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ORIGINAL PAPER

Development and Psychometric Evaluation of the Social Justice Scale (SJS)

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Abstract The study describes the development of the Social Justice Scale (SJS). Practitioners, educators, students, and other members of the community differ on their attitudes and values regarding social justice. It is important to assess, not only individuals' attitudes and values around social values, but also other constructs that might be related to social justice behaviors. The implication of Ajzen in Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes 50:179–211, (1991) theory of planned behavior suggests that attitudes, perceived behavioral control, and social norms predict intentions, which then lead to behaviors. A scale was designed to measure social justice-related values, attitudes, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms, and intentions based on a four-factor conception of Ajzen's theory. Confirmatory factor analysis and analyses for reliability and validity were used to test the properties of the scale.

Keywords Social justice · Theory of planned behavior · Psychometric evaluation · Confirmatory factor analysis

Introduction

The integration of social justice considerations into psychological practice, research, and teaching is an important value in psychology. Social justice promotion in the classroom has been described as helping students to develop a greater *critical consciousness*, a raised sense of awareness around inequality and the need for justice (Freire 1970; Pitner and Sakamoto 2005). An emphasis on social justice underscores the value of collaboration with and empowerment of people from traditionally marginalized groups. Social justice promotion includes facilitating self-determinism, and encouraging civic participation, advocacy, and activism (Fouad et al. 2006). The current study seeks to develop and evaluate a measure designed to assess attitudes towards social justice and related constructs, such as a perceived ability to engage in social justice efforts, social norms or support around social justice efforts, as well as intentions to engage in social justice efforts. Development of a scale to measure these social justice-related constructs may, in turn, help facilitate research and educational efforts designed to promote social justice activities and social activism.

Definitions of Social Justice

Social justice has been defined in many ways. Prilleltensky (2001) describes social justice as the promotion of "fair and equitable allocation of bargaining powers, resources, and obligations in society in consideration of people's differential power, needs, and abilities to express their wishes" (p. 754). Constantine et al. (2007) define social justice as involving "fairness and equity in resources, rights and treatment for marginalized individuals and groups of people who do not share equal power in society because of their immigration, racial, ethnic, age, socioeconomic, religious heritage, physical ability, or sexual orientation status groups" (p. 24). Cook (1990) discusses social justice as involving the fair allocation of resources across dominant and subordinate social groups. Toporek

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and Williams (2006) define social justice as a process of engaging individuals as co-participants in decision-making that eventually leads to action. They propose that professionals should actively engage in advocacy, empowerment, and social action within the community. Finally, Fouad et al. (2006) describe social justice as ensuring that opportunities and resources are fairly distributed within society, and that individuals and groups work toward ensuring equity when these resources are not fairly distributed.

In all of these definitions, social justice is consistently described as a *value or belief*, encompassing the idea that people should have equitable *access to resources* and *protection of human rights*. In addition, definitions of social justice typically involve *power*. Each definition encompasses the idea that structural and social inequalities should be minimized, and that society should work toward empowerment with people from disadvantaged or disempowered groups. Thus, participation, collaboration, and empowerment are all key components of social justice work. Social justice is a fundamental value of the community psychology field, particularly due to its emphasis on eliminating oppressive social conditions and promoting wellness (Prilleltensky 2001).

Social Justice in Action

What does social justice look like in practice? Social justice promotion involves actively changing institutions, policies, and economic or governmental structures that perpetuate harmful or unfair practices, which eventually restrict access to resources (Fouad et al. 2006). Within community psychology, social justice values are foundations of activities such as advocacy, analyzing public policy, community organizing, and political activism (Prilleltensky and Nelson 2002). Likewise, community psychology practices of collaboration and power sharing with community members and community organizations are utilized precisely because they minimize existing power differentials and are viewed as inherently empowering. Becoming more knowledgeable about oppression and sociocultural contexts, engaging in ongoing self-examination around issues of power and privilege, and conducting preventative and transformative interventions are key skills for community interventionists (Prilleltensky and Nelson 2002).

Social justice work also involves changing the regularities of a system, or the way things are typically done. This might involve re-conceptualizing problems from an ahistorical and asocial perspective to understanding an individual in context (Sarason 1981). It may also involve confronting an authority figure who represents power, or putting fair organizational practices into place, or working to prevent the harm that arises from standard organizational interventions or policies (Prilleltensky and Nelson 2002). Socially just clinical practice includes challenging harmful therapeutic techniques, possessing information about indigenous models of health and healing, decreasing dependency of clients and community members, and supporting individual and community strengths (Constantine et al. 2007; Fouad et al. 2006; Goodman et al. 2004; Prilleltensky and Nelson 2002).

