF) results. As detailed in Chapter 3, five subscales comprise the components of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy (Betz et al., 2005; Crites, 1978). All shared a rating scale from “complete confidence,” coded as a 5, to “not confident at all,” coded as a 1, which provides the range of scores. The sum of the items could range from 5 to 25, which would then be divided by 5 for the final score. The CDSE-SF mean was 3.5891 ($SD = .6697$). The Self-Appraisal sub-scale had a mean of 3.715 ($SD = .6906$). Occupational Information had a mean of 3.605 ($SD = .7754$). The Goal Selection sub-scale reported a mean of 3.68 ($SD = .7317$). The fourth sub-scale, Planning, had a mean of 3.509 ($SD = .7632$). The Problem-Solving sub-scale, the last of the five sub-scales associated with career decision-making self-efficacy, resulted in a mean of 3.4 ($SD = .7368$). Scoring of the CDSE resulted in total CDSE and four of the five sub-categories demonstrating a mean of 3.5 or above, which is considered as reasonable confidence (Betz et al., 1996). The implication of “reasonable confidence” indicates that the student would be secure in their view of the skill set (Betz & Taylor, 2012). While Self Appraisal showed the highest overall confidence with a mean of over 3.7, Problem Solving was the only sub-category to fall into a lower group, demonstrating moderate confidence. “Moderate confidence” would indicate that the student may need assistance in problem-solving (Betz & Taylor, 2012). This finding suggests that students may need assistance in understanding options in case their

intended selections do not develop (Betz & Taylor, 2012). None of the mean scores fell into the low confidence level of 1.0 to 2.5.

Table 5

CDSE and Sub-categories Means and Standard Deviations

Variable	Mean	SD
CDSE	3.589	.6696
Self-Appraisal	3.715	.6906
Occupational In.	3.605	.7754
Goal Selection	3.680	.7317
Planning	3.509	.7632
Problem Solving	3.400	.7368

Data Analysis

The data for each regression model were entered using SPSS to predict career decision self-efficacy based on one independent variable(s). For linear regression Model I, the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy was assessed just with SDP. Model II presented all five variables' combined influence (SDP, SEA, Gender, Race, and SES) on career decision self-efficacy. Table 6 provides the results of the two models tested.

Table 6

Linear & Multiple Linear Regression: SDP, Gender, Race, SES, SEA, and Interaction Terms Predicting CDSE

	β	t	R	R ²	p
<i>Model 1</i>			.095	.009	.034*
SDP	.095	2.132			
<i>Model 2</i>			.370	.137	.000**
SDP	.088	2.000			.046*
Gender	-.112	-2.573	.101	.010	.010*
Race	-.088	-2.059	.126	.016	.040*
SES	.091	2.110	.142	.020	.035*
SEA	.287	6.723	.323	.104	.000**

*p < .05; ** p < .01; *Note:* SDP = Student Discipline Participation; SES = Socioeconomic Status; SEA = Student Engagement Activity participation.

A significant regression equation was found between SDP and CDSE ($F(1, 501) = 4.543$, $p = .034$). Based on the R^2 value of .009, SDP predicted almost 1% of the variance in CDSE. Further analysis was conducted using multiple regression to assess the independent variables' interactions (Salkind, 2010). Table 6 presented the multiple regression test results of students' career decision self-efficacy with the key independent variable (SDP) and the additional four secondary independent variables presented in the student sample. This analysis was performed using dummy coding to recode the categorical variables of gender, socioeconomic status, and race and allow them to be entered into the regression model (Field, 2013). Results show that all five variables are beneficial in predicting CDSE. In the tested model, the combined variables predicted career decision self-efficacy ($F(5, 497) = 15.727$, $p = .000$). The R^2 value of .137 demonstrates that this model explained 13.7% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. While SEA shows the highest prediction ability within the model ($\beta = .287$, $p < .05$), both SDP ($\beta = .088$, $p < .05$) and SES ($\beta = .91$, $p < .05$) also showed predictive strength.

In examining the primary independent variable, student disciplinary participation did show significant interaction ($\beta = .095$, $p < .05$) with $\eta^2 = .009$. This small eta score represents a meager effect size demonstrated in the study (Cohen et al., 2003). The relationship between SDP and CDSE does not have great magnitude, even though the results proved significant. This score allows us to understand that the variables' significance could be a by-product of the overall sampling results and be driven by the sample total, as a greater sampling can make smaller effects significant. The results demonstrate that of the variables studied, SDP has the third-highest positive relation toward students' CDSE, which means that students saw their CDSE rise due to SDP. Of note, when SEA was removed from the equation based on its predictive strength, the resulting equation proved significant ($F(4, 498) = 7.677$, $p = .000$) with an R^2 of .058,

providing that the four variables (SDP, SES, gender, and race) together account for almost 6% of the variability.

Table 7

Linear Regression Analysis Summary for Individual Independent Variables on career decision self-efficacy

Variable	r	R ²	t	β	p
Gender	.101	.010	-2.283	-.101	.023*
Race/Ethnicity	.126	.016	-2.847	-.126	.005*
SES	.142	.020	3.213	.142	.001*
SEA	.323	.104	7.637	.323	.000**

*p < .05; ** p < .01; *Note:* SDP = Student Discipline Participation; SES = Socioeconomic Status; SEA = Student Engagement Activity participation.

Table 7 details the four controlling variables individual interactions with CDSE.

Regression analysis found a statistically significant result between the groups of SEA and CDSE ($F(1,501) = 58.326, p = .000$). The R² value of .104 demonstrates that this model explained 10.4% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. SEA demonstrated the highest prediction ability ($\beta = .323, p < .05$), resulting in the highest predicted variance. The results of student engagement activities supported research that these purposeful activities aid one's self-efficacy.

The remaining variables demonstrated minimum explanation in accounting for the variance. Regression analysis found a statistically significant result between socioeconomic status and CDSE ($F(1,501) = 10.323, p = .001$). The R² value of .020 demonstrates that this model explained 2.0% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. Data results found statistically significant result between gender and CDSE ($F(1,501) = 5.212, p = .023$). The R² value of .010 demonstrates that this model explained 1.0% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. In assessing the interactions between Race and CDSE, a statistically significant result was found ($F(1,501) = 8.108, p = .005$). The R² value of .016

demonstrates that this model explained 1.60% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. However, while both gender and race were statistically significant, interestingly, both had negative betas. These variables' negative betas infer an inverse relationship between them and CDSE (Saklind 2010), whereas where CDSE will move opposite of how the gender or race variable moves. The Race variable showed little relation regardless, while Gender did indicate a stronger inverse relationship. The results for Gender and Race could represent homogeneity for the two variables, which implies that the variables are similar in how they influence CDSE.

