

EXPLORING RESIDENT ASSISTANTS' DEMONSTRATION OF SOCIALLY
RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP

Jonathan W. Manz

Dissertation research submitted to the Faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State
University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Higher Education

Steven M. Janosik, Chair

Joan B. Hirt

Kusum Singh

Eleanor F. Finger

June 14, 2016

Blacksburg, Virginia

Keywords: Higher Education; Social Change Model; Socially Responsible Leadership; Resident
Assistants

Copyright 2016, Jonathan W. Manz

Permission is given to copy this work provided credit is given and copies
are not intended for sale.

EXPLORING RESIDENT ASSISTANTS' DEMONSTRATION OF SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP

Jonathan W. Manz

ABSTRACT

For students who want to make a difference in college and beyond, involvement in a variety of available leadership positions while in college can lead to gains in many areas—and most importantly, the ability to work respectfully, flexibly, and effectively with an increasingly diverse population. While it is widely acknowledged that leadership qualities and skills are principally learned and developed (rather than inherently innate to the individual), scholars are less certain as to the specific variables and values that result in socially responsible leadership skills among college students. The Resident Assistant (RA) represents a pivotal student leadership role on campus—but it is not the only way for students to assume an influential and skills-building leadership role. Other student leaders (OSLs), encompassed herein under the umbrella title of “peer helpers,” include peer counselors, peer educators, and tutors.

College and university educators are striving to develop leaders to be effective in an increasingly diverse society through a variety of methods including co-curricular opportunities. The implementation of targeted leadership development opportunities represents another way to meet this goal. The Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development, which consists of seven core values (citizenship, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment), was created to help educate college students by focusing on positive social change through leadership.

Given the lack of research examining leadership outcomes from serving in the RA position, this quantitative investigation was designed to compare SCM values in RAs to the analogous values in OSLs to determine if there were differences between the two cohorts with respect to socially responsible leadership. In short, are outcomes associated with socially responsible leadership due to being a student leader in general, or will serving in the RA role be more advantageous in developing those skills? An additional goal was to determine to what degree elements of the Social Change Model (SCM) could predict a student leader serving as a RA or in another role as an OSL. Findings from this investigation were based on responses from

the 2012 iteration of the Multi-institutional Study on Leadership (MSL). A careful analysis of the data revealed that the SCM value of “citizenship” was the only one among the seven that could predict a student leader serving as an RA over an OSL; in contrast, RAs did not score significantly higher than OSLs on any of the other remaining six values. Although there is a large body of work related to RA performance, further research is needed to understand the relationship between the performance of student leaders who serve in this role and SCM values.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation is a product of two years of thinking, writing, reflecting, and editing in addition to three years of courses, internships, and exams. I am gracious to the numerous people who have shaped my educational experience and supported me on this doctoral journey.

To my chair and advisor Dr. Steve Janosik, I am thankful for our conversations regarding my dissertation and our tangents regarding the state of higher education. I always walked away from our discussion learning something new or with a different perspective. Thank you for your critiques and feedback that helped shape this paper and challenged my thinking.

Thanks to my committee of Dr. Joan Hirt, Dr. Kusum Singh, and Dr. Eleanor Finger for your time and assistance with my dissertation. Drs. Hirt and Singh, I appreciate your challenge and support in the classroom that sharpened my critical thinking skills and your willingness to talk through papers and research methods. Dr. Finger, thanks for your mentorship and friendship that has made me a better professional in student affairs and specifically residence life.

Thanks to Dr. Claire Robbins for our many conversations early in my dissertation process. It was those conversations that helped spark the idea for this dissertation.

Thanks to Frances Keene and Dr. Martha Glass for being fantastic graduate assistant supervisors. I appreciate your willingness to allow me to explore different professional interests and being a constant support to me as both a student and professional.

Thanks to my friend and fellow Ph.D. student, Delight Yokley. Our countless hours together reviewing for prelims and talking through our dissertations and research has made me a better scholar and I am incredibly thankful for your tireless support.

To my Blacksburg community, you created a caring place for my family and me. While there are too many people to list I would be remiss if I did not specifically name the Chinn family and New Life Christian Fellowship. Your spiritual guidance, love, and support has been an overwhelming blessing to us.

To Dr. Frank Shushok, no one has had a more profound impact on my education than you. Over the last decade you have challenged my thinking and influenced how I approach student learning. You kept me moving forward in this pursuit of a Ph.D. even in the most challenging times. Thank you.

Thanks to my parents Bob and Kathy Manz for valuing my education since day one and being a support to both me and my family by stepping in during the busiest of seasons.

To my kids Heath and Reese, thank you for your love and support while daddy has been a student (your whole lives!). You have encouraged me in more ways than you know and your constant curiosity is an inspiration.

Most importantly, to my beautiful wife Lyndsy, while my name may be on this dissertation and diploma, this journey has been a true partnership. There are not enough words or space to describe what you mean to me, but know that your love and support is what guided me through this process and I thank God I am married to you. I love you!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
Focus on Leadership Development.....	2
The Resident Assistant (RA) Position	3
Leadership Development Models	5
The Social Change Model and RAs.....	7
Gaps in the Literature.....	8
Statement of the Problem.....	9
Purpose Statement.....	9
Conceptual Framework.....	10
Research Questions.....	10
Significance of the Study	10
Delimitations.....	12
Organization of the Study	13
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	14
Involvement and Leadership Development in Higher Education.....	14
Social Change Model of Leadership Development	15
<i>The Seven C's of the Social Change Model</i>	16
Instruments Measuring Student Involvement and Leadership Outcomes	17
<i>The Student Leadership Practices Inventory</i>	19
<i>The Socially Responsible Leadership Scale</i>	20
The Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership.....	21
<i>Outcomes</i>	21
Resident Assistants and Other Student Leaders.....	23
Resident Assistant Studies	24

<i>Burnout</i>	26
Studies on Other Student Leaders	27
Summary	28
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY.....	30
Sample Selection.....	31
The Research Instrument	33
Reliability and Validity	33
Data Collection Procedures.....	34
Analysis Procedures.....	35
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS.....	39
Sample Description.....	39
Data Analysis	40
<i>Logistic Regression Analysis</i>	43
<i>ANCOVA Analysis</i>	45
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION.....	49
Values Predicting RA/OSL.....	49
Differences Between RAs and OSLs	52
Relationship of the Findings to Prior Research	55
Practice, Policy, and Future Research.....	57
Limitations of the Study.....	60
REFERENCES.....	63
Appendix A: Data Approval Letter.....	71
Appendix B: IRB Approval Letter	72

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. <i>Definition of Values in the Social Change Model</i>	18
Table 2. <i>Demographics of Respondents</i>	32
Table 3. <i>Mean and Reliability for the SCM Scales</i>	40
Table 4. <i>Scale Descriptives</i>	41
Table 5. <i>Logistic Regression Analysis</i>	44
Table 6. <i>ANCOVA Summary</i>	46
Table 7. <i>Descriptive Statistics and Effect Size</i>	47

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Social Change Model (adapted from Cilente, 2009).....	7
---	---

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

American colleges and universities vary across a number of dimensions: public versus private, comprehensive versus liberal arts focus, large versus small. Similarly, there is a lack of consensus as to what institutions of higher education should do as their primary goal: prepare young men and women for their future careers by teaching work-related knowledge and skills, or help them develop personally and intellectually (or both) (Chan, Brown, & Ludlow, 2014). According to a survey conducted by the Pew Research Center (2011), among Americans who attended a four-year institution, fully half agreed that “individual growth” trumped learning career-related skills as the primary mission of college, with only 40% preferring the more utilitarian purpose. Those with a post-graduate degree agreed by more than two-to-one that the “mission of college should be to help an individual grow personally and intellectually rather than to prepare students for a career” (p. 1).