Increasing awareness and skill training are both important to the promotion of social justice. However, awareness of social justice, while necessary, may not be sufficient to motivate real change efforts. Changing social justice-related *behaviors* may entail more than simply changing *attitudes* (Cook 1990; Fox 2003). More research is needed examining the impact that educational efforts and skill development may have on social justice-related practices (Pitner and Sakamoto 2005; Watts 2004). Researchers who have studied social activism have found that attitudes and beliefs are key elements of a greater 'activist' orientation. For example, Liss et al. (2004) found that feminist collective activism was predicted by one's beliefs, one's self-labeling as a feminist, and belief in collective action. Acceptance of social justice ideals is a critical step towards facilitating students' engagement in social action (Goodman 2000), but the ultimate purpose of social justice education is to encourage social action. The link between attitudes and social action warrants more empirical investigation. To this end, it is important to develop measures that will allow researchers and educators to more fully understand the process of moving from attitudes to action.

Linking Social Justice to Action

Ajzen (1991) presents a social cognitive model that provides a useful framework to consider how attitudes and related constructs might predict social justice related behaviors. Ajzen's theory of planned behavior has been applied successfully to a range of health-related behaviors, such as increasing levels of exercise, frequency of testicular or breast self-examinations, regulation of eating/nutrition, safe driving behaviors, and volunteerism (Hardeman et al. 2002). Ajzen's model was developed to link attitudes with behaviors. The central tenet of this theory is that *behavioral performance* is best directly predicted by one's stated *intention to act* (Fig. 1). In turn, one's intentions to act are predicted by one's *attitudes towards the action*, *subjective norms* around the action, and one's *perceived behavioral control* of the action. To date, Ajzen's model has not been applied to social justice, and no scale has been developed to measure variables that might predict behavioral performance of social justice-related activities. However, this

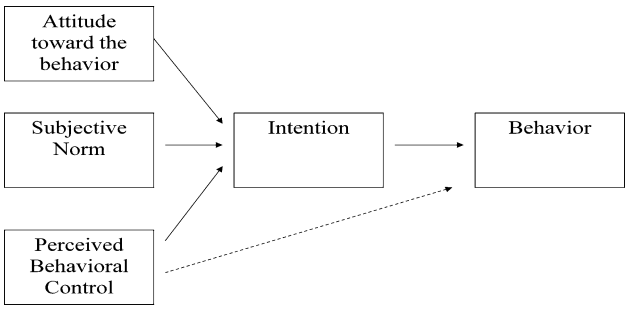

Fig. 1 Ajzen (1991) theory of planned behavior

model might serve as a particularly relevant framework that explains how attitudes towards social justice might eventually predict social justice-related behaviors.

Ajzen (1991) describes attitudes as involving general dispositions towards a given behavior. In the case of social justice, it would involve an individual's acceptance of the social justice ideals and related values, such as the belief that one should act for social justice, or that it is right or fair to promote equality of opportunity for everyone, regardless of background. In this model, one's attitudes around social justice would be an important predictor of one's intentions to act for social justice.

Ajzen describes *perceived behavioral control* as one's perceived ability to perform an act. In a social justice context, this might involve the extent to which a person feels it is possible to 'make a difference', or the self-evaluation of whether one can have an impact on existing social conditions. Ajzen notes that perceived behavioral control would directly predict intentions to act, and, in some cases, might also directly predict behavioral performance itself if the action itself was particularly difficult or challenging. Thus, beliefs in the ability to act for social justice should predict intentions to act. In addition, many of the social justice-promoting actions described could be viewed as particularly difficult or challenging because it involves changing the status quo (Prilleltensky and Nelson 2002). Thus, perceived behavioral control is likely to directly impact behavioral performance itself, in addition to one's stated intentions to work for social justice.

Ajzen hypothesized that a final component of his model, *subjective norms*, also predicts intentions to act. Subjective norms are described as the support, or lack thereof, provided in an environment for performing a given behavior. The inclusion of subjective norms describes a mechanism by which the social context can influence the occurrence of a behavior (Ajzen 1991). Thus, it might be expected that, in social justice work, contextual messages, norms, and support would facilitate one's intentions to act for social justice.

Measurement of Social Justice Attitudes and Behaviors

To date, few scales have been developed to specifically measure these components of social justice work. While many studies have examined predictors of activism within specific social issues, such as environmental activism (i.e. Dono et al. 2010) or feminist activism (i.e. Downing and Roush 1985), few scales have been developed to measure general propensities towards activism or social justice that generalize across a range of justice-related topics (Corning and Myers 2002). Several scales have been developed to specifically measure aspects of political engagement or political self-efficacy, which refers to the degree to which individuals believe they have the capacity to affect the political process (Caprara et al. 2009). Corning and Myers (2002) developed the *Activism Orientation Scale* to measure an individual's propensity to engage in a range of activist behaviors, including high—risk and conventional activism. However, activism is just one component of social justice work.