Table 8*Regression Analysis Summary for Independent Variables on CDSE sub-scales*

		SDP	Gender	Race	SES	SEA
SA	<i>r</i>	.143	-.075	-.091	.067	.308
	R ²	.020	.006	.008	.005	.095
	SE	.684	.689	.6884	.689	.659
	β	.215	-.088	-.057	.055	.439
	p	.001*	.095	.042*	.131	.000**
OI	<i>r</i>	.014	-.135	-.099	.159	.260
	R ²	.000	.018	.010	.025	.068
	SE	.776	.769	.772	.766	.749
	β	.023	-.179	-.070	.147	.417
	p	.761	.002*	.026*	.000**	.000**
GS	<i>r</i>	.188	-.032	-.100	.085	.252
	R ²	.035	.001	.010	.007	.063
	SE	.719	.732	.729	.730	.709
	β	.301	-.040	-.067	.074	.381
	p	.000**	.478	.024*	.056	.000**
PL	<i>r</i>	.046	-.125	-.117	.150	.327
	R ²	.002	.016	.014	.022	.107
	SE	.763	.758	.759	.755	.722
	β	.076	-.164	-.081	.135	.515
	p	.308	.005*	.009*	.001*	.000**
PS	<i>r</i>	.028	-.091	-.146	.167	.306
	R ²	.001	.008	.021	.028	.093
	SE	.737	.735	.730	.727	.702

β	.044	-.115	-.097	.146	.465
p	.538	.042*	.001*	.000**	.000**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *Note:* SA=Self -Appraisal; OI=Occupational Information; GS=Goal Selection; PL=Planning; PS=Problem Solving; SE=Standard Error; SDP = Student Discipline Participation; SES = Socioeconomic Status; SEA = Student Engagement Activity participation

Each sub-scale of CDSE was assessed as an individual dependent variable. Table 8 presents the regression analyses, reporting Pearson's r , R-squared, standard error, standardized betas, and significance. In reviewing the results presented in Table 8, several analyses are statistically significant. Student disciplinary participation showed significant interactions in the Self-Appraisal and Goal Setting subscales only ($b = .251$, $p = .001^*$; $b = .301$, $p = .000^*$) respectively, which can infer that those who participated in the discipline process pay more attention to their future aspirations. Specifically, students who indicated SDP showed more substantial confidence and demonstrated comfortability in assessing their abilities and believing that they will find a career that fits their preferences. Student engagement activities demonstrated significant interactions in all sub-factors and ranged from the low in Goal Setting ($b = .381$) to a high found in Planning ($b = .515$). Socioeconomic status showed significant results in all but two sub-categories (Self-Appraisal and Goal Setting).

Subsequent analysis of the interaction between the CDSE and the individual outcome level received was performed to gain insight into any change regarding students' type of outcome. After dummy coding variables, linear regression held all types of participation had a significant impact on CDSE, as *not responsible* demonstrated 1.2% variance explained ($p = .016^*$); *warning* demonstrated 1.7% variance explained ($p = .003^*$); and *probation* demonstrated 1.1% variance explained ($p = .019^*$). The combined variance explained was 3.8%, with a significant equation result ($F(3, 499) = 6.642$, $p = .000$) when all conditions were studied using

multiple regression; however, probation did not remain a significant predictor variable in this analysis. This supplemental data may be significant to researchers interested in future studies on career decision self-efficacy.

Exploratory data were analyzed, and a more nuanced assessment is provided in Appendix F regarding the categorical variables and SDP's interactions. The interaction between SDP and SEA was assessed due to the influence that SEA provided on CDSE. Further, SDP was assessed respectively with socioeconomic status, gender, and race in the same manner. Further data assessment was provided regarding the different levels of these variable breakdowns (socioeconomic status- low, middle, and high; gender-male and female; and race-White, Hispanic, Black, and other). Appendix F also provides the additional demographic variables of academic class level attained (freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior) and residential status (resident student and commuter) interactions with the career decision self-efficacy and the five CDSE sub-scales. While not primary to the research questions, these data provide additional analysis on career decision self-efficacy in college students, which would benefit educators.

Chapter Summary

This chapter's purpose was to present the descriptive and statistical results of analyses to identify the variables that best predict CDSE. A hypothetical model was presented to capture the essence of the study. Then, descriptive statistics were reviewed for the reported variables. Reported means and standard deviations were provided for the independent and dependent variables. Following this, the results of regression analyses were presented. The study's linear regression results were discussed regarding individual interactions followed by multiple regression analysis. Exploratory data collection was referenced to conclude this chapter. Significant results were found in the interactions between student disciplinary process

participation and CDSE aligning with research question one's goal. Similarly, significant results were found with the other four independent variables' interaction with CDSE, as outlined in research question 2. These results provide the first analysis of SDP and CDSE interaction with supporting the analysis of fellow independent variables' interactions.

Chapter V

Empirical research concerning how student disciplinary participation relates to CDSE is non-existent. The purpose of this exploratory study with student discipline was to investigate the potential relationship between student disciplinary participation with career decision self-efficacy in post-secondary students. This study was further informed by reviewing several controlling variables found in the literature as having plausible interactions on career decision self-efficacy. The results were gathered using an online survey that enlisted 503 collegiate undergraduate students in the United States' northeast region as participants. These results were analyzed using regression analysis to determine if any relationship existed between the variables. In reviewing the results, it is clear that student disciplinary participation does bear a relationship with students' career decision self-efficacy, but these findings need to be explored more in future research.

This study had two main research questions. The primary question asked if student disciplinary participation relates to career decision self-efficacy among traditional-age college students. The second question was how do the following independent variables: 1) gender, 2) ethnicity/race, 3) socioeconomic status, and 4) participation in student engagement activities relate to the students' levels of career decision self-efficacy? Participants were asked to complete an anonymous online survey with three parts: 1) a demographic questionnaire; 2) the Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale-SF (CDSE-SF), measuring beliefs about completing career decision-making tasks; and 3) questions regarding student disciplinary participation and student engagement activities status. A linear regression analysis measured the independent variable's predictive power (student disciplinary participation). Multiple linear regression was used to

measure the predictive power with the additional independent variables (gender, race, SES status, and student engagement participation).

This final chapter summarizes the results described in Chapter 4, considering the theoretical scholarship provided in detail in Chapter 2. The discussion is presented within the context of Chickering's Identity Development theory, as this theory was selected to guide this study. Following the discussion of the results, implications for students, institutional practice for student affairs practitioners, career counselors, and educators are presented. Finally, the limitations of this study design and opportunities for future research will be discussed, followed by an overall conclusion to the study.

Discussion

This study used regression models to examine the relationship between student disciplinary participation and college students' career decision self-efficacy. Five hundred three students participated in this study from a higher education institution located in the northeast United States. Of the 503 participants, 32% were male, 66% were female, and 2% identified as "other." Further, 42.5% identified as Caucasian, 21.1% identified as Black, 21.9% as Hispanic, and 14.5% identified outside of these three ethnicity groups. These percentages align with the overall institution composition of students. Based on the linear regression results, student disciplinary participation significantly predicted career decision self-efficacy. Further, as presented in Chapter 4, multiple constructs within the research questions were found to have positive statistical significance associated with career decision self-efficacy. Results demonstrated that of the variables assessed, while all demonstrated statistical significance, only student disciplinary participation, student engagement activities, and socioeconomic status were found to have varying positive levels of relationship with students' career decision self-efficacy.

Research Question 1

The primary research question asked the following: does student disciplinary participation have a relationship with career decision self-efficacy among traditional-age college students? This question was answered by conducting a linear regression analysis. This analysis' critical finding suggested a statistically significant positive relationship between student disciplinary participation (SDP) and career decision self-efficacy. While literature to compare this study is limited, a few studies explored student discipline and its influence on student development (Boots, 1987; Karp & Sacks, 2014; Patton et al., 2006; Schrage & Giacomini, 2009). In connection with how student development aids students with their self-efficacy, these findings support the findings from the current investigative study and serve as evidence that student disciplinary participation is a variable that can be explored more when assisting students in their career development.