The difficulty, however, lies in how to achieve those goals—especially in view of dramatic changes in the demographics of many college campuses. In a recent speech by the president of the Lumina Foundation, Jamie Merisotis (2013) summed up what a great many higher education advocates are saying about the complexity of serving an increasingly diverse college population:

We need new routes, new ideas, new approaches to serve much larger numbers of students. In particular, we need to concentrate on the students who, for decades, have been on the wrong side of the growing attainment gap in higher education: low-income and first-generation students, racial and ethnic minorities, immigrants and adults. To close those gaps, and to meet the full range of societal needs, we need an integrated, fully linked system for developing human capital. Again, we need a redesigned system — one that is flexible, affordable, and relentlessly focused on quality. (Merisotis, 2013, para. 15)

In their journey toward developing human capital, college undergraduates will interact with many people who have the potential to either purposefully or tangentially impact that process: faculty, administrators, students in leadership positions and fellow-students. For

example, higher education administrators often use co-curricular programs to help students develop interpersonal skills, in addition to attempting to inculcate values and beliefs that enable them to engage successfully in diverse cultures. Moreover, taking part in civic engagement, diversity awareness, and leadership development opportunities can promote increased growth in students (Cress, Astin, Zimmer-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001). These outcomes help students gain skills that allow them to interact with diverse people more effectively, which ultimately enhances their professional and personal effectiveness in an increasingly global society (Cress et al., 2001).

Focus on Leadership Development

Leadership development is a common focus for many institutions, be they businesses, governmental organizations, or institutions of higher education (Caruso, 1984; Keeling, 2004; Pugh, 2000). According to the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) (1996), assisting in the development of student leadership skills is one way educators can encourage students to become socially responsible leaders. Leadership development courses represent an important strategy for developing students' interpersonal skills, values, and beliefs. Indeed, the evidence supports the importance of offering leadership development courses in college as an approach for aligning a university's mission with desirable and tangible student outcomes (Cress et al., 2001). Today, leadership courses can be found across the college campus in business, agriculture, and many other disciplines, in addition to offerings in nonacademic units such as student affairs (Komives, 2011).

Leadership development opportunities abound on most college campuses via student government leadership roles, membership in fraternities and sororities, and by engaging a wide variety of student interest groups. Student involvement in student organizations and/or engaging in community service opportunities represent important strategies for developing leadership skills (Astin, 1993; Dugan, 2006). Being involved allows students to be influenced by peers, which according to Astin (1993) is one of the strongest influences on college student leadership development. Indeed, findings from the Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership demonstrated that students who are involved in college organizations have demonstrated significantly higher gains in socially responsible leadership in comparison to students who are not involved (Dugan 2006; Gebhardt, 2008).

There are a variety of ways in which students can expose themselves to leadership development opportunities. Joining a fraternity or sorority represents one approach for students to be involved. Fraternity and sorority involvement has been examined for its impact on student leadership outcomes, with recent studies confirming that fraternity and sorority members in their first year of college demonstrated a greater ability to work towards a common purpose, to be an engaged citizen in a community, and openness to change compared to their nonaffiliated peers (Dugan, 2008; Martin, Hevel, & Pascarella, 2012).

As noted above, involvement in community service opportunities assists students in developing their leadership skills (Astin, Keup, & Lindholm, 2002; Dugan 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2010). Students involved in community service have demonstrated significantly higher gains in six of the areas including aligning one's actions and beliefs, ability to commit to service, being an engaged citizen in a community, ability to collaborate with others for a common goal, ability to work towards a common purpose, and the ability to address controversy while remaining civil (Dugan & Komives, 2010). In these more informal organizational settings, a professional staff member or faculty advisor can be instrumental in developing students' leadership skills, civic responsibility, multicultural awareness, and societal/personal evolution. Of importance to this study, however, is the role that resident assistants (RAs) play in the leadership development of live-in undergraduates on college campuses—both through informal interactions and more targeted efforts based on leadership development models.

The Resident Assistant (RA) Position

The RA position is powerful way to be involved and serve in a student leadership role. RAs have an opportunity to make a significant impact on their peer residents because they live in close proximity and interact with them frequently. The importance of peer interactions on college campuses has long been of interest to researchers. Nearly 150 years ago, John Henry Newman (1873) recognized that when college students gather in a “keen, open-hearted, sympathetic, and observant,” manner, such as in a residential setting, they are sure to learn from each other (p. 9). More recently, however, scholars have highlighted the importance of intentional interventions to bring students together for mutual social, learning, and leadership development opportunities (Shushok & Manz, 2012). Vital to this role is a residence hall's RA, whose role it is to develop a considerate and cooperative educational community that ultimately will contribute to the personal and academic growth and success of each student resident. It

must be noted that unlike many student leaders who may serve for a shorter duration, RAs are contracted to serve for one or more academic years. They must be experienced students in good academic standing and be well-informed about available campus services and a variety of issues germane to undergraduate students (Blimling, 1999).

Although RA responsibilities can vary from campus to campus, these student leaders are typically required to fill five roles: student, administrator, educator/teacher, counselor, and role model (Blimling, 1999; Paladino, Murray, Newgent, & Gohn, 2005). First and foremost, an RA must be a student who focuses on his/her own educational goals while balancing the duties of his/her position. Serving as a hall or building administrator is another role of an RA. When fulfilling their administrator role, RAs assist the institution by maintaining accurate housing records, facilitating the checking in and out of residents, ensuring building safety, reporting maintenance issues, and enforcing housing and university policies (Blimling, 1999). RAs also act as educators and teachers (Paladino et al., 2005) by assisting in (and sometimes challenging) the development of residents' values, which to some extent are driven by values propagated by the institution and tend to center on student learning and socially-minded goals (Shushok & Manz, 2012). Diversity awareness and inclusivity are values about which RAs commonly educate residents (Johnson & Kang, 2006). RAs can also serve as informal tutors when time and mutual interests permit (Blimling, 1999). Additionally, RAs also serve as counselors in addressing residents' personal struggles, interpersonal problems, and adjustment issues. This aspect of the RA position often requires the student to serve as a mediator between residents to help resolve conflict, which requires skills such as negotiation and encouraging compromise (Blimling, 1999; Paladino et al., 2005). Finally, RAs serve as role models. As role models, RAs espouse characteristics that are consistent with the institution's values. Importantly, since RAs have experienced many of the same issues that their younger peers are confronting, their knowledge and sensitivity represent valuable tools for aiding in the educational and social adjustment of their residents (Blimling, 1999). Indeed, peer conversations represent powerful tools for positively impacting leadership development in students (Dugan & Komives, 2010). RAs must model positive behaviors and values if they are to influence their residents positively.

These diverse responsibilities require a significant commitment of time and effort. Their leadership in modeling good academic performance, their insider knowledge of student needs, their ability to create community within a residence hall, and their liaison role between students

and university staff position them as highly influential members of the university community (Blimling, 1999). As such, the ways in which they model socially responsible leadership merit further investigation—especially in light of significant leadership development models.

Leadership Development Models

Although informal leadership opportunities are valuable (e.g., through community service and membership in a Greek Life organization), this study was designed to investigate the role of certain specific leadership development models in enhancing student leadership skills as practiced by RAs in comparison to other student leaders (OSLs). Initially, college educators used more generalized leadership theories that were then adapted for higher education. A majority of these college leadership development theories were based on Chickering's work on psychosocial vectors and cognitive development (Komives, Dugan, Owen, Slack, Wagner, & NCLP, 2011). Servant leadership practices from *The Leadership Challenge* (Kouzes & Posner, 2007), and the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (Higher Education Research Institute [HERI], 1996) are models currently being employed by many college educators.

Servant leadership is a leadership development model that has been adapted for use with college students (Komives et al., 2011). This model focuses on the leader serving the organization in a way that encourages people to work together towards a shared outcome. Important tenets of this model include having shared processes and mutual outcomes. This model is often employed to encourage students in service efforts and civic engagement (Komives, et al., 2011).

Over 20 years ago, Kouzes and Posner (1995) described leadership as a set of practices and behaviors that could transform an organization. Their model of transformational leadership included five specific practices for operationalizing the construct of leadership: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. An assessment tool based on their work has since been developed for use in higher education settings, whereby student leaders can understand their leadership behaviors and how others perceive them (Komives et al., 2011).

About the same time that Kouzes and Posner (1995) proposed their transformational leadership model, a research team led by Alexander and Helen Astin created the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development as a tool to guide educators in helping foster a student's ability to work and collaborate with others in socially responsible ways (HERI, 1996).