Researchers have also developed scales to measure how people judge the fairness of societal conditions by applying principles of distributive and procedural justice. For example, Rasinski (1987) scale measures the degree to which people use principles of proportionality (equality of opportunities) or egalitarianism (equality of outcomes) in making judgments of fairness as they apply to society. Other scales have been developed to assess the perceptions of fairness in specific contexts, such as the Organizational Justice scale (Colquitt 2001).

Some researchers have developed scales that specifically examine the extent to which psychologists themselves value and engage in social justice related behaviors. Ritchhart (2002) developed the Psychologists' Beliefs in Social Justice Scale to measure psychologists' attitudes towards social justice and social activism in their professional roles. Similarly, Dean (2009) developed the Social Justice Advocacy Scale to measure the degree to which counselors engage in collaborative action, social/political advocacy, client empowerment, and client/community advocacy in the context of a therapeutic relationship. These scales, however, are specifically limited to the social justice work within mental health practice, and may not be applicable to non-clinicians.

To date, only one scale (Miller et al. 2009), the Social Issues Questionnaire, has specifically used a career-orientation framework to understand the social cognitive processes whereby individuals are likely to work for social justice. This recent work has examined how students might develop interests in and, ultimately, a commitment to, social justice. The social cognitive career theory used as the underlying theoretical framework was originally developed to predict career choice, interests, and goal

attainment. Their scale measured several components of this process, including self-efficacy, outcome expectations, interest, supports, barriers, and commitment.

Information obtained from these measures has important implications for a person's views towards social justice. However, these scales do not measure general propensities or attitudes towards social justice that might impact one's intentions to work for social justice through such routes as activism, career choice, and collective social action. The Social Justice Scale (SJS) was developed to measure attitudes towards social justice and social justice related values, perceived self-efficacy around social justice efforts, social norms around social justice efforts, and intentions to engage in social justice related activities and behaviors.

This study will examine the reliability and validity of this scale. The Social Justice Scale was specifically developed as a tool to be used by community psychologists to measure favorable attitudes toward intentions to engage in social action. Social action could include political and social activism, or other social justice-related activities, such as working toward empowerment through one's career or volunteer work, by working to change policies that will serve to empower others, or by talking to others about the need to empower people from disadvantaged groups.

To examine the convergent and discriminant validity of the scale, measures assessing belief-in-a-just-world, racist attitudes, sexist attitudes, and motivation to perform public service were also administered. We hypothesized that individuals who have more favorable social justice-related attitudes and intentions would be less likely to believe that the world is a just or fair place. People who endorse a 'just world' ideology believe that people generally get what they deserve in life, and, thus, may be more likely to blame people from disadvantaged backgrounds for their problems and be less willing to provide help (Lipkus 1991; Pitner and Sakamoto 2005). Similarly, people believe in a 'just world' see life as essentially fair and therefore tend to be less likely to acknowledge that societal inequalities exist (Lipkus 1991). We also hypothesized that people who express more racist or sexist attitudes might express less favorable social justice-related attitudes and intentions because they view these groups as less deserving of social justice (Cook 1990). We hypothesized that people who have favorable attitudes towards social justice may also indicate a greater willingness to engage in public service, as suggested by Ngai (2006). Finally, we expected that individuals who expressed more favorable attitudes towards social justice activities would be more likely to identify as a social activist (Liss et al. 2004), and be more likely to have engaged in social justice activities or social action, as suggested by Ajzen (1991) model. To the extent to which the scale is valid and reliable, it may be used in subsequent research to predict the occurrence of social justice-related behaviors and social activism.

Methods

Procedure

The social justice attitudes scale items were administered to undergraduates and graduate students. Students were recruited from undergraduate and graduate classes. Students read and signed an informed consent form and then completed the measures, which took approximately 20–30 min. All procedures were reviewed and approved by the Roosevelt University Institutional Review Board. The data were collected in two waves. The sample in wave 1 included 115 undergraduates and graduate students. The sample in wave 2 included 276 graduate and undergraduates students.

Participants

During wave 1, 26% of the sample of 115 individuals were male and 74% were female. Regarding ethnicity, 50% were European American, 12% African American, 10% Latino, 8%, Asian Americans, 6% Middle Eastern, and 5% multiracial (with 9% of students not indicating their ethnicity). Three percent of the first sample identified as having a disability.

In order to validate the factor structure of the scale and further test the scale reliability and validity an additional 276 students were recruited for the second phase of the study. This second sample was 18% male and 82% female. Regarding ethnicity, 51% were European American, 21% African-American, 10% Latino, 6% Asian-American, 2% Middle-Eastern, 4% multiracial, and 6% did not specify their race/ethnicity. Six percent of the second sample reported having a disability.