The trend of the findings in this study suggests a significant relationship between CDSE due to participation within a disciplinary process. In this sense, the experience of participating in a disciplinary process can be viewed as a “positive” experience for the student and their CDSE. While not intended to provide a barrier, these results demonstrate that students can enhance their self-efficacy within a disciplinary process. This study’s results also found that approximately 90% of the respondents identifying with a student disciplinary experience noted that they viewed their process as not being a negative experience. Engaging in a student disciplinary process may also offer students a positive experience for their development and learning. These findings support existing research that holds that career decision self-efficacy is enhanced by positive life experiences (Dumulescu & Opre 2014; Jiang et al., 2017; Praskova, Creed, & Hood, 2015; Sari, 2019).

Career decision self-efficacy is the belief that individuals have to succeed in their career pursuits (Bandura, 1982; 1997). Bandura's theory maintains that these beliefs allow individuals to execute actions to attain beneficial outcomes in their careers. Bandura goes on to note that self-efficacy is developed within four premises: (a) vicarious learning, (b) social persuasion, (c) performance/accomplishments, and (d) physiological/emotional state. Bandura (1997) noted that self-efficacy is strongly affected by experiences, as it is not static. Experiences, like participation in a college discipline process, can have a profound influence on students' career self-efficacy, as these processes would be likened to the influence of participating in the criminal justice process (Jennings & Piquero, 2009; Khey et al., 2010; Pedrelli et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2019). As indicated by this study's results, fostering students' development within the student disciplinary process helps students achieve higher levels of CDSE. Students who participate in these processes expose themselves to very intentional and purposeful interactions. Discussions held within the process enable students to discuss how their behaviors and actions may impede their career self-efficacy, which can serve to bolster their self-efficacy.

Furthermore, an argument may be made that Bandura's theory actually supports student disciplinary participation by enhancing career decision self-efficacy. Participation in a student disciplinary process does not have to be a "negative" outcome, as it can have a positive outcome, which, based on literature, may influence a students' career decision self-efficacy and personal development (Betz, 2004; Gibbons & Shoffner, 2004). This position not only supports Bandura's theory of career self-efficacy but Chickering's theory of student development as well.

Chickering and Reisser (1993) note that the career decision process is a standard developmental task for traditional-age college students, as it assists students in understanding their self-exploration. Student disciplinary participation (SDP) can be seen as a steppingstone in

developing maturity towards mastery of their career self-efficacy as reflected in Chickering's vectors on student development. Similarly, Super (1990) believed that students would find themselves in the exploration phase. However, as students begin their college years, they might enter this phase with few other encounters providing influence, suggesting that their experiences during their college years may have more significant influence as a result.

The findings of this exploratory study on student discipline suggest that the different outcomes (e.g., not responsible, notice/warning, and probation) positively impacted students' CDSE. This result mirrors the long-standing view that sanctions should be focused on learning, not punishment (Gehring, 2001). Further, Pavela (1985) echoed this view in stating that the outcome must aid the student in being receptive to instruction. Typically, when students engage in the process, the conversation that ensues within the process is more robust. This conversation often occurs as the student affairs practitioner attempts to engage with the student as their behavior is nearing an outcome that could jeopardize the student's status at the institution. This aspect aligns with researchers' points of view that these purposeful conversations are excellent opportunities for developing students (Dannells, 1997; Gehring, 2001).

Research Question 2

The study's secondary question posed how the following independent variables: 1) gender, 2) ethnicity/race, 3) socioeconomic status, and 4) participation in student engagement activities relate to the students' levels of career decision self-efficacy? The construct variables of race, gender, SES, and student engagement activities status were examined with linear regression to determine their independent relationship with CDSE. Existing research has shown mixed results on how these variables influence CDSE (Albert & Luzzo, 1999; Lent et al., 2002; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001; McWhirter, 1997). This assessment was followed with multiple regression

tests conducted to measure any interaction effects of variables on college students' career decision self-efficacy regarding student disciplinary participation. Significant interactions with career decision self-efficacy were found when all variables were tested together with student disciplinary participation. Research has shown that the self-efficacy sources, which are performance/accomplishments, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological/emotional state, are strongly influenced by personal characteristics (Lent et al., 1994).

Student Engagement Activities

Student engagement can be viewed as students participating in educationally productive activities that intersect the individual's time and organizational learning opportunities and support services (Kuh et al., 2010). The findings support existing literature that demonstrates the significance of student engagement activities on students' self-efficacy. Research has shown that engagement activities aid students in degree completion (Astin, 1993; Carini et al., 2006) and provide opportunities to strengthen their development in these career areas (Kim & Bastedo, 2016; Super, 1990). Studies have also linked persistence to higher degrees of career decision self-efficacy, as students believe in their ability to succeed in their careers by obtaining their degrees (Garza et al., 2014; Peterson, 1993; Peterson & delMas, 1996; Wright et al., 2013). This study's results align with these findings as those who participated in student engagement activities demonstrated significant relationships with their career decision self-efficacy. This study's findings also support existing research on SEA's influence on career decision self-efficacy (Betz, 2004; Gibbons & Shoffner, 2004). Participation in the engagement activities offered, such as internships or career-related programs, helps build students' self-efficacy. When students engage in these programs, they can gain in developmental areas such as cognitive

development and skills transferability (Harper & Quaye, 2009). Increased interactions and participation within engagement activities assist students with their identity related to their careers (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). The relationship between SEA and CDSE found in this study's results support this tenet.

Socioeconomic Status

The findings on the positive relationship between SES and CDSE found in this study supports other studies suggesting the same (Hsieh & Huang, 2014; Metheny & McWhirter, 2013) while distancing itself from others that do not find supportive relationships (Ali et al. 2005; Harlow and Bowman, 2016; Shin & Lee, 2018). Hsieh and Huang (2014) note that those with higher socioeconomic status levels often demonstrate that they have the opportunity to have additional resources provided for them. As students reported what they understood their family's SES to be in their responses, the results point toward students with higher SES demonstrating greater confidence in their self-efficacy. The reported results highlight the importance of their socioeconomic status on their career decision self-efficacy. These results align with SCCT theory regarding how this variable profoundly influences career decision self-efficacy (Lent, 2005; Lent et al., 1994). This study's findings add to the existing literature supporting the significant and positive relationship between SES and CDSE.

Gender

This study indicated that while gender was significant, it negatively affected career decision self-efficacy, particularly in females. This negative effect is demonstrated in the literature that finds females with more negative CDSE than their male counterparts due to stereotyping, which hinders their self-efficacy (Brown, 2004; Hackett & Betz, 1981, 2006; Whiston & Keller, 2004; Yun-Jeong et al., 2019). The results continue a trend of mixed results

regarding this variable's influence on CDSE. Males demonstrated positive interactions with CDSE within the study; however, this study reported females with lower and negative results than their male counterparts. Furthermore, gender was not significant when assessing male and female status individually, yet the disciplinary process interaction was significant for both gender groups combined. This study also mirrored Scott and Ciani's (2008) results where the problem-solving sub-category of CDSE noted a significant relationship. As this study's findings reveal, gender does have a statistically significant negative relationship with career decision self-efficacy. Therefore, gender is a less critical variable to consider when forming interventions for college students.