In this model, social change refers to actions that are collaborative, non-coercive, and value-centered and will benefit the local community (e.g., a student's college or university) and the larger society (Cilente, 2009). Specifically, the SCM focuses on the development of undergraduate college students along two lines—their leadership competence and self knowledge. The researchers suggested a number of key assumptions about leadership that are represented in the model: (a) leadership is concerned with effecting change on behalf of others and society; (b) leadership is collaborative; (c) leadership is a process rather than a position; (d) leadership should be value-based, (e) all students (not just those who hold formal leadership positions) are potential leaders, and (f) service is a powerful vehicle for developing students' leadership skills (HERI, 1996, p. 10).

The SCM consists of seven values of leadership (the “seven C’s”) that ultimately contribute to the eighth value, which is change. These seven values are consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, and citizenship—each of which is detailed in Chapter 2. As shown in Figure 1, change is depicted as a hub surrounded by the seven values, which are grouped into three dimensions: community/society, group, and individual. Cilente (2009) provided an overview of the SCM and its dimensions. She indicated that the community/society dimension is comprised of citizenship—namely, the ways in which one works toward change to benefit others. The group dimension is comprised of collaboration, common purpose, and controversy with civility. Through collaboration, one is able to multiply a group's effort by encouraging contributions from those involved and capitalizing on the diversity and strengths of the group. Common purpose refers to the group having a shared vision—even though individuals may approach the vision differently. Controversy with civility allows for individuals to have differing viewpoints, and civil discussions about those differences can help produce new and creative solutions (Cilente, 2009). Finally, the individual dimension consists of consciousness of self, congruence, and commitment. Consciousness of self refers to individuals being self-aware of their own beliefs, values, and emotions. Congruence requires that individuals are aware of their values and act within them. Commitment refers to individuals' intrinsic desire to lead towards positive social change (Cilente, 2009).

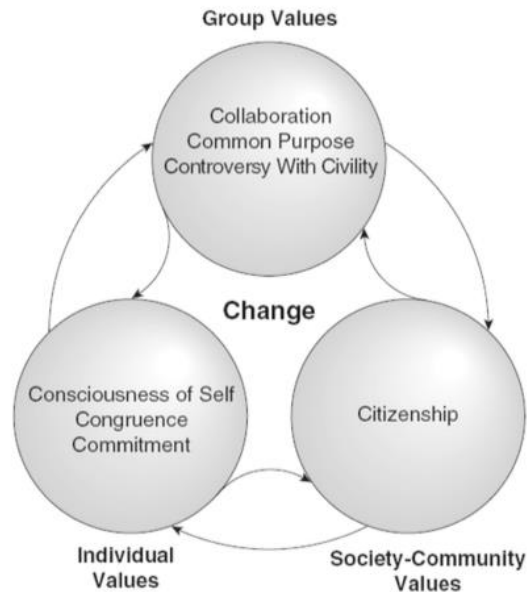


Figure 1: Social Change Model (adapted from Cilente, 2009).

The Social Change Model and RAs

The Social Change Model was utilized in this investigation as the roles of the RA position align with the values outlined in the model. RAs who serve as educators and teachers, for instance, will exhibit characteristics of the SCM value of citizenship since focusing on social justice, diversity, and equality are important aspects of citizenship. Conversations centered on socio-cultural issues, such as multiculturalism, diversity, and lifestyle choices, are one of the strongest influences on growth in the SCM (Dugan & Komives, 2010). As noted earlier, RAs serve as counselors by addressing issues arising from individuals with diverse perspectives (Blimling, 1999). While serving this role, an RA is likely to model the SCM value of controversy with civility. Differences in opinions are inevitable within a diverse group of undergraduates. Having discourse that is open and civil while also being critical is imperative to developing an understanding of multiple perspectives (Cilente, 2009). RAs can mediate between individuals while demonstrating controversy with civility, by allowing diverse options to be heard and assisting in keeping the discourse civil.

As role models, RAs will demonstrate the SCM value of congruence in that they should be aware of their personal values and act within those values. Additionally, leaders are aware of and respect the values of others and have the ability to work towards a shared group purpose (Cilente, 1999). To serve as role models, RAs must exhibit the same values whether formally

serving in the RA position or simply acting as a fellow student (Blimling, 1999). RAs can demonstrate congruence and be positive role models for other students by being aware of and consistently acting within their values.

Finally, RAs should also demonstrate the SCM value of collaboration when serving as role models. When collaborating, it is important for leaders to maximize the diversity and strengths of a group and in doing so, the leader also works towards the SCM value of common purpose (Cilente, 2009). While acting as a role model, an RA must collaborate with residents in order for a sense of community to develop. It is important for RAs to be aware of different cultures and be competent in addressing culturally-related situations with skill and sensitivity (Watt, Howard-Hamilton, & Fairchild, 2003). Understanding and working with diverse individuals is a key concept for collaboration (Cilente, 2009).

Gaps in the Literature

A significant body of scholarship has examined various aspects of the role of the resident assistant, including emotional intelligence (Jaeger, 2006), factors related to burnout (Paladino et al., 2005), the importance of mentoring in leadership capacity (Early, 2014), and essential abilities for addressing culturally-related issues (Johnson & Kang, 2006; Martin & Blechschmidt, 2014; Watt, Howard-Hamilton, & Fairchild, 2003). Upon examining the many roles of an RA, it is evident that students serving in this position should exhibit characteristics of the SCM. Despite this congruence, there is currently a lack of scholarship detailing the ways in which RAs exhibit values defined by the SCM. Thus, research is needed to fill this scholarship gap. Given that the RA position requires students to exhibit attributes that are also outlined in the SCM, it is important to know to what degree they are exhibiting these values for the good of the students and, therefore, the institution. Research focused in this area is important for student affairs administrators to inform RA training and developmental processes.

Moreover, if RAs demonstrate characteristics of the SCM, it is important to determine if these characteristics are unique to RAs—or are common to students engaging in different kinds of leadership opportunities. The RA position is one of several different leadership positions available to college students. Focusing on the SCM as it relates to RAs and OSLs will help further inform student affairs administrators in developing student leaders.

Statement of the Problem

Leadership development programs based on established models have been used to help students develop skills that will allow them to be successful in a diverse society (Cress et al., 2001; Komives et al., 2011). In particular, the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development was created specifically for higher education and focuses on developing students who can lead others toward positive social change, which for this investigation is defined as making the world and society better for self and others. Leadership through this model is referred to as socially responsible leadership (Cilente, 2009).

While several avenues exist for students to become involved in leadership opportunities, the resident assistant (RA) position represents a potentially powerful way to lead students—especially given its diverse roles (i.e., student, administrator, educator/teacher, counselor, and role model). Important for this study is that three of the five roles have responsibilities that require students to serve in ways that are congruent with values outlined in the SCM (Blimling, 1999; Cilente, 2009; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Johnson & Kang, 2006; Paladino et al., 2005). Therefore, due to the universal nature of these general duties, RAs should exhibit values described in the SCM regardless of the type of institution they attend. The problem of interest herein is that while a great deal of research has been conducted on the characteristics of RAs (Jaeger, 2006; Paladino et al., 2005; Early, 2014; Johnson & Kang, 2006; Martin & Blechschmidt, 2014; Watt et al., 2003), there is a lack of literature related to RAs examined through the lens of the SCM. In short, research is needed to understand if there is a relationship between students serving as RAs and values defined by the SCM.

Purpose Statement

This quantitative study was designed to explore RAs' demonstration of socially responsible leadership and whether this cohort evidenced different values (as measured by the Social Change Model) in comparison to OSLs. Thus, the purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which elements of the SCM could predict a student leader serving as an RA or OSL. This study also examined for any differences in SCM scores between RAs and OSLs as evidenced by SCM scores. Examining for differences between the two variables assisted in determining if holding an RA position could be a significant indicator of scoring outcomes, or if it was due to students simply holding any leadership position.