Measures

Social Justice Scale (SJS)

The 44 original items of the SJS were developed by a team of researchers and graduate students specifically for this study. Items were generated by this team using literature that described both the definition and application of social justice, as defined by Prilleltensky (2001); Constantine et al. (2007); Toporek and Williams (2006), and Fouad et al. (2006). Key components of the definition of social justice and social justice-related behaviors were integrated into these questions, and these included: empowerment of people from disadvantaged groups, the need to minimize

power differentials and work collaboratively with others, helping others to access community or societal resources, the need to acknowledge existing societal inequalities that may be harmful, the importance of making society more fair for all people, and the belief that one should work for social justice.

Items were generated by members of the research team in order to fit both the definitions of social justice presented above and the specific components of Ajzen's model. After item generation, the scale was reviewed by a panel of psychologists and graduate students to assess face validity, comprehension, relevance to social justice goals and the domains in the Ajzen (1991) model. Feedback regarding the meaning of the items, clarity of written expression, and whether the items appeared to assess components of social justice-related values, was obtained. As a result of this process, 44 items measuring aspects of social justice were developed. Items were answered on a 1–7 Likert type scale, with 1 = disagree strongly, 4 = neutral, and 7 = strongly agree.

SJS Subscale 1: Attitudes Towards Social Justice Twenty items were developed to specifically elicit endorsement of social justice values, goals and behaviors. Items were developed to assess attitudes towards social justice, social justice-related values, and social justice-related behaviors, including empowerment, collaboration, power-sharing, self-determination, and facilitating access to resources for all. Examples of these items included 'I believe it is important to try to change larger social conditions that cause individual suffering and impede well-being', 'I believe it is important to allow others to have meaningful input into decisions affecting their lives', and 'I believe it is important to act for social justice.'

SJS Subscale 2: Perceived Behavioral Control Fourteen items assessing perceived behavioral control specifically referenced the social justice related *goals* rather than simply general *self-efficacy*. Examples of these items included 'I am certain that I possess an ability to work with individuals and groups in ways that are empowering,' I am certain that if I try, I can have a positive impact on my community, and 'If I engage in activities to promote social justice, it will not make a difference.'

SJS Subscale 3: Subjective Norms Six items were developed to measure subjective norms around social justice concerns. These items were designed to assess whether people in the respondents' social context supported or discouraged engagement in social justice-related activities. Examples of these items included 'Other people around me are engaged in activities that address social justice issues,' 'Other people around me are supportive of efforts that promote social justice,' and 'Other people around me are aware of issues of social injustices and power inequalities in our society.' For these items, the influence of media or other environmental influences were not assessed, as the focus was on the general attitudes of people in the respondents' immediate environment.

SJS subscale 4: Behavioral Intentions A set of four items examined behavioral intentions to engage in social action or social justice-related activities. These included statements that the individual planned to engage in social justice-related behaviors in the future. Examples of these items included, 'In the future, I intend to talk with others about social power inequalities, social injustices, and the impact of social forces on health and well-being,' and 'In the future, I intend to engage in activities that will promote social justice.'

Global Belief in a Just World

This is a 7-item scale that measures belief in a just world, an attributional process whereby one perceives that others get what they deserve in life, and that, generally, people are responsible for their own good fortune or misfortune (Lipkus 1991). The possible range of scores is between 7 and 42. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .83, indicating a high level of internal consistency among the scale items. Further, this scale demonstrated good convergent validity, as the total GBJWS scores were positively associated with internal locus of control, higher trust in institutions, overall trust, and higher perceived sincerity in others (Lipkus 1991).

Perry Public Service Motivation Scale—Abridged Version

The Perry Public Service Motivation scale (Perry 1996; Coursey and Pandey 2007) was developed to measure the extent to which one might be motivated towards a career in public service or as an employee at a public institution or organization. Coursey and Pandey (2007) tested an abridged version of this scale comprising 10 items, derived from Perry's (1996) original scale. This shortened scale included 3 items from the policy subscale, 4 items from the commitment to public service/civic duty subscale, and 3 items from the compassion subscale. Perry's original scale had adequate reliability, with .90 for the 24-item scale, and .69 to .74 for the original four subscales. Using confirmatory factor analysis, Coursey and Pandey (2007) found evidence of good fit for the revised 10-item, three factor model, with a root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) below .10, and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) and goodness of fit index (GFI) values above .90.

Symbolic Racism Scale (Henry and Sears 2002)

The Symbolic Racism Scale measured subtle forms of racism expressed against African Americans. Symbolic racism involves the attitude that racial discrimination is no longer a problem today, and that African Americans' continuing disadvantages result from their failure to take responsibility for their own lives (Henry and Sears 2002). This scale encompassed eight items measured on a 1–4 anchored scale, and these items are summed to arrive at a total score. Henry and Sears (2002) reported adequate reliability. Across five separate investigations, internal consistencies, as measured by Cronbach alphas, were generally acceptable and ranged from $\alpha = .59$–$.79$, with four of the five investigations reporting alphas of .70 or higher.