Race/Ethnicity

The study's findings reveal that race does have a statistically significant negative relationship with career decision self-efficacy. This assessment was conducted using linear regression analysis. This negative relationship is demonstrated by those who identify as non-white having a lower self-efficacy value due to how they identify. As demonstrated in this study, as it also aligns with prior studies, a plausible explanation for the negative interaction between race and career decision self-efficacy may be that because of their ethnic identity, students perceive racism as a social barrier towards their career development. A recent study by the Pew Research Center found that 71% of respondents identifying as Black and 56% of White respondents believed little progress in battling racial inequality has occurred, with 50% of Blacks believing that they would not get ahead (Horowitz et al., 2019). Students may believe their race imposes barriers, imposing limits in their self-efficacy; thus, career goals may never be pursued. Therefore, an individual's race must be considered as a variable to consider when assisting in career decision self-efficacy.

This study showed the most promising results for those identifying as Hispanic, as a significant positive influence was shown on CDSE with and without SDP's interaction. Noteworthy is that student disciplinary participation interaction resulted in a greater significance towards CDSE with Hispanic students. Nevertheless, only with SDP's involvement was significant interaction found for those identifying as White or Black. According to Bandura (1997), individuals who do not identify as the ethnic majority believe they have insufficient preparatory experience, which leads to decreased career decision self-efficacy. The study's findings align with this concept, as students identifying as Black showed lower levels of CDSE. Several studies have demonstrated that college demographics continue to shift, bringing to light the numbers of underrepresented racial minority students continuing to increase, which provides reasoning to assess how these characteristics affect this population's CDSE (Duffy & Klingaman, 2009; Tovar-Murray et al., 2012). As evidenced by this study's results indicating the significance between race and CDSE, a closer analysis must indeed be undertaken to understand this variable's influence.

Theoretical Framework Discussion

Discussions held within the student disciplinary process enable students to discuss how their behaviors and actions may impede their career self-efficacy, which can serve to bolster their self-efficacy. Bickel and Lake (1999) stated that student affairs professionals help students in developing within student discipline. These student affairs professionals who work within student disciplinary processes imbued their processes with student development theory (Lancaster, 2012). Accordingly, this study utilized Chickering's Identity Development Theory to provide the gauge to view students in different stages as they progress through their college years, as they are faced with various opportunities and challenges during this period (Chickering

& Reisser, 1993). The theory is broken down into seven vectors: developing competence, managing emotions, moving through autonomy toward interdependence, developing mature interpersonal relationships, establishing identity, developing purpose, and developing integrity (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Evans et al., 1998). Chickering and Reiser (1993) stated that disciplinary systems could assist in the learning and development of students if the focus were on understanding the impact of their behaviors and on their future career choices. This study supports that SDP can enhance students' movement through the stages expressed by Chickering.

Students' time in college provides a myriad of tasks for development, such as identity, autonomy, and individuation, due to transitioning from childhood to adulthood (Sharkin, 2012). Chickering and Reisser (1993) claim the career decision self-efficacy process is a developmental task for traditional-age college students, as it assists students in understanding their own self-exploration. These tasks need to be understood to help students during this time. By way of student disciplinary participation, students realize that there are consequences and begin to have more profound and complex thoughts. They are encouraged to manage their emotions, as they cannot participate in the disciplinary process presenting questionable behavior. These findings may be why participating in the student disciplinary system aids in learning about boundaries through their participation, and in turn, students enhance their critical thinking processes, leading to more effective decision-making practices. This study's findings support students' ability to handle their involvement in these processes, helping them in their future careers.

Further, this parallel of students establishing their identity and knowing themselves also finds support in the existing literature. Research has demonstrated that experiences can help students develop their identity (Evans et al., 2010; Liversage et al., 2018), allowing student disciplinary processes to be viewed as experiences that benefit students and aid in their

development. As demonstrated by the study's findings, students who participate in disciplinary processes may benefit in transitioning developmental stages with increased self-efficacy. In providing these experiences, student affairs professionals additionally support students' self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1986).

While students are still maturing into their "adult-selves," their exploration within these settings can influence their career self-efficacy. Students may experience differing views in their experiences within the disciplinary process, which Chickering and Reisser (1993) stated could induce difficulty in their development. Their feelings of how their disciplinary action will impact their ability to succeed in their careers could augment their development or impede it. As the discipline process provides educational opportunities to foster students' personal and social development (Dean, 2006), the study's findings suggest that students can use their participation to strengthen their development. By way of participating in the process, Chickering and Reisser (1993) note that the student would determine their actions to match their values.

The results of this study may also support Perry's (1981) student development theory in that students participating in a disciplinary process transition from a dualistic view of "right vs. wrong" to a more complex understanding of consequences regarding their future, and they seem to be improving in their career decision self-efficacy and their own more complex development. Likewise, Kohlberg (2005) discusses progressing from thinking in terms of simple "right or wrong" and wrestling with moral decision-making. The results of this exploratory study indicate that as students participate in the disciplinary process, they enhance their self-efficacy and, therefore, their own personal development. It might be argued then that the students are learning in the discipline process how to reason through their decisions and move beyond the binary construct of "right vs. wrong" as evidenced by increased career decision self-efficacy.

Implications

This study's findings have implications for student affairs professionals, counselors, and counselor educators working with college students. The findings suggest the need to aid practitioners assisting college students to understand the influence of student disciplinary participation and how it may be considered as a contributing factor in their self-efficacy. This study also highlights the importance of counselors' understanding that student engagement activities significantly influence students' career counseling interventions. According to Paulsen and Betz (2004), higher CDSE scores in college students resulted in greater confidence in career selection and planning. The current study's findings may help career counselors, advisors, and other professionals support college students. Based on the trends in the findings of this study, individuals who work with students are encouraged to consider how disciplinary action may be framed into a positive developmental step for the student, and the process may positively impact how they view their career decision self-efficacy. Considering the findings, students who participate in student disciplinary processes should be encouraged to examine their actions and the impact the disciplinary action can have on their personal growth and development.

Student disciplinary officers, career counselors, and counselor educators are recommended to understand the implications of student disciplinary participation in college students to improve their self-efficacy appraisals for career development. This study suggests a positive impact on their thinking regarding career decisions, which helps the stakeholders mentioned above identify the kinds of interventions, education, and training needed to encourage students who have participated in the disciplinary process.

In nearly 25 years of working in student disciplinary processes, I have observed that many student affairs professionals view student discipline with a negative connotation, akin to

only dealing with negative student behavior, to ensure the community's safety. This study suggests that student disciplinary participation provides for developmental value in students' self-efficacy. The results of this exploratory study encourage student affairs professionals to conduct a "re-think" of how they view student disciplinary processes. The findings advocate that self-efficacy is enhanced by student disciplinary participation, which enhances their development, resulting in a critical review of how student disciplinary participation is valued in higher education.

Implications for Student Affairs Professionals

Research has shown that student discipline lies in a periphery role within higher education due to scrutiny of outcomes (Dannells, 1997) and focused more on community safety. This study's findings suggest that student discipline needs to come to the foreground as disciplinary participation may aid students with their self-efficacy. Further, the study's findings, which support college students' self-efficacy development, signal alignment in that educators need to understand student development theory. Dannells (1997) noted that student development theories need to be operationalized within the discipline process to link developmental theory to disciplinary processes. Due to the demonstrated value that self-efficacy has in both student development and career development (Luke et al., 2015), this study's results showing that student disciplinary participation augments career decision self-efficacy bears credence in aiding college students in their overall development.