Conceptual Framework

Astin's (1970b, 1991) Input-Environment-Outcome (I-E-O) model represents an early college impact model. According to this model, student outcomes such as learning or leadership development are a function of both certain inputs (e.g., socioeconomic background, personal traits/talents, or demographic characteristics) and environmental factors (i.e., the diverse experiences that a student will encounter in college). Inputs are considered in conjunction with the environment to measure changes in student development (Astin, 1970b). The I-E-O model was used as the conceptual framework to guide the study, while the SCM was used as the framework to measure student outcomes. Institutional environments, in conjunction with student inputs, are presumed to directly and indirectly impact the outcomes (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). For this study, inputs included pre-college leadership capabilities related to each of the seven Cs. Environmental factors encompassed aspects of higher education institutions such as opportunities for student involvement, and the outputs were demonstrated socially responsible leadership values as defined by the SCM—namely, the specific variables under study. As detailed in Chapter 3, data were derived from the 2012 Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership (MSL) (2014), which included a scale for each of the seven Cs of the SCM. A total of 91,559 respondents contributed to this dataset, including 3,211 RAs and 3,118 OSLs.

Research Questions

This study was designed to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do the seven values of the SCM predict whether a student is an RA or an OSL?
2. After controlling for pre-college levels of each of the seven SCM values, are there differences in SCM scores between RAs and OSLs?

Significance of the Study

This study is expected to inform higher education practices by elucidating the leadership values that RAs evidence in comparison to other student leaders. Thus, the findings described herein may benefit housing administrators (including those directing residence life and/or housing programs) by informing RA training practices. Training is one way housing administrators educate RAs on certain skills and values they wish for them to demonstrate in the position. Indeed, training is acknowledged to be an integral component for preparing students

for the RA role (Koch, 2012). If differences are found between the two cohorts (RAs and OSLs), such findings may impact the types and length of training student leaders receive. In addition, most RA positions are often paraprofessional, meaning they are compensated in some way (Blimling, 1999). This compensation could make the RA position more attractive, ultimately leading to the hiring of the strongest student leaders. Finally, differences may also be explained by the demands of the position. The RA position is known to cause burnout (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989; Fuehrer & McGonagle, 1988; Hardy & Dodd, 1998; Hetherington et al., 1989; Paladino et al., 2005), which could negatively impact their performance and their perception of their leadership abilities. The results of the study can apprise housing administrators of the specific characteristics of the SCM where RAs are demonstrating competence and where they need growth. Based on this information, housing administrators can revise training programs to focus on developing specific aspects of socially responsible leadership.

Another group that might benefit from this study is institutional policymakers. Those institutions with on-campus residential requirements for one or more years would be well served by a study that elucidates the values that RAs possess. Moreover, while prior research has demonstrated positive outcomes due to peer mentoring (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), policymakers should know the extent to which RAs are positive role models, which could then affect the length of time students must live on-campus and interact with RAs as peer mentors. Similarly, findings from this investigation may influence future residence life training policies and practices. For example, housing administrators may decide to screen potential RAs to ensure that they exhibit certain qualities of the SCM.

A third group that might benefit from this study is diversity and inclusion personnel. The SCM was developed as a tool to help students develop leadership skills with a focus on positive social change. Based on the results of the study, diversity and inclusion personnel can determine if RA training practices are beneficial to growth in socially responsible leadership and seek to include similar trainings for other student leaders.

Policies related to students' co-curricular involvement might be impacted. If RAs have higher scores than OSLs, administrators may promote RA involvement. Additionally, other residential-based leadership opportunities may be promoted. Similarly, policies related to student employment may be impacted. The RAs are often compensated and categorized as student employees. If other departments employing students have values similar to the SCM, the

results of this study could inform the student employee hiring and training policies in these departments. RA selections policies may also be altered based on the results of this investigation. Administrators may want to screen applicants for certain values found in the SCM.

This study may serve as a springboard for future studies. While the current quantitative study examined differences among RAs and other student leaders with respect to socially responsible leadership practices, a qualitative study might deepen our understanding of how student leaders view and value their leadership experiences on a more individualized basis. Moreover, other researchers may examine the impact of RA training on outcomes related to socially responsible leadership. If RA training programs are controlled for, data would demonstrate what impact, if any, these programs have on developing characteristics defined by the SCM. Researchers may also want to examine different types of residential environments (e.g., single-sex, themed housing, freshmen versus upper-class) and their impacts on student outcomes related to socially responsible leadership. For example, a future study could determine if there are differences as measured by the SCM in students living in traditional, double-loaded corridor halls versus students living in a suite-style halls or apartments.

Delimitations

This study featured several delimitations. First, the dataset employed in this investigation includes respondents from a select number of institutions that participated in the MSL. It is possible that students at these institutions were not representative of all student leaders at all institutions. If so, the results may not be representative of the population in question. In addition, this study relied on self-reported student data—such as their pre-college traits. Therefore, it is possible that students incorrectly remembered characteristics they had prior to entering college, which could have resulted in inaccurate or incomplete findings. Another limitation is that participants in the study were asked to indicate various forms of involvement. However, there was no survey item asking for years of experience. Therefore, I was unable to control for years of experience in the RA position or as an OSL, which is a limitation. Finally, the design of the instrument could have influenced the findings from this investigation. Due to the quantitative nature of the instrument, response options may not have been inclusive of all

potential responses. This could have caused participants to make choices that were not truly reflective of how they felt about a particular item.

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. The first chapter presents the topic, the purpose and significance of the study, and the research questions. Contained in Chapter Two is a review of the relevant literature on the topic of the study. Chapter Three describes the methodology used for this investigation, including the sample, survey instrument, and procedures for analyzing the data. Chapter Four features a description of the results, and Chapter Five contains a discussion of the results and their potential impact on future research, practice, and policy.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter discusses the literature pertaining to the variables central to this study of leadership outcomes from student involvement. Since available scholarship in the area of leadership is quite extensive, studies targeting leadership development in higher education are highlighted. An overview of the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development and relevant studies featuring this model are then provided. Also included in this chapter is a review of the literature related to the two involvement variables in this investigation: resident assistants (RAs) and other student leaders (OSLs). This chapter concludes with a discussion of the relevance of this investigation and how it addresses gaps in the literature.

Involvement and Leadership Development in Higher Education

Research on leadership development has undergone a paradigm shift—from early studies that viewed leadership qualities as innate (i.e., the concept of a “natural-born leader”), to more contemporary scholarship arguing that leadership is mostly a learned behavior (e.g., Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011). In the academic setting, numerous factors are believed to influence leadership development in students (Komives et al., 2011). Indeed, colleges and universities are widely acknowledged to be highly influential settings for developing leadership skills in undergraduates through both formal classroom interactions, as well as via co-curricular opportunities that take place in residential living settings, through service learning, and in student organizations (Burkhardt & Zimmerman-Oster, 1999). Such types of involvement not only lead to the development of leadership skills, but are increasingly viewed as potentially powerful ways to bring about institutional change (HERI, 1996; Komives et al., 2011).

The use of the term “involvement” in this investigation stems from Astin’s (1984) work on student development in higher education. Astin (1984) determined that students learn by being involved, which describes both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the physical and psychological energy a student devotes to his or her academic experience. Astin found that students who are involved are more likely to have greater outcomes in both the short and long term—a finding that has since been corroborated by a number of researchers on college student development (e.g., Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Astin (1970a) proposed the Input-Environment-Outcomes (I-E-O) model, which provides a roadmap for assessing the impact of environmental factors given the skills and traits of students prior to interacting with the college environment. According to the researcher, students possess certain personal characteristics that will impact their college experience, which are known as *inputs*. The term “*environment*” refers to educational programs, institutional interventions and general student experiences that will shape their development. *Outcomes* corresponds to student development, achievement, and growth. Thus, the I-E-O model is useful for assessing the relationship between the environment of the institution and educational outcomes—while at the same time controlling for individual differences among students (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Astin (1984) formalized his findings regarding involvement into the Theory of Student Involvement, which is useful for explaining how college students thrive during their undergraduate years as a result of being involved co-curricularly, as indicated in the I-E-O model (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Representing one of the strongest arguments for a student’s involvement in co-curricular activities (e.g., Greek life, sports, student organizations and residence hall involvement), Astin (1984) argued for a positive correlation between academic success (and thus college retention) and student involvement (Milem & Berger, 1997; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Webber, Krylow, & Zhang, 2013). Most of the studies reviewed in this chapter focus on the “O” of the I-E-O model—namely outcomes from involvement. While a wide variety of studies address both the academic and social nature of student involvement (e.g., Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), this section focuses on involvement as it relates to student leadership opportunities.