Neosexism Scale (Tougas et al. 1995)

The Neosexism Scale measured the degree to which a participant endorses neosexist beliefs, defined by the extent one denies the existence of gender inequalities while simultaneously blaming or resenting women. This scale encompassed 11 items answered on a 1–7 scale. The appropriateness of the scale might be of concern because it doesn't measure key components of sexism, such as ambivalent or benevolent sexism. However, the concept of 'neosexism' includes the idea of victim-blaming, whereby women are blamed for their own problems and lack of occupational advancement. In addition, 'neosexism' includes a component whereby those who score high tend to minimize the existence of social inequalities between the sexes. For this reason, the neosexism construct was used as a test of discriminant validity for the current study's definition of social justice. The scale was found to have good overall reliability as a unitary dimension with an alpha of .78, and a test–retest reliability of .84 (Tougas et al. 1995).

Demographic Questions

Age, race, gender, and disability level were assessed as part of the questionnaire. Participants were also asked what they had ever done to anything to work for social justice, and to indicate whether they self-identified as an 'activist.'

Results

Preliminary Analyses and Revision of the Scale

Internal Consistency

The reliability and factor structure of the scale was first tested in sample 1. A Cronbach's alpha was computed for the entire 44-item scale for sample 1, $\alpha = .93$. In addition, separate alphas for each proposed factor in this first sample were computed: (a) *attitudes* $\alpha = .89$, (b) *subjective norms* $= .85$, (c) *perceived behavioral control* $= .77$, and (d) *intentions* $= .86$. The individual subscales were moderately correlated, from .29 (*behavioral intentions* and *subjective norms*) to .56 (*attitudes* and *perceived behavioral control*). The corrected item-total correlations ranged from .18 to .69.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Next, using LISERL (Jöreskob and Sörbom 1996), a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted with the first wave of data collected from 115 respondents. The purpose, as recommended by Bentler and Bonett (1980), was to determine the fit of the four-factor conceptualization of the scale. The fit of the hypothesized four-factor model (χ^2 (896) = 1,854.99, $p = .00$) was compared to a single latent factor model (χ^2 (902) = 2,330.29, $p = .00$). Statistically significant change was found in the Chi-square statistic ($\Delta\ \chi^2 = 455$, $\Delta\ df = 6$, $p < .05$), indicating that the four factor model better reproduced the observed covariance matrix than the undimensional model.

Scale Revision

After determining comparative fit, items with a factor loading below .50 were eliminated from the scale. Modification indices were examined to assess whether items loaded primarily onto their respective hypothesized factor or onto another factor. If an item loaded more strongly onto a factor other than the hypothesized factor or loaded strongly onto multiple factors (at a level of 7.0 or higher on the modification indices), the item was eliminated. The combined result of these analyses involved dropping items 27, 31, 33, 37, 38, and 42 from factor 1. From factor 2, only item 15 was eliminated. From factor 3, item 36 was eliminated. No items were eliminated from factor 4.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses with Revised Model

Next, the confirmatory factor analysis was re-run with the revised four factor 29–item model. The absolute fit goodness of fit indices evidenced good fit for the revised model in the first sample. The revised four-factor model developed in the first sample was also tested in the second sample ($n = 262$), again using confirmatory factor analysis. The results once again showed a very good fit to the model ($\chi^2 = 740.54$, $df = 371$, $p = 0.00$; RMSEA $= .06$). Yet, examination of the standardized estimates for the items showed several non-significant estimates, specifically items 20, 24, 28, 29, and 35, indicating a potential

Table 1 Confirmatory factor analyses fit indices in sample 1 and sample 2

	Sample 1 ($n = 115$)	Sample 2 ($n = 262$)
χ^2	728.65 ($df = 371$)[a]	789.14 ($df = 246$)[a]
Root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA)	.08	.09
Normed fit index (NFI)	.87	.95
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.94	.97
Goodness of fit (GFI)	.65	.80
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	.66	.75
Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI)	.60	.65

[a] p-value equal to .00

misspecification of the model. When these items were eliminated and the analysis re-run, the new model showed an acceptable level of fit ($\chi^2 = 789.14$, $df = 246$, $p = 0.00$; RMSEA = .09). The RMSEA for the second analysis was .09, slightly above the .08 value specified by Browne and Cudeck (1993) as indicating a good fit, and below .1, the threshold at which they indicated an unacceptable fit. The fit indices in the revised model were higher in this final analysis when compared to the model fitted in the first sample (see Tables 1, 2 for individual item factor loadings for the revised model).