Student affairs professionals provide comprehensive out-of-the-classroom programs and services (UNESCO, 2002). Student discipline officers are but one example of professionals who fall under student affairs. As Boots (1987) suggested, student discipline officers need to understand and apply developmental theory to help students develop and make better decisions

as they move forward. This study proposes that SDP does contribute to greater career decision self-efficacy in students. Therefore, disciplinary officers are suggested to consider that their process can positively impact students' career decision self-efficacy. Administrators can use these interactions of "teachable moments" to influence students' development in their careers. The perceived negative interactions could result from how those in their college years could be more concerned about how their outcome may affect them. Students are often looking at internships or preparing for a career search involving background checks. A student could view that a disciplinary process' results would harm their career trajectory. Accordingly, student affairs practitioners can discuss students' concerns about how their potential outcome can help them move forward positively. This understanding will be advantageous for all student affairs practitioners and the student populations that they serve.

Disciplinary officers would best be served to understand that they are doing more than "disciplining the student" within the process. They support the student by nurturing a respective relationship in keeping with developing interpersonal relationships. Chickering and Reisser (1993) indicated that establishing identity can be complicated. Often, the student affairs professional may seek students to express who they are to understand better why a student acted in a particular manner. Students may find it challenging to share responses if they struggle in this vector. In participating in the process, the student can share and process these conversations, which would allow them to better their self-identity. Student affairs professionals are advised to understand that students who participate in the student discipline process can view their experience as positive instead of always malicious and that the disciplinary experience may aid them in their career decision self-efficacy. Student affairs can use these students' experiences to help them move forward in their personal and career development.

The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS, 2012) stated, “as institutions of higher learning face new challenges, faculty, and staff members often find it necessary to implement their responsibilities in new and different ways” (p. 17). Researchers view that those who work in student disciplinary processes would benefit by grasping student development theory to serve this population best (Patton et al., 2006). Administrators involved in student disciplinary processes would be encouraged to enlist different views of how students are influenced when they engage in disciplinary processes. As the results of this study demonstrate, there are positive lessons that administrators can promote within the process to aid in students' development. Student disciplinary professionals also need to understand the various positions students may be in their development and how that may impact them through the disciplinary process (Fischer & Maatman, 2008).

Implications for Counselors in College Settings

This study's findings suggest that academic and career advisors need to be encouraged to discuss the student's career path and address implications of various engagement choices (discipline, extracurricular activities), whether positively or negatively viewed. Studies have demonstrated that higher levels of CDSE positively influence future career behaviors (Luzzo, 1993; Ojeda et al., 2006).

As suggested by the results, counselors may address the needs of racial and ethnic minority students in supporting their career development. College counselors are likely to gain understanding from the results of this study, which may aid them in assisting this population. McAuliffe and Eriksen (2010) note that counselors need to be prepared for complex situations in their environment to aid students in their understanding. Studies have shown that harsh discipline in younger age groups correlates with lower self-esteem levels (Peiser & Heaven, 1996; Renk et

al., 2006) and psychopathological development (Shucksmith et al., 1995). While not intended to be viewed as “harsh discipline,” students may not understand how the disciplinary experience can aid in their self-efficacy and career development.

Due to the critical influence of self-efficacy, counselors would be served well in developing their competence regarding career decision self-efficacy. Starting with Bandura’s (1986) findings on self-efficacy, extensive research has been found on the construct of career decision self-efficacy (Betz, 2004; Betz & Hackett, 2006; Betz & Klein, 1996; Betz & Luzzo, 1996; Bozgeyikli et al., 2009; Ojeda et al., 2006). The construct of CDSE has significantly influenced individuals’ career development. Those that have shown higher levels of career decision self-efficacy have related to positive career behaviors and outcomes amongst individuals (Ojeda et al., 2006). Luzzo (1993) also viewed that career decision self-efficacy forecasts the actual onset of students’ career decision-making.

Counselors are encouraged to understand the magnitude of influence that CDSE has amongst this population to aid in their advisement of students’ career paths. These career counselors should evaluate their students’ disciplinary participation and career decision self-efficacy to improve and tailor services. Research has found that career decision self-efficacy influences how college students engage in career interventions. These interventions take the form of advising sessions that help the students match their personality, skills, and interests to potential career paths (Lent et al., 1994; Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Taylor & Betz, 1983). To that end, college counselors are advised to understand how numerous environmental factors, including student discipline, will influence current college populations. Students may have a negative stigma of how disciplinary participation influences their career paths. Instruction of counseling students needs to incorporate a reflection of student

disciplinary processes so that future educators can conceptualize how disciplinary participation influences students. By encouraging and exploring career decision self-efficacy for students with disciplinary action, career counselors can help their students think independently about career issues. Accordingly, counselors in career advising would be advised to gain training on student disciplinary functionalities to help them process their interactions and continue moving forward in their career development and college endeavors.

Implications for Counselor Educators

This study's results imply that counselor educators need to understand the magnitude of influence that CDSE has amongst this population, which can aid in their advisement of students. Counselor educators would be served well to provide education to student affairs students on CDSE and SDP through various teaching approaches. This study's results suggest that counseling educator programs need to explore how student engagement and disciplinary participation can affect students, which those desiring to have careers in student affairs and college counseling need to comprehend. Classrooms should offer current student disciplinary officers the opportunity to provide insight into their disciplinary experiences to students. This action would also allow students to ask the presenters questions in order to gain perspective on engaging students within the process. Providing an inclusive and thorough understanding of these concepts' importance would be genuinely beneficial to these future counselors.

Results from this study offer guidance on curriculum planning for student affairs courses. Due to the importance of understanding students' transitions, coursework could incorporate counseling skills instruction as a fundamental facet for future student affairs professionals. Disciplinary processes encourage students to share their accounts so that the practitioner can comprehend the student's perception of the incident. Nonetheless, students often come into the

process guarded due to their perceptions of what will occur. However, to allow for developmental learning during the process, student affairs professionals need training in building rapport with active and reflective listening skills to demonstrate understanding, foster relationships with the student, and enhance the learning outcome.

Limitations

While this study's findings offer an initial assessment not found before in the literature, the results must be interpreted cautiously. While students of all class levels participated in the study, there might still exist limited exposure for the students in this study regarding specific experiences that may have influenced the CDSE instrument scores. Further, methodological issues may have arisen due to the nature of a given student's environment. There are several limitations to consider while making inferences about the results, therefore limiting the generalizability of the study. These conditions include the effect size, consolidation of data, the nature of and the number of infractions, students' experience within the type of disciplinary process, and world conditions.

The study's results provided significance, yet the study's effect size was small. While the study's overall sampling size was 503 students, the effect size was not calculated within power sampling, which may have resulted in the sample's total number presenting exaggerated significance in the results. With relatively flat means, the sampling number may have influenced the p-values provided in the results. As a result, generalizations of the results would be advised to remain limited until future studies are conducted. This study needs to be viewed as an exploratory study on student discipline but generates a trend in findings that future researchers may want to explore further.

The nature of the violation that the student was alleged to have violated may have limited the study's results. Student disciplinary processes manage numerous policy violations, and each violation may present a differing degree of influence on a student's CDSE. One student may have been involved in various violations, which may, on principle alone, bear influence on the type of interaction the discipline process played in their self-efficacy. Broad generalizations on the influence between a student involved in a noise violation as opposed to receiving an academic dishonesty notice need to be considered, even though both may receive a similar sanction. Also, this study did not control for the total number of incidents participants may have been involved in during their time at the university. Multiple prior violations would potentially have more considerable influence than a singular incident. However, these results will assist in understanding this area in future research.