Social Change Model of Leadership Development

As noted in the Introduction, this investigation utilized the Social Change Model (SCM) to determine to what degree elements of this model could predict a student leader serving as a resident assistant (RA) or other student leader (OSL). Created in 1993 by the Higher Education Research Institute at UCLA (HERI, 1996), the SCM was designed to empower student learning and facilitate social change through collaborative leadership. Specifically, Helen and Alexander Astin gathered together a team of leadership development specialists and student affairs professionals to create a leadership model (i.e., the SCM) that focused on collaborative leadership development in college students. The creators of the model posited that leadership is not innate; rather it can be taught and learned. Since the principal objective of leadership is

change, an effective leader is one who can implement positive social change that benefits others and society (Wagner, 2006).

The Seven C's of the Social Change Model

There are seven values that contribute to social change, which collectively are known as the “seven C's.” These values are grouped into three categories, individual, group, and community/society values (HERI, 1996). The first value is consciousness of self, which addresses self-awareness. The model's creators focused on two areas within this category. First, being self-aware consists of knowing one's values, talents, hopes, and dreams. Second, consciousness of self also includes being aware of one's own behavior and mindful of the implications of certain actions. To lead effectively, one must work well with others and strive towards a common purpose—but to do so one must be self-aware. Actively seeking feedback from group members and reflecting on it represents an important way to develop greater self-awareness (HERI, 1996).

The second value is congruence, which focuses on leaders being authentic, honest, consistent, and genuine with others. Actions should be in line with one's values and beliefs. Developing a clear consciousness of self (the first value) assists in the development of congruence—particularly in examining areas in which it is challenging to align beliefs and actions. Leaders are likely to be more effective when they align themselves with groups sharing a similar cause or purpose (HERI, 1996).

Building on the first two values, the third value is commitment, which refers to taking the time and energy to invest in one's development as a leader. Commitment involves finding one's fit and aligning one's values with the project will drive the desire to lead. Although commitment is an internal trait that cannot be foisted on others, a committed leader can—through passion, intensity, and duration—create a setting that fosters commitment (HERI, 1996).

The fourth of the seven C's (and the first of the “group values”) is collaboration, which corresponds to working together and being mutually accountable. People who can collaborate are able to do so among diverse values, opinions, and identities. Through collaboration, leaders are able to learn more about themselves and others (HERI, 1996).

The fifth value (also corresponding to group development) is common purpose, wherein group members agree to or “buy into” a common vision. The development of a common purpose can occur when a single individual creates the vision and then recruits others who are

able to buy into that vision—or that vision can be created collaboratively. The value of common purpose can bridge individual with societal values since being self-aware, acting within one's values, and having a commitment impact the group's common purpose. Additionally, the common purpose is likely tied into a larger societal issue that the group is eager to address (HERI, 1996).

Controversy with civility, the sixth of the C's, addresses differences in viewpoints, which can be inevitable when working within a group. Important to this value is creating a safe space where people can express their viewpoints and opposing views be resolved through open and honest conversation. These differences can be valuable to the group in learning new ideas, as well as learning to work cooperatively towards common solutions (HERI, 1996).

The seventh value is citizenship, which refers to active engagement in the community and is tied to shared values and beliefs that connect group members. Citizenship is of particular importance in higher education, since most institutions promote civic engagement or social responsibility. This value encompasses external behaviors such as community service, voting in elections, and participating in public discourse. These actions are driven by internal behaviors such as understanding the functions of a democratic government and being determined to actively participate in society. Collectively, the other six values are important to developing citizenship (HERI, 1996). Table 1 provides a summary of the seven essential elements of the Social Change Model.

In summary, the SCM emphasizes the importance of understanding oneself and others in order to facilitate positive social change. Importantly, the model is inclusive because it enhances the development of each participant's leadership qualities regardless of whether they hold leadership positions or not. Being an effective change agent in this model involves demonstrating the seven values (Workman, 2009).

Instruments Measuring Student Involvement and Leadership Outcomes

Two commonly-cited instruments used to measure leadership outcomes associated with involvement are the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (SLPI) and the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS)—the later stems from the Social Change Model of Leadership Development.

Table 1

Definition of Values in the Social Change Model

Level	Value	Definition
INDIVIDUAL	Consciousness of Self	Awareness of the beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate one to take action.
	Congruence	Thinking, feeling, and behaving with consistency, genuineness, authenticity, and honesty towards others actions are consistent with most deeply-held beliefs and convictions.
	Commitment	The psychic energy that motivates the individual to serve and that drives the collective effort implies passion, intensity, and duration, and is directed toward both the group activity as well as its intended outcomes.
GROUP	Collaboration	To work with others in a common effort constitutes the cornerstone value of the group leadership effort because it empowers self and others through trust.
	Common Purpose	To work with shared aims and values facilitates the group's ability to engage in collective analysis of issues at hand and the task to be undertaken.
	Controversy with Civility	Recognizes two fundamental realities of any creative group effort: (a) that differences in viewpoint are inevitable, and (b) that such differences must be aired openly, but with civility. Civility implies respect for others, a willingness to hear each others' views, and the exercise of restraint in criticizing the views and actions of others.
COMMUNITY	Citizenship	The process whereby an individual and the collaborative group become responsibly connected to the community and the society through the leadership development activity. To be a good citizen is to work for positive change on the behalf of others and the community.

Source: Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2010).

The Student Leadership Practices Inventory

The SLPI is a college student leadership measurement instrument that has been utilized in a number of studies to measure leadership outcomes. The inventory is largely based on the work of Kouzes and Posner (2003) who argued that any student can become a leader via “five practices of exemplary leadership”—namely model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. The first, model the way, posits that leaders establish standards of excellence and then model behaviors that advance these standards for others to follow. In inspiring a shared vision, leaders have a clear idea of what an organization can become and are able to inspire others to share those aspirations. A leader who challenges the process will take risks in actively identifying opportunities to improve an organization—as well as learn from mistakes and disappointments. By enabling others to act, a leader involves others in a collaborative effort to bring about change. Such a leader empowers others in the change process so that they too feel capable and confident. Finally, a leader who is capable of encouraging the heart will recognize the contributions of others and celebrate their contributions. In so doing, teamwork is acknowledged and rewarded in a self-sustaining process of organizational change. Kouzes and Posner (2007) argued that the more student leaders, including RAs, engage in these five leadership practices, the more effective they become as leaders. However, it is important to note any student in a non-hierarchical leadership position can employ these five leadership practices (Posner, 2004).

The SLPI approaches leadership as a measurable, learnable, and teachable set of behaviors. It is a 30-item inventory that quantifies the five leadership practices using a five-point scale with 1 representing “seldom engaging in the behavior,” and 5 representing “always (or almost always) engaging in the behavior.” Importantly, the SLPI also allows others (advisors, administrators, instructors) to record their perceptions of the student leaders, thus providing a more accurate assessment of leadership competencies. The scales were created using case studies from managers and students; some studies, however, have demonstrated questionable reliability in the instrument, particularly with the scale associated with challenging the process (Posner, 2004; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

Researchers using a modified version of the SLPI to measure leadership self-efficacy found there were significant differences in scores based on types of organizations in which students were involved. For example, students participating in activist organizations (and to

some extent professional organizations) had higher scores than students from other organizations. Researchers from these studies posited that the characteristics of the type of organization might coincide with the personal leadership practices of the members, which could explain the variations in leadership self-efficacy (Bardou et al., 2003; Posner, 2004). In another study, Adams and Keim (2000) indicated that sorority presidents displayed significantly higher scores in the scale of enable others to act in comparison to their male fraternity president counterparts, which points to potentially important gender differences in leadership practices. In contrast, DiChiara (2009) did not uncover any significant differences in leadership practices between members of both fraternities and sororities as measured by all five scales (DiChiara, 2009). Despite the frequency with which the SLPI is used on college campuses over the last decade or so, available scholarship is lacking in how RAs lead towards positive change and how these skills compare to other student leaders.

The Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

Stemming from her doctoral studies, Tyree (1998) is credited with developing the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), which is an instrument designed to determine the leadership participation of college students. The 103-item tool of the SRLS measures the seven values (the seven “C’s”) associated with student leadership development as determined by the Social Change Model: consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, and citizenship in addition to a scale related to one’s ability to change. Future versions of the instrument did not include the scale for change.