Internal Consistency

Cronbach's alphas were computed for each subscale for the entire sample, using the final revised model. Observed alphas were *attitudes* $\alpha = .95$; *subjective norms* $\alpha = .82$, *perceived behavioral control* $\alpha = .84$, and *intentions* $\alpha = .88$, indicating strong internal consistency across the four factors. The inter-scale correlations ranged from .34 to .58, suggesting distinct, yet related subscales (Table 3).

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

To assess convergent and discriminant validity, SJS subscale scores were correlated with the external measures administered in the study. For these analyses, data from the two samples were pooled when possible to reduce variability due to sampling error (Hunter and Schmidt 2004), although not all scales were given to all participants across the two samples. A series of bivariate Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted to examine the associations between the *social justice attitudes*, *social justice perceived behavioral control*, *social justice subjective norms*, and *social justice intentions* scores with the Public Service Motivation Scale, the Global Belief in a Just World scale, the Symbolic Racism Scale, and the Neosexism Scale. All of the social justice subscales were positively correlated with the motivation to engage in public service, supporting the convergent validity, and were negatively correlated with neosexism, symbolic racism, and one's global belief-in-a-just-world, supporting the discriminant validity of the SJS (Table 4).

Relationsh ip of Subscales with Activist Identity and Social Justice-Related Behaviors

A final set of analyses was conducted to explore the link between the four subscales of the SJS and two additional variables included in the survey believed to be related to social justice behaviors: self-report rating of *social justice behaviors* and *identification as an activist*. As part of the demographic questionnaires completed by all participants, individuals were asked to indicate whether they have ever engaged in activities to promote social justice. While such items are not actual behavioral criteria to test Ajzen's model, they do add to concurrent validity in assessing current and/or past behavior in this domain. It was predicted that those who have engaged in past social justice behaviors might be more likely to score higher on the subscales of the SJS when compared to those who have not engaged in any behaviors to promote social justice.

A dichotomous variable was created, with those who had engaged in no social justice behaviors coded as 0 and those who engaged in any social justice behaviors coded as 1. A logistic regression analysis was conducted with the factor scores (*attitudes*, *perceived behavioral control*, *subjective norms*, and *intentions*) as the independent variables and social justice behaviors (yes/no) as the dependent variable. In this analysis, only intentions were found to significantly predict whether one had ever engaged in social justice behaviors ($Wald = 14.97$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). Individuals who endorsed having high levels of intentions to engage in social justice related behaviors were more likely to have ever engaged in social justice related behaviors.

Also, as part of the more detailed demographic questionnaire, individuals were asked to indicate whether the respondent considered oneself to be an activist (yes/no) (i.e., activist identification). A second logistic regression was conducted with the subscales (*attitudes*, *perceived behavioral control*, *subjective norms*, and *intentions*) as the independent variables and activist identification (yes/no) as the dependent variable. On this analysis, only the intentions subscale was associated with identifying as a social activist ($Wald = 13.65$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). Individuals who

Table 2 Revised 24 item scale with standardized factors loadings for entire sample

Item	Social justice attitudes (SJA)		Social justice perceived behavioral control (SJPBC)		Social justice subjective norms (SJSN)		Social justice behavioral intentions	
	Sample		Sample		Sample		Sample	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
I believe that it is important to make sure that all individuals and groups have a chance to speak and be heard, especially those from traditionally ignored or marginalized groups	.72	.83						
I believe that it is important to allow individuals and groups to define and describe their problems, experiences and goals in their own terms	.82	.79						
I believe that it is important to talk to others about societal systems of power, privilege, and oppression	.75	.76						
I believe that it is important to try to change larger social conditions that cause individual suffering and impede well-being	.75	.85						
I believe that it is important to help individuals and groups to pursue their chosen goals in life	.76	.86						
I believe that it is important to promote the physical and emotional well-being of individuals an groups	.79	.88						
I believe that it is important to respect and appreciate people's diverse social identities	.74	.80						
I believe that it is important to allow others to have meaningful input into decisions affecting their lives	.71	.83						
I believe that it is important to support community organizations and institutions that help individuals and group achieve their aims	.65	.85						
I believe that it is important to promote fair and equitable allocation of bargaining powers, obligations, and resources in our society	.72	.83						
I believe that it is important to act for social justice	.67	.80						
I am confident that I can have a positive impact on others' lives			.60	.60				
I am certain that I possess an ability to work with individuals and groups in ways that are empowering			.53	.60				
If I choose to do so, I am capable of influencing others to promote fairness and equality			.65	.67				
I feel confident in my ability to talk to others about social injustices and the impact of social conditions on health and well-being			.62	.62				
I am certain that if I try, I can have a positive impact on my community			.66	.55				
Other people around me are engaged in activities that address social injustices					.56	.67		
Other people around me feel that it is important to engage in dialogue around social injustices					.73	.73		