This study was done in a state institution in the northeastern region of the United States solely, so different experiences may exist among the participants within this study with varying hearing officers and generalizability for every type of college and process. A different process provided by the institution, whether it falls within the models described in Chapter 2 by Karp and Sacks (2014) regarding the "Model Code, Restorative Justice, Counseling Approach" or a blending of modalities, might provide for the strengths, weaknesses, and biases of an individual hearing officer on student's interactions, thereby shifting the most rigid process to have a different effect on a student. In this vein, the outcome is limited only to American college students, and thus, the results should not be generalized to other countries' collegiate students or non-collegiate individuals.

Additionally, a limitation of this study reflects on the researcher's position, who serves as the lead disciplinary officer for the university in this study. Respondents may have responded

based on their knowledge, interaction, or views of the researcher, which may have placed bias in the results. This bias also may be presented by the researcher within the interpretation of the data analysis.

However, this study's most significant limitation might be the world's status when the study was conducted. This study was conducted during the last half of the spring 2020 academic semester. This time saw the institution shift to all online classes and close residential facilities amid the country's closure due to the Covid-19 pandemic. For comparison, the last pandemic of record, the Spanish Flu, occurred in 1918-1920 (Heffer, 2020). Heffer (2020) points out that the Spanish Flu was in two time periods, the first coming in the spring and summer, with a second wave in the following October. This sequence mirrors what many experts have expressed concern for in our own country. The 1918 pandemic saw approximately one-third of the world's population infected, with the loss of life recorded at approximately 50 million worldwide (Heffer, 2020). However, this generation has not dealt with a phenomenon such as Covid-19. Guan et al. (2020) discuss various Covid-19 pandemic concerns related to career development, listing stressors of increased anxiety and cultural differences in addressing the pandemic as chief items. Theoretical considerations on how the pandemic influenced this study's results would need to be evaluated within future comparative research.

Future Research

Future assessment is crucial to investigate more profound and evident implications between CDSE and student disciplinary processes for college students. This exploratory study provided an initial insight into the relationship between these variables. The trend in the results found herein alludes to positive significance between these variables where preliminary data was

extant. Future studies may consider examining other potential variables along with student disciplinary participation.

This study's findings evoke the need for further research to clarify the relationship between the variables of this study and CDSE. Researchers have found mixed results when reviewing variables to the existence of interaction, such as gender (Betz & Hackett, 2006; Bolat and Odaci, 2017; Jiang, 2014; Migunde et al., 2015) and race/ethnicity (Grier-Reed et al., 2009; Luzzo, 1996; Tovar-Murray et al., 2012), with CDSE. While this study did demonstrate statistical significance for both these variables, future research is required to understand the reason for the mixed results, including the aspect of positive and negative significance, as was demonstrated in this study, and other conditions that may influence the impact on CDSE.

While not the primary focus of this research study, exploratory data were gathered on college life aspects involving residential status and students' academic class level regarding CDSE (see Appendix F). This study suggested that class level had a significant interaction with students' levels of CDSE. Flowers (2002) presented data on how seniors show significant vocational purpose levels as opposed to their freshmen counterparts. As students move through their developmental levels and gain skills (Chickering & Reisser, 1993), it would be expected that these gains could influence their CDSE levels. However, it is suggested that additional research be conducted to gain a thorough understanding of this interaction regarding CDSE and potentially other benefits.

Furthermore, research regarding residential living has been demonstrated to provide numerous benefits for students in the areas of academic performance and social adjustment (Long, 2015; López Turley & Wodtke, 2010) and rates of persistence (Jamelske, 2009), yet residential status did not show significance in the provided results regarding CDSE. Further

research would be suggested to understand potential interactions with students' CDSE in light of other documented benefits.

While expressed as a limitation, further research needs to be conducted on the type of process provided and who administers the student disciplinary process. During the data review, this researcher wondered if the students had a lower-level disciplinary officer hear their respective incident or was it a seasoned professional who may have provided a different developmental conversation with the student. Based on that proverbial conversation, would the outcome have a more or less significant influence on the student? Had the student been in a different process, such as those grounded in restorative justice, would the student's CDSE have had similar results? The inclusion of evaluating both the type of process and the level of administrator conducting the process is recommended for future studies.

Further, several examples were provided in Chapter 1 which explained why this study was undertaken. Examples from various college disciplinary incidents involving Rutgers, Stanford, and Seton Hall set forth cases demonstrating how disciplinary outcomes affected several students. However, those students were separated from the given institutions due to those incidents. This dissertation studied the effects of student disciplinary participation where the consequences did not result in separation from the institution. While data were gained regarding lower levels of disciplinary sanctions within this study, research on how higher levels of consequences influence career decision self-efficacy would be valuable in future student discipline assessment.

Lastly, this study looked at student disciplinary participation in career decision self-efficacy in post-secondary students using quantitative methods. This focus provided for a breadth of general knowledge. It would be advisable to explore these variables' relationships further but

allow for qualitative methods to be used in those studies. Data and insight can be attained to provide depth into this relationship and the student experience using qualitative methods, such as interviews and focus groups. Using these methods allows personal stories to be explored in how the process influences career decision self-efficacy.

Conclusion

In summary, this study examined the relationship between Student Disciplinary Participation (SDP) and Career Decision Self-Efficacy (CDSE) among college students. This study also examined the moderation of the following variables on this relationship: gender, socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, and student engagement activities participation. This study drew attention to the influence of student disciplinary participation in undergraduate students and how this interaction influenced students' career decision self-efficacy. This dissertation did not just build on existing research regarding career decision self-efficacy, but in fact, it broke new ground. Evidenced by this study, the most notable results from this study were the significant positive relationship between student disciplinary processes and CDSE, as there is no existing data on this construct's influence. While the results did not demonstrate robust interactions, the interactions still existed. Subsequent evidence also showed support for other variables, strengthening some findings and adding to others' mixed results. This study also added to existing literature concerning several variables that influence CDSE singularly and in unity with others, including student disciplinary participation. These results continue to demonstrate the need for additional research on the factors that influence career decision self-efficacy.

Numerous practical applications exist for those who work in student affairs in disciplinary roles to gain better perspective and competence in their respective roles as they assist students. Likewise, these practical applications avail themselves to career counselors as

they assist students in their career development. Moreover, counselors would understand how to assist students who may present to them with concerns about their interactions within the discipline process. Traditional-aged college students are typically in the exploration stage within their career development (Super, 1990). Within this stage, they likely are still limited in their experiences that will influence their continued development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993), which favors continued support for research within this population, as they encounter new experiences throughout their years. Ensuring the continuation of exploration in these areas through data discovery and the resulting literature provides direction for counseling, career development, and student development. This study's conclusions provide a path for research on both career decision self-efficacy and student discipline that researchers need to continue to consider. Student disciplinary participation was shown to influence CDSE positively, and continued research into these areas will broaden and enrich students' development.

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Appendix A

Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale-Short Form (CDSE-SF)

For each statement below, please read carefully and indicate how much confidence you have that you could accomplish each of these tasks by marking your answer according to the key.

NO CONFIDENCE AT ALL	VERY LITTLE CONFIDENCE	MODERATE CONFIDENCE	MUCH CONFIDENCE	COMPLETE CONFIDENCE
1	2	3	4	5

Example: How much confidence do you have that you could:

a. Summarize the skills you have developed in the jobs you have held?

If your response was "Moderate Confidence," you would fill out the number 3 on the answer sheet.