Other researchers have since refined the instrument, and the updated version is known as the SRLS-R2, which is relevant to this investigation. The SRLS-R2 has been used independently (Foreman & Retallick, 2012; Rosch et al., 2011), and as part of the Wabash National Study, a six-year longitudinal study to assess critical factors affecting the outcomes of a liberal arts education (Hu & McCormick, 2012; Martin et al., 2012; Pascarella & Blaich, 2013; Salisbury et al., 2012; Seifert et al., 2008; Rosch & Caza, 2012). Multiple studies demonstrated how liberal arts experiences positively impact growth in SCM values (Pascarella & Blaich, 2013; Salisbury et al., 2012; Seifert et al., 2008). Involvement in fraternities and sororities (Martin et al., 2012; Pascarella & Blaich, 2013), participating in short-term leadership courses (Rosch & Caza, 2012), and working part-time (Salisbury et al., 2012) all lead to higher SCM scores in students. These studies demonstrate the positive effect of involvement on SCM values, which relates to my

research question of whether RA or OSL involvement also leads to socially responsible leadership traits.

The Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership

A significant number of post-2006 leadership studies are based on the Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership (MSL, 2014), which was initially conceived as a way to foster better institutional practices by linking theory, research, and practice related to college student leadership development. The study has had five iterations with data collected in 2006, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012. Subsequent studies are planned for three-year intervals. More than 250 institutions and 300,000 students have participated in the study (MSL, 2014).

In responding to the lack of substantial data against which institutional data could be benchmarked nationally and to peer institutions, the developers of the MSL have used data to explore a diverse array of topics—including diversity education, campus climate, and the relationship between student involvement and leadership development. Importantly, the researchers wanted to discover campus environmental factors that led to the development of leadership traits in students, which is why it is germane to this investigation.

Outcomes

The MSL researchers used the SRLS-R2 instrument to measure the values associated with the SCM. Additionally, they used several other scales including measures for leadership efficacy, social perspective taking, and resiliency (MSL, 2014). Articles published from this data include studies on gender, race, and ethnicity (Dugan et al., 2008; Gerhardt, 2008; Haber & Komives, 2009; Hynes, 2009; Rosch, 2007), outcomes from leadership trainings (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Hogendorp, 2012), outcomes from involvement (Chowdhry, 2010; Dugan, 2008; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Foreman & Retallick, 2012; Hogendorp, 2012; Lee, 2010; Page, 2010; Rosch, 2007; Skendall, 2012), impact from mentoring (Campbell, Smith, Dugan, & Komives, 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Gleason, 2012), and involvement in service, advocacy, or identity-based student groups (Chowdhry, 2010; Page, 2010). These studies focused on outcomes—with the exception of an analysis of gender, race and ethnicity, which will not be discussed herein—and demonstrated differences in SCM values as a result of involvement. Only one study using MSL data directly analyzed RAs and it is reviewed in the section addressing research related to RAs.

MSL data has been used to measure the impact of leadership training programs. As Hogendorp (2012) recently reported, leadership training in general has a positive impact on the development of SCM values. Moreover, Dugan & Komives (2010) noted that short-term and moderate-length leadership programs significantly impacted scores related to the value of collaboration, while long-term programs exerted a negative impact on multiple values. The authors hypothesized that these negative outcomes may be the result of the type of leadership taught in long-term courses (such as business management-oriented leadership) and the types of students taking these courses (i.e., those wishing to advance in hierarchical leadership positions).

Investigations into the impact of involvement based on MSL data have delivered mixed results. For example, students involved in organizations demonstrated growth in some (Dugan & Komives, 2010) or all of the SCM values (Page, 2010; Rosch, 2007)—with variations depending on the type of organization. Involvement in a combination of political and non-political organizations resulted in higher scores than involvement in only political organizations or no involvement at all (Hogendorp, 2012). Studies showed conflicting results related to growth in SCM values in connection with fraternity and sorority involvement (Dugan, 2008; Martin, et al., 2012). Students involved in service, advocacy, or identity-based groups demonstrated higher scores in the scale for change (Chowdry, 2010), while students participating in activism-related groups demonstrated higher scores in citizenship (Page, 2010). Agricultural students participating in extracurricular clubs demonstrated higher scores in the areas of collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility and overall socially responsible leadership (Foreman & Retallick, 2012).

Students who held formal leadership positions also demonstrated growth in socially responsible leadership (Hogendorp, 2012), while those who participated in socio-cultural conversations with peers had higher scores in all seven scales (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Students who had mentors (for the most part faculty members) demonstrated higher levels of socially responsible leadership than their “mentorless” peers; interestingly, student affairs professionals exerted a more significant impact on leadership qualities than other types of mentors (Campbell et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010). Once again, however, even though these studies are relevant in documenting outcomes in SCM values due to various forms of involvement, they did not address outcomes due to serving in the RA role.

Overall, however, leadership training is generally viewed as being effective in enhancing socially responsible leadership (Hogendorp, 2012), with short-term and moderate length trainings positively impacting different SCM values (Dugan & Komives, 2010). The various studies listed in this section all utilized different variables in the MSL data to predict SCM values. A central theme to these studies is that involvement contributes to socially responsible leadership, which reinforces Astin's (1984) theory of involvement. However, notably absent from this literature is an analysis on RAs from the MSL data and comparing them to other forms of involvement, which is the gap this study sought to fill.

Resident Assistants and Other Student Leaders

Student leaders, including resident assistants, have been a part of the collegiate experience for decades (Blimling, 1999). Following World War II, there was a significant increase in the number of college students, which necessitated an increase in on-campus living facilities (Blimling, 1999). Concurrently, there was an increase during this time in the use of peer mentors in the residence halls, commonly referred to as resident assistants (RAs). RAs were trained in understanding psychological issues, such as behaviors related to drug use and recognizing any suicidal tendencies among their residents. Today, the RA position has evolved to reflect five general roles: student, role model, counselor, teacher, and administrator. The position can be demanding with RAs frequently needing to be available at all times during day and night to handle a variety of diverse issues (Blimling, 1999). Given the history and importance of the RA position, it has been the focus of many studies. Largely absent from the literature, however, is an examination of RA leadership abilities—especially in comparison to other student leaders.

Today, the RA position at most college campuses carries diverse responsibilities that require a high level of commitment in terms of both time and effort. The RA is responsible for enhancing each resident student's collegiate experience by providing guidance, support, information, and friendship—all within the context of creating community and responding to daily administrative duties. As a partner in the educational process, the effective RA will help each student to achieve a successful academic and social experience through effective leadership. Given the fact that few faculty or administrators will have the chance to know as many students as well as the RA staff, it is an extremely important role. Indeed, the level of effort and commitment extended by an RA directly impact the quality of life experienced by residential

community members. While their roles may be somewhat diverse from campus to campus, the qualifications to serve as an RA are similar: demonstrated leadership potential; commitment to personal growth; sensitivity and concern for every resident; good academic credentials; and excellent interpersonal, communication, and critical thinking skills (Blimling, 1999).

A great many studies have documented the “RA experience” across various dimensions: effective performance measures (Deluga & Winters, 1990; Denzine & Anderson, 1999; Everett & Loftus, 2011; Gentry, Harris, & Nowicki, 2007; Jaeger & Caison, 2006; Sadouskas, 2011; Wu & Stemler, 2008); cultural issues (Johnson & Kang, 2006; Martin & Blechschmidt, 2014; Watt, Howard-Hamilton, & Fairchild, 2003); impact of mentoring (Early 2014), and the incidence of burnout in relation to leadership capabilities and environments (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989; Fuehrer & McGonagle, 1988; Hardy & Dodd, 1998; Hetherington, Oliver, & Phelps, 1989; Paladino, Murray, Newgent, & Gohn, 2005).