Table 2 continued

Item	Social justice attitudes (SJA)		Social justice perceived behavioral control (SJPBC)		Social justice subjective norms (SJSN)		Social justice behavioral intentions	
	Sample		Sample		Sample		Sample	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Other people around me are supportive of efforts that promote social justice					.82	.88		
Other people around me are aware of issues of social injustices and power inequalities in our society					.68	.73		
In the future, I will do my best to ensure that all individuals and groups have a chance to speak and be heard							.70	.76
In the future, I intend to talk with others about social power inequalities, social injustices, and the impact of social forces on health and well-being							.83	.91
In the future, I intend to engage in activities that will promote social justice							.84	.86
In the future, I intend to work collaboratively with others so that they can define their own problems and build their own capacity to solve problems							.72	.72

expressed intentions to engage in social justice related behaviors were more likely to self-identify as being an activist.

Comparisons Among Demographic Groups

Finally, the subscale scores of the SJS were compared across various demographic categories. Using independent samples *t* tests, it was found that men and women did not differ on any of the subscales. Next, one-way ANOVA's were used to examine differences in subscale scores among four racial groups (European Americans, Latinos, African-Americans, and Asian-Americans; individuals from the other racial groups were eliminated from this analysis because of very small sample sizes). No differences were found between the racial groups on either *attitudes*, *social norms*, or *perceived behavioral control*. One of the ANOVAs found differences between the four racial groups on *perceived behavioral control* ($F = 3.149$, $df = 3$, $p = .03$), but Bonferroni post-hoc tests of between-group differences found no statistically significant differences between the groups. Pearson correlation coefficient analyses were also run between age and scores on the four subscales and no associations were found. Finally, independent samples t-tests were run comparing those who identified as disabled versus non-disabled on the four subscales as dependent variables and no significant differences were found except on the Intentions subscale, $t(372) = 2.54$, $p = .01$. People who identified as having a disability reported higher levels of *intentions* to engage in social justice activities ($M = 22.62$, $SD = 3.72$) versus individuals who did not have a disability ($M = 20.03$, $SD = 4.52$).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop a scale to measure constructs that might be predictive of social justice-related behaviors. Four subscales corresponding to the four primary components proposed by Ajzen's model were developed and tested: *social justice attitudes*, *social justice perceived behavioral control*, *social justice subjective norms*, and *social justice behavioral intentions*. The goodness of fit indices within the confirmatory factors analyses supported the four factor model over a single-factor model. The final 24-item scale evidenced good reliability, with Cronbach's alphas in the .82 to .95 range. Inter-correlations among the subscales were significant although modest, indicating that the four subscales measured four related yet distinct constructs.

Several external scales were included to examine the convergent and discriminant validity of the new

Table 3 Inter-correlations of SJS subscales

Inter-correlations between subscales for sample 1 ($n = 379$)	SJ attitudes	SJ perceived behavioral control	SJ subjective norms	SJ behavioral intentions
SJ Attitudes	–			
SJ perceived behavioral control	.58**	–		
SJ subjective norms	.34**	.42**	–	
SJ behavioral intentions	.56**	.51**	.46**	–

** significant at the $p < .01$ level, using Pearson correlation coefficients

Table 4 Pearson correlation coefficients of Social Justice Scale scores with additional scales

	Public service motivation scale	Global belief in a just world scale	Symbolic racism scale	Neosexism scale
Social justice: attitudes	.29**	−.28**	−.28**	−.44**
Social justice: perceived behavioral control	.39**	−.24**	−.26**	−.33**
Social justice: subjective norms	.31**	−.16**	−.19*	−.25**
Social justice: behavioral intentions	.44**	−.36**	−.35**	−.38**

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

measure(s). As hypothesized, all four subscales (*social justice attitudes*, *social justice perceived behavioral control*, *social justice subjective norms*, and *social justice behavioral intentions*) were found to be negatively correlated with symbolic racism, neosexism, and a global belief-in-a-just-world. This means that respondents who scored more highly on all Social Justice Scale subscales were less likely to deny that African Americans or women are treated unfairly in our society, were less likely blame or be resentful of African-Americans and of women, and were less likely to believe that the world is a fair or just place. This is consistent with the idea of developing conscientization (Freire 1970) or critical consciousness (Pitner and Sakamoto 2005).