HOW MUCH CONFIDENCE DO YOU HAVE THAT YOU COULD:

1. Find information in the library about occupations you are interested in.
2. Select one major from a list of potential majors you are considering.
3. Make a plan of your goals for the next five years.
4. Determine the steps to take if you are having academic trouble with an aspect of your chosen major.
5. Accurately assess your abilities.

CDSE-SF Subscales

Scale 1: Self-Appraisal -- Items 5, 9, 14, 18, 22

Scale 2: Occupational Information -- Items 1, 10, 15, 19, 23

Scale 3: Goal Selection -- Items 2, 6, 11, 16, 20

Scale 4: Planning -- Items 3, 7, 12, 21, 24

Scale 5: Problem Solving -- Items 4, 8, 13, 17, 25

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Appendix B

Demographic Variable Questions

Class Status:

Based on your earned credits, please identify your academic classification.

Freshman (0-29 credits earned)

Sophomore (30-59 credits earned)

Junior (60-89 credits earned)

Senior (90+ credits earned)

Gender:

Please enter the gender that best identifies you.

Male

Female

Transgender

Other

Race/Ethnicity:

Which response would best describe you?

White/Caucasian

Hispanic

Black or African American

Asian

American Indian or Alaska Native

Non-Resident Alien

Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander

Other

Socioeconomic Status:

Please indicate your entire household income in the previous year before taxes.

Less than \$10,000

\$10,000-\$19,999

\$20,000-\$29,999

\$30,000-\$39,999

\$40,000-\$49,999

\$50,000-\$59,999

\$60,000-\$69,999

\$70,000-\$79,999

\$80,000-\$89,999

\$90,000-\$99,999

\$100,000-\$149,999

\$150,000 or more

Appendix C

SDP and SEA Variable Questions

Have you participated in the University Student Conduct Process (participate would indicate that you have been alleged to have violated a disciplinary policy established by the University; received documentation alleging conduct violation; received a reprimand notice or disciplinary notice, etc.)?

- Yes
- No

What was the final outcome of your conduct process?

- Not Responsible
- Reprimand Notice/University Warning
- University Probation

When were you reported for your conduct incident?

- Senior Year
- Junior Year
- Sophomore Year
- Freshman Year

What was your overall perception of the conduct process?

- Positive
- Neutral
- Negative

Do you participate in Student Engagement Activities (Student Engagement Activities are educationally purposeful activities, which assist in acquiring knowledge to succeed in one's envisioned career)?

Examples would include Institutional Mascot Programs, Student Government Association, Residence Life Employment, Peer Leaders, Greek Life, Club Leadership or membership position, or Study Abroad programs.

- Yes
- No

How many Student Engagement Activities have you or do you currently participate in at the university?

- One
- Two-Three

Four or more

How would you rate your level of engagement in these activities?

Very active; involved in leadership role(s)

A moderate amount

A little; attend some meetings

Appendix D

Recruitment Email/Informed Consent

Career Decision Self-Efficacy

Dear Student,

You are invited to participate in a study of career decision self-efficacy (CDSE) in traditional college students. CDSE refers to an individual's belief that they can effectively complete tasks related to making career decisions. This study hopes to learn how multiple variables influence a student's career decision self-efficacy. This study is being conducted by Jerry Collins, a doctoral student in the Ph.D. in Counseling program at Montclair State University. You were selected to participate in this study because you are listed as an undergraduate student enrolled for the spring 2020 semester.

If you decide to participate, please complete the following set of questions. It will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. You may not directly benefit from this research. However, we hope this research will result in a greater understanding of how students are influenced during their time in college.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your relationship with the University.

Your responses will be anonymous, and no identifying information will be collected.

Data will be collected using the Internet. Please understand that while your responses will be kept completely confidential, there are no guarantees on the security of data sent through the Internet. Accordingly, confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. We strongly advise that you do not use an employer's or other person's electronic device, laptop, or phone to respond to this survey.

If you decide to participate, you are free to stop at any time. You may skip questions you do not want to answer. Your consent also indicates that you are 18 years of age or older.

Go to Survey.

Please feel free to ask questions regarding this study. You may contact Dr. Leslie Kooyman if you have additional questions at kooymanl@montclair.edu or Jerry Collins at collinsje@montclair.edu.

Any questions about your rights may be directed to Dr. Dana Levitt, Chair of the Institutional Review Board at Montclair State University at reviewboard@mail.montclair.edu or 973-655-2097.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,
Jerry Collins

This study has been approved by the Montclair State University Institutional Review Board, Study no. IRB FY19-20-1658.

Montclair State University Administration is sharing this information with you on behalf of a University researcher. The researcher is conducting this study as part of their research and scholarship at the University. The research is voluntary and students are not obligated to participate. The University administration does not track any individual data you might provide within the context of the research study

Appendix E

Institutional Review Board Approval



Institutional Review Board
School of Nursing & Graduate School Building
Room 333
Office: 973-655-7583
Fax: 973-655-3022

Mar 30, 2020 3:13 PM EDT

Mr. Jerry Collins
Dr. Leslie Kooyman
Montclair State University
Department of Counseling and Ed. Leadership, Dean of Students
1 Normal Ave.
Montclair, NJ 07043

Re: IRB Number: IRB-FY19-20-1658
Project Title: SS The Influence of Student Disciplinary Engagement on Career Decision Self-Efficacy

Dear Mr. Collins,

After an exempt review:

- Category 3.(i)(A). Research involving benign behavioral interventions in conjunction with the collection of information from an adult subject through verbal or written responses (including data entry) or audiovisual recording if the subject prospectively agrees to the intervention and information collection.
The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Montclair State University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved this protocol on March 30, 2020. Your exempt study will require an Administrative Check In, every two years, updating our office with the status of your research project. Your check in date is March 30, 2022. We will send you a reminder prior to that date.

All active study documents, such as consent forms, surveys, case histories, etc. , should be generated from the approved Cayuse IRB submission.

When making changes to your research team, you will no longer be required to submit a Modification, unless you are changing the PI. As Principal Investigator, you are required to make sure all of your Research Team members have appropriate Human Subjects Protections training, prior to working on the study. For more clarification on appropriate training contact the IRB office.

If you are changing your study protocol, study sites or data collection instruments, you will need to submit a Modification.

When you complete your research project you must submit a Project Closure through the Cayuse IRB electronic system.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB requirements, please contact me at 973-655-7583, cayuseIRB@montclair.edu, or the Institutional Review Board.

Sincerely yours,

Amy Krenzer
Senior Human Research Protection Analyst

cc: Ms. Caren Ferrante, Graduate Student Assistance Coordinator, Graduate School

Appendix F

Exploratory Data Review

Table 9

Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for SDP and SEA Independent Variables on CDSE

Variable	β	t	p
SDP	.049	1.140	.255
SEA	.316	7.391	.000**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *Note:* SDP = Student Discipline Participation; SEA = Student Engagement Activity participation

Table 9 represents a multiple regression analysis to predict CDSE based on SDP and SEA only, which was selected based on linear regression results and previous literature indicating the significance of SEA on a student's CDSE (Astin, 1993; Blau & Snell, 2013; Tinto, 2001). When SDP was added to the equation, a statistically significant result was still found between SDP and SEA on CDSE ($F(2, 500) = 29.830, p = .000$). The R^2 value of .107 demonstrates that this model explained 10.7% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy, which is slightly higher than SEA alone. The results demonstrate that the two combined variables predict CDSE more than either does individually. In this model, SDP was not statistically significant ($\beta = .049, ns$), while SEA was statistically significant ($\beta = .316, p < .05$).