The scholarship on student leadership also includes studies that address other student leaders (OSLs), which are defined herein as students involved in a student organization or who serve in a leadership role other than the RA position—for example as peer helpers, peer educators, and tutors. I specifically highlight outcomes from peer helpers (Diambra, 2003; Diambra & Cole-Zakrzewski, 2002; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) and those who serve in positions of similar levels of responsibility as RAs (Blimling, 1999; Ender & Newton, 2000). The “OSL literature” also includes a number of studies devoted to understanding the varied experiences of these others student leaders who also have the potential to impact college campuses (Forward & Sadler, 2013; Miles, 2010; Peterson & Peterson, 2012; Sessa, Morgan, Kalenderli, & Hammond, 2014).

Resident Assistant Studies

Research targeting the factors that predict RA performance is nuanced and complex. RAs that engaged the most in leadership practices as identified by the Student Leadership Practices Inventory (SLPI) were considered more effective by their supervisors than RAs who were less engaged in these practices (Posner & Brodsky, 1993). However, there are multiple factors affecting performance. For example, emotional intelligence, the ability to monitor and differentiate personal feelings and feelings of others, was found to be a significant predictor of RA performance (Jaeger & Caison, 2006). In contrast, Wu and Stemmer (2008) did not find emotional intelligence to be a significant predictor of RA performance when controlling for

personality and general intelligence traits. The researchers did, however, identify personality traits as a reliable predictor of RA performance (Wu & Stemler, 2008). Several years later, however, Sadouskas (2011) reported that personality traits were not a significant predictor for RA performance; instead, the authors indicated that GPA, class rank, experience as an RA, and number of residents were more highly correlated to RA performance.

As indicated above, multiple factors influence RA job performance—with gender being one of them. Wu and Stemler (2008) reported that female RAs performed significantly better than male RAs—but that race and ethnicity were not significant predictors of performance. In a related study, Sadouskas (2011) indicated that White female RAs in their junior year and possessing a GPA above 3.5 demonstrated the strongest RA performance when considering other demographic variables.

RAs and performance predictors associated with various cultural factors have also been investigated. While RAs at liberal arts colleges demonstrated greater intercultural competence, collectively there were no significant differences in intercultural competence between RAs and other students (Martin & Blechschmidt, 2014). Increased staff diversity also leads to RAs feeling more confident in addressing cultural issues (Johnson & Kang, 2006). In their assessment of multicultural competence among residence advisors, Watt et al. (2003) reported that female RAs were more competent in addressing multicultural issues than male RAs; liberal RAs were more competent than conservative RAs; and RAs from low-income families were found to be more competent than RAs from high-income families.

The physical space of a college's residence hall also impacts performance—as does the academic level of the RA and the degree to which that individual had been mentored. Byrne (1998) reported that RAs working in large residence halls versus medium and small halls, and co-ed halls versus single-gender halls, indicated a stronger loyalty to their institution, which positively impacted performance. However, RAs from medium halls felt they gained more experience from committee and group work, while RAs from small halls believed more strongly that their position led them to be more respectful of others. In terms of academic level, a graduate student supervisor had a greater impact on an RA's institutional loyalty in comparison to undergraduate supervisors, regardless of gender (Byrne, 1998). And not surprisingly, mentoring led to significantly higher leadership capacity in RAs—with mentors from the Student Affairs staff having the strongest positive impact over others types of mentors (Early, 2014).

Burnout

A great many studies have addressed burnout across various dimensions as a result of serving in the RA position. With respect to gender, for example, studies conducted nearly 30 years ago found that female RAs demonstrated greater burnout characteristics than male RAs (Fuehrer & McGonagle, 1988; Hetherington et al., 1989). However, only one decade later, Hardy and Dodd (1998) were unable to identify any significant gender differences with regard to burnout (Hardy & Dodd, 1998). Scholars have investigated the relationship between the type/size of a residence hall and burnout characteristics. For instance, RAs assigned to first-year floors or buildings experienced a lower sense of personal accomplishment than RAs working with predominantly upper-division students, which increased the risk for burnout (Fuehrer & McGonagle, 1988; Hardy & Dodd, 1998). Similarly, RAs in first-year, single-sex buildings experienced higher rates of burnout than RAs from upper-division halls, regardless of the gender mix (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989). A significant, positive relationship was also found between being an RA assigned to a “traditional” residence hall (i.e., typically a facility older than 30 years, featuring small-to-moderate sized bedrooms and shared communal restrooms) and emotional exhaustion. When considering that lower-division students are usually assigned to a college’s traditional residence halls, this finding also coincides with findings that RAs who work with first-year residents are at greater risk for burnout (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989; Hardy & Dodd, 1998; Paladino et al., 2005). The size of the institution also plays a role in the onset of characteristics associated with burnout. A recent study found that RAs at a midsized public institution had greater levels of the burnout characteristic, depersonalization, than RAs at a large public institution. In addition, being a male RA significantly corresponded with depersonalization, as did race in that non-Caucasians experienced higher levels of depersonalization (Paladino et al., 2005).

The numerous studies that have investigated RA performance and burnout show mixed results on how effective personality traits are in predicting performance and reducing the likelihood of burnout (Jaeger & Caison, 2006; Sadouskas, 2011; Wu & Stemler, 2008). Having a strong sense of self-efficacy is a positive indicator for RA performance (Denzine & Anderson, 1999). Sadouskas (2011) targeted demographic traits and found that White female RAs tended to perform the best. Better overall performance as been noted among RAs from rural campuses (Johnson & Kang, 2006), female RAs, and those from low income families (Watt et al., 2003). A

recent study indicated that RAs who serve liberal arts institutions were found to be more skilled at addressing multi-cultural issues (Martin & Blechschmidt, 2014).

These varied studies demonstrate the challenge of predicting likely performance outcomes and burnout risk for RAs due to the myriad and overlapping demographic, institutional, and personality factors that impact the efficacy of RAs—and in particular their capacity for socially responsible leadership. This study was designed to investigate the degree to which RAs engage in socially responsible leadership. Overall, the scholarship in this area is lacking. While a recent study did utilize the SRLS-R2 instrument as a means to measure traits in RAs (Martin & Blechschmidt, 2014), the current investigation is intended to expand this research by (a) using a more substantial sample from a significantly larger national study, (b) by using different analytical techniques, and (c) by comparing RAs against OLSs in order to enhance understanding of socially responsible leadership among resident assistants.

Studies on Other Student Leaders

Much of the literature on other student leaders (OSLs) is tied to the work on leadership development in students, which was previously reviewed in this chapter, and to a significant extent focuses on understanding student leader experiences (e.g., Forward & Sadler, 2013; Miles, 2010; Peterson & Peterson, 2012; Sessa et al., 2014). Admittedly, the term “student leader” is broad and encompasses varied opportunities for developing and displaying leadership skills—including club sports, Greek life, academic-based group projects, community outreach projects, etc. An important subset of the body of work on OSLs targets “peer helpers”—namely students who receive training to provide assistance to their peers (Ender & Newton, 2000). Typical types of peer helpers include peer counselors, peer educators, and tutors. A focus on peer helpers is relevant to this study since students serving in this capacity carry out some of the duties as RAs (Blimling, 1999; Ender & Newton, 2000).

Various types of events were found to be crucial to OSLs in describing their leadership development, with four broad categories emerging: challenging assignments, hardships, events dealing with other people, and miscellaneous events. Among the four, students identified challenging assignments as those that contributed the most to their development as a student leader (Sessa et al., 2014). Student leaders also singled out experiential events involving organizational memberships and jobs as positively impacting their leadership skills and identity development. Moreover, they specifically identified a number of skills gained from these

experiences: flexibility and adaptability, accountability and responsibility, team work, professionalism, understanding diversity, and being able to work within a school environment (Sessa et al., 2014). Other student leaders described growth from their diverse leadership experiences such as an enhanced ability to tackle challenging assignments (Sessa et al., 2014), and a bigger bag of skills from which to draw on to be effective (Sessa et al., 2014; Miles, 2010; Peterson & Peterson, 2012).

Peterson and Peterson (2012) recently surveyed students to determine what managerial skills student leaders needed to possess to successfully lead a student organization. It should be noted that the researchers differentiated management from leadership as being a formal position that wields some sort of power. One can be a manager, but not have leadership skills. Students who were part of a student organization, but held no formal position, identified eight critical traits of successful managerial leaders: (1) the ability to build trust and be credible, (2) the ability to inspire and stimulate enthusiasm, (3) being friendly and considerate, (4) taking initiative in solving problems, (5) delegating authority, (6) communicating within the organization, (7) communicating between organization leaders, members, and external entities, and (8) the ability to build a team. In a similar study involving community college student leaders, Miles (2010) reported that the students identified three recurrent themes from their leadership experiences: pride in their institutions, the idea that developing relationships was important to being a successful leader, and working closely with and being supported by administrators (Miles, 2010).