To work towards social justice, one must not only become aware of the existence of inequalities, but also acknowledge that unjust conditions are due to the systematic oppression of specific groups in our society. One should also recognize that institutional barriers, policies, and laws contribute to these injustices and harms, and understand the dangers of overreaching attributions of disparities solely to personal characteristics of individuals within certain groups. The moderate association between the SJS subscales and the racism, sexism, and belief-in-a-just-world scale suggests that individuals who answered positively on the SJS are more likely to have developed this awareness, as well as less likely to blame people from disadvantaged groups for individual failures. Likewise, all four SJS subscales were associated with the public service motivation scale. This suggests that those who favorably endorse items on the Social Justice Scale are more likely to be interested in a career in public service. This is also consistent with the ideals of social justice, whereby those who want to work towards social justice might consider careers where they can serve others (Ngai 2006).

The SJS itself does not measure behavioral performance, but rather assesses intentions to engage in social justice related behaviors, and can be used as a tool to link social justice-related attitudes and behaviors. This scale needs to be further tested and specifically to examine whether the subscales will indeed predict the enactment of actual behaviors—thus, the results presented here are only the initial steps in the construct validity process. However, two analyses suggested that the scale might indeed be predictive of social justice-related behaviors in a way consistent with Ajzen's model. Intentions was the sole subscale predictive of self-reported past and present social justice behavioral performance, and was also predictive of participants reporting an activist identity. This is consistent with Ajzen's model places intentions, rather than attitudes or subjective norms, as the central predictors of behavior. The intentions result is also consistent with Cook's (1990) findings, suggesting that positive social justice attitudes will not always directly predict behaviors.

In a large study of activism among 1,610 women, researchers found that identification as an activist was the strongest predictor of participation in action around feminist or gender-related issues (Kelly and Breinlinger 1995). Future studies with the SJS may examine the association between intentions and identity and compare the two in predicting social justice-related behaviors.

More recently, Miller et al. (2009) tested a path analytic model to predict social justice commitment. They found that social justice commitment was predicted directly by social justice interest and social justice self-efficacy. They also found that social justice barriers, social supports, and outcome expectations indirectly predicted social justice commitment through their influence on either self-efficacy or interests. With the exception of social justice barriers, these variables overlap with the constructs assessed in the current study. Specifically, their construct of social justice commitment overlaps with the SJS behavioral intentions subscale. Miller and colleagues' social justice outcome expectations is conceptually similar to the SJS perceived behavioral control subscale, and their social justice interest overlaps with the SJS social justice attitudes subscale. In contrast to the Miller et al. (2009) study, the pathway predicted by Ajzen's (1991) model was not tested; therefore, it is unclear whether the same pathways would be found in the current study. Future research that tests Ajzen's (1991) model, which predicts a somewhat different pathway than that found by Miller et al. (2009), would help to further explore the interrelations among these constructs and would allow for a more direct comparison with Miller and colleagues' (2009) results.

Limitations of the study include the modest sample sizes when conducting the confirmatory factor analyses, although the cross-validation involving the two samples adds an extra degree of confidence in the SJS model. Also, as mentioned earlier, even though the results were consistent with Ajzen's model, the specific pathways were not tested. Behavioral performance of social justice activities was not assessed. Thus, this model awaits further testing to more fully explore the predictive validity for social justice related behaviors, such as social activism and advocacy. Finally, the SJS subscale of subjective norms was conceptualized by the authors to measure attitudes endorsed by individuals in the respondents' immediate environment, such as family, friends, colleagues, and peers. From a community psychology perspective, this s the subscale that is most connected to individual perceptions of the social context, and has great potential toward understanding the impact of beliefs held by larger groups or communities. Research has suggested that the type of relationship a person has with others might impact the influence of social messages and how they are perceived by the individual (Passy and Giugni 2001). These perceptions, relationships, and the broader social context was not assessed in the current study. In addition, the subjective norms subscale did not measure other normative factors such as media influences, laws, policies or other social norms, and it is possible that more general messages within a person's environment might have a significant influence on social justice-related behaviors. Future research should attempt to assess these factors and begin to better differentiate the specific influences of people within one's social network and the influence of media or social policy on subjective norms and, ultimately, on intentions, identity, and the social justice-related behaviors themselves.

Despite these limitations, it is expected that the development of this measure may facilitate future investigations, interventions, and community action. In summary, the current study suggests that the SJS is a reliable and valid assessment tool. Future research should focus on determining whether these four domains predict the behavioral performance of social justice-related activities as predicted by Ajzen's (1991) model. It is expected that understanding the cognitive processes by which individuals choose to engage in social justice related efforts may better inform training and pedagogical interventions to promote social justice. This tool might also measure the outcomes and efficacy of educational efforts through social justice-oriented advocacy or clinician training programs, empowering and participatory classroom strategies, or community service learning programs. Ultimately the hope is that by better assessing and scientifically predicting the factors that contribute to social justice, there can be improved methods at developing the conscientization and subsequent action envisioned by Freire (1970) and many others toward a more just and equitable world.

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