Table 10

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis Summary for SDP and Independent Variables of Gender, SES, and Race on CDSE

Variable	β	t	p
SDP	.100	2.262	.024*
SES	.145	3.300	.001*
SDP	.094	2.037	.042*
Low	.019	.204	.839
Middle	-.123	-1.352	.177
High	-.127	-1.658	.098
SDP	.097	2.186	.029*
Race	-.128	-2.888	.004*

SDP	.120	2.498	.013*
White	-.113	-2.411	.016*
Black	-.013	-.256	.798
Hispanic	.110	2.301	.022*
Other	.108	2.283	.023*
SDP	.133	2.898	.004*
Gender	-.138	-3.011	.003*
SDP	.124	2.642	.009*
Female	-.481	-2.862	.004*
Male	-.382	-2.271	.024*
Other	-.090	-1.833	.067

* $p < .05$; *Note:* SDP = Student Discipline Participation; SES = Socioeconomic status.

Table 10 provides results of a multiple regression analysis of SDP and the remaining three independent variables, separately, for the prediction of CDSE. A statistically significant result was still found between SES and SDP interaction on CDSE ($F(2,500) = 7.763, p = .000$). The R^2 value of .030 demonstrates that this model explained 3.0% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. The combined constructs indicated more predictability power for CDSE. This study's results also found that SES had significant interaction with three of the five sub-categories of CDSE (Occupational Information, Planning, and Problem Solving).

A significant regression model was found with SDP and SES ($F(2, 500) = 7.763, p < .001$) with an R^2 of .030. Both SDP and SES variables were statistically significant ($\beta = .100, p < .05$) and ($\beta = .145, p < .05$), respectively. However, while a significant regression model was found ($F(4,498) = 4.461, p < .001$) with an R^2 of .035 for socioeconomic status using dummy coded variables representing low, middle, and high-income statuses, none of the individual SES conditions were found significant, although SDP was found to be significant in this relationship ($\beta = .094, p < .05$).

Regression analysis for predictability performed with SDP and Race provided a significant regression model. Further, analysis with dummy-coded variables resulted in a significant regression equation calculated ($F(5, 497) = 4.108, p = .001$) with an R^2 of .040. The results provided that SDP was positively significant ($\beta = .120, p < .05$), as well as both Hispanic ($\beta = .110, p < .05$) and “Other” ($\beta = .108, p < .05$).

A significant regression equation was found ($F(2, 500) = 6.842, p = .001$) with an R^2 of .027 when calculated using SDP and Gender with CDSE. Both variables proved significant. The analysis also showed a significant regression equation found ($F(4, 498) = 4.061, p = .003$) with an R^2 of .032 regarding Gender that utilized dummy coded variables representing female, male, and other students. Both females and males proved significant, with SDP remaining significant ($\beta = .124, p < .05$), demonstrating that the variables accounted for 3.2% of the variance in predicting CDSE. Without SDP, gender only accounted for 1.8% of the variance. These results suggest that SDP had a greater effect on how gender interacts with CDSE.

Likewise, when SDP was considered, a statistically significant result existed between SDP and Gender on CDSE ($F(2, 500) = 6.842, p = .001$). The R^2 value of .027 demonstrates that this model explained 2.70% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. Like SES, the results also found that gender had significant interaction with three of the five sub-categories of CDSE (Occupational Information, Planning, and Problem Solving).

Assessment of SDP with race resulted in a statistically significant finding ($F(2, 500) = 6.475, p = .002$). The R^2 value of .025 demonstrates that this model explained 2.5% of the dependent variable of career decision self-efficacy. This study’s results also found that how students identified their race/ethnicity had significant interaction with all five sub-categories of

CDSE (Self -Appraisal, Occupational Information, Goal Selection, Planning, and Problem Solving).

Multiple regression was conducted with the independent variables of SDP, Gender, Race, and SES influence on CDSE. This analysis did not include SEA due to the amount of variability that SEA provided. The result proved significant ($F(4, 498) = 7.677, p = .000$) with an R^2 of .058, providing that the four referenced variables together account for almost 6% of the variability. In contrast, when the variable of SEA was included, the total variability was 13.7%. As student engagement activities alone predicted barely over 10% of the variance, some moderating effects were experienced when all variables were combined.

Data collection also provided results for several exploratory points. These points represented data collection on additional independent variables of residence type and class level. As outlined in Table 11, within this group, 28.4% noted their class standing as a freshman ($n = 143$), 19% ($n = 95$) as sophomore, 25.6% ($n = 129$) as junior, and 27% ($n = 136$) as senior. Additionally, students identifying as commuters comprised 58.7 % ($n = 295$) with 41.3% identifying as resident students ($n = 208$). These results differ from institutional data somewhat, as residents consist of approximately 30% of the undergraduate population (At a Glance, 2019).

Table 11

Demographical Breakdown of Exploratory Variables

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%	Total %
Class Level	Freshman	143	28.4%	19.7%
	Sophomore	95	18.9%	-
	Junior	129	25.6%	-
	Senior	136	27.0%	-
Resident Status	Resident	208	41.4%	30.2%
	Commuter	295	58.6%	69.8%

Adapted from "At a Glance," by Montclair State University, 2019. *Data provided by Office of Financial Aid based on undergraduate students who filed FAFSA for the 2019-2020 academic year.

Outlined in Table 12, the additional variables of class status also proved significant in predicting CDSE, inferring that as students transition from freshman to senior, their self-efficacy is influenced by this change, as their class status raised from 3.9% as freshmen to 6.3% as a senior via linear regression analysis, accounting for 7.2% variance overall, while Housing status proved non-significant. Further, like in the overall CDSE, Class status's additional variable showed significant in all sub-categories, while Housing demonstrated no significant results.

Table 12

Regression Analysis Summary for Exploratory Independent Variables on CDSE and CDSE subscales

Variable	CDSE	SA	OI	GS	PL	PS
Housing						
r	.037	.018	.079	.009	.026	.031
R ²	.001	.000	.006	.000	.001	.001
SE	.669	.691	.774	.732	.764	.737
β	.050	.025	.124	.013	.041	.047
p	.414	.693	.078	.849	.558	.483
Class						
r	.268	.198	.223	.238	.274	.238
R ²	.072	.039	.054	.057	.075	.057
SE	.646	.676	.755	.711	.735	.716
β	.154	.117	.155	.149	.179	.151
p	.000**	.000**	.000**	.000**	.000**	.000**

*p < .05; ** p<.01; *Note:* SA=Self -Appraisal; OI=Occupational Information; GS=Goal Selection; PL=Planning; PS=Problem Solving; SE=Standard Error

Further, an assessment was conducted on how a student's class level could influence the SDP interaction with CDSE. Multiple regression analysis resulted in a significant equation ($F(2, 500) = 21.067, p = .000$) with an R^2 of .078 when calculated using SDP and Class overall. However, while both variables remained positive, only class level was significant ($\beta = .263, p < .05$). In closer assessment, dummy-coding the Class levels, first-year students were excluded via the enter method. A significant equation resulted ($F(4, 498) = 11.363, p = .000$) with an R^2

of .084. Interestingly, the results showed negative significance with juniors ($\beta = -.125, p < .05$) and seniors ($\beta = -.314, p < .05$), while SDP was positively correlated ($\beta = .085$), but not slightly not significant ($p = .053$).