Although OSLs do not typically have the same breadth of responsibilities as their RA counterparts, they too experience burnout (Forward & Sandler, 2013). For example, role conflict, summarized as student leaders having incongruence with role responsibilities, contributed to burnout in female student leaders at religious institutions; additionally, if these students were deemed to be more competent at communicating, they were actually more likely to experience emotional exhaustion, which is one element of burnout (Forward & Sandler, 2013). Moreover, student leaders who reported experiencing burnout also indicated lower levels of job satisfaction. However, among student expressing strong intrinsic religiosity, the likelihood of burnout was reduced (Forward & Sadler, 2013).

Summary

For students who want to make a difference in college and beyond, involvement in leadership positions in higher education can lead to gains in many areas (Astin, 1993)—and most

importantly the ability to work respectfully, flexibly, and effectively with an increasingly diverse population. While it is acknowledged that leadership qualities and skills are principally learned and developed (rather than mostly innate to the individual), scholars are less certain as to the specific variables and values that result in socially responsible leadership skills among college students.

This chapter reviewed the literature pertaining to the variables central to this study of leadership outcomes from student involvement as RAs and OSLs. An overview of the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development and relevant studies featuring this model were reviewed in relation to the seven C's of the SCM. This chapter also featured a discussion of the Student Leadership Practices Inventory and the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale—two commonly-cited instruments used to measure leadership outcomes associated with student involvement. Studies reviewing the various factors affecting the performance and leadership development of RAs and OSLs were reviewed in this chapter, which also included a brief discussion of burnout. Scholarship regarding leadership development in RAs, particularly socially responsible leadership, is lacking in the literature. This investigation seeks to fill that void.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This quantitative study was designed to explore resident assistants' (RAs') demonstration of socially responsible leadership and whether this cohort evidenced different values (as measured by the Social Change Model) in comparison to other student leaders (OSLs). Thus, the purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which elements of the SCM could predict a student leader serving as an RA or OSL. This study also examined for any differences in SCM scores between RAs and OSLs as evidenced by SCM scores. Examining for differences between the two variables assisted in determining if holding an RA position could be a significant indicator of scoring outcomes, or if it was due to students simply holding any leadership position.

Astin's (1970b, 1991) Input-Environment-Outcome (I-E-O) model served as the conceptual framework for this study. According to this model, student outcomes such as learning or leadership development are a function of both certain inputs (e.g., socioeconomic background, personal traits/talents, or demographic characteristics) and environmental factors (i.e., the diverse experiences that a student will encounter in college). Inputs are considered in conjunction with the environment to measure changes in student development (Astin, 1970b). Institutional environments, in conjunction with student inputs, are presumed to directly and indirectly impact the outcomes (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). The Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development was used as the framework to measure student outcomes. For this study, inputs included pre-college leadership capabilities related to each of the seven C's. Environmental factors encompassed aspects of higher education institutions such as opportunities for student involvement, and the outputs were demonstrated socially responsible leadership values as defined by the SCM—namely, the specific variables under study. The data were derived from the 2012 Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership (MSL) (2014), which included a scale for each of the seven C's of the SCM. A total of 91,559 respondents contributed to this dataset, including 3,211 RAs and 3,118 OSLs.

This study was designed to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do the seven values of the SCM predict whether a student is an RA or an OSL?

2. After controlling for pre-college levels of each of the seven SCM values, are there differences in SCM scores between RAs and OSLs?

This chapter describes the methodology used in this investigation, including sample selection, the dataset, reliability and validity of the dataset, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures.

Sample Selection

Data for the study came from the 2012 iteration for the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL, 2014). The population consisted of 276,853 participants, of which a total of 91,559 students provided useable results (a 33.1% response rate). In sum, 82 higher education institutions of varying size, location, and type (i.e., public and private) were represented in this dataset. For the purposes of this study, institutions were limited to those located in the United States due to the limited number of international institutions represented in the population.

Undergraduate students were eligible to participate if they were enrolled at an institution that opted into the study. Each institution submitted a random sample of 4,000 students—or the entire student body’s data if total enrollment was less than 4,000. Institutional representatives had the option of including a sub-population as an additional comparative sample. For example, administrators wishing to compare students participating in a leadership development workshop at their institution to the random sample from their institution had the option of submitting these students as a comparative sample. Comparative samples were not included in the dataset (MSL, 2014).

Participants in the sample were contacted via e-mail about the survey. Included in the e-mail message was a link to the survey. Prior to beginning the survey, participants were asked to read an Institutional Review Board (IRB) statement and opt to either take the survey or decline the invitation. The MSL research team, as an incentive, offered participants the option to include their name in a drawing for gift cards. Local research teams had the option to include additional incentives for participants in their samples (MSL, 2014).

RAs were selected from respondents who indicated on the survey that they served in this capacity. There are 5,464 RAs in the dataset. The RA sample was reduced to 3,211 once students were removed who were both RAs and OSLs. OSLs were defined as self-identified “peer helpers” due to having similar (but not analogous) levels of responsibility as RAs. Among those who indicated that they were serving as peer helpers, 12,471 were identified as OSLs. The

size of OSL sample was reduced by 75% to obtain an approximately equal sample size as RAs. Having equal size allows for stronger comparisons among groups (Pedhazur & Schmelkin 1991). The OSL sample consisted of 3,118 participants. The demographics for this sample appear in Table 2.

Table 2

Demographics of Respondents

Group	RA (%)	OSL (%)
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	41.8	31.4
Female	57.8	68.4
Transgender	0.4	0.2
<i>Orientation</i>		
Heterosexual	88.9	85.9
Bisexual	2.7	2.5
Gay/lesbian	3.3	2.2
Questioning	1.5	0.9
Rather not say	3.6	2.5
<i>Race/ethnicity</i>		
White/Caucasian	61.2	66.6
Middle Eastern	1.1	0.8
African American/black	6.0	4.2
American Indian/Alaska Native	0.1	0.1
Asian American/Asian	10.0	8.8
Latino/Hispanic	4.8	5.1
Multiracial	1.5	1.0
Not represented	1.9	1.4
<i>GPA</i>		
3.50-4.00	42.6	53.6
3.00-3.49	38.5	30.5
2.50-2.99	15.3	9.1
2.00-2.49	2.7	1.6
1.99 or less	0.6	0.2
No GPA	0.3	0.2

The Research Instrument

The data for this investigation were derived from the MSL. Because the instrument is copyrighted, permission to use the data was obtained through Dr. John Dugan at Loyola University, Chicago. A copy of the electronic communication I received granting me permission to use the data can be found in Appendix A.

The MSL, which is comprised of 42 items, employed a cross-sectional approach requiring participants to reflect on past and current experiences to solicit data. The data included pretest items to measure SCM values prior to college. For example, the congruence pretest item asked respondents their level of agreement regarding whether prior to college their behaviors were aligned with their beliefs and values. Possible responses were on a Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) (MSL, 2011). These pretest items were used as control variables in the analysis employed to answer Research Question Two (RQ2). A more detailed explanation can be found in the “Analysis Procedures” section.

The MSL data also included categorical items related to student involvement. My study used data from respondents that indicated they were RAs or OSLs. The data also included items representing each of the SCM values. For example, related to the SCM value of controversy with civility, respondents were asked to state their level of agreement regarding being open to other’s ideas. Possible responses were on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) (MSL, 2011). These variables were used as predictors in logistic regression for Research Question One (RQ1) and as dependent variables in the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for RQ2. A more detailed explanation can be found in the “Analysis Procedures” section.

Reliability and Validity

The reliability and validity of any instrument are essential elements of any quantitative study. Reliability addresses the precision of the measurements within an instrument (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). For my study, I used the scales that measure the seven C’s of the SCM, which are found in the MSL data. The developers of the MSL conducted reliability testing on the pilot data, the initial iteration of the study, and subsequent iterations of the MSL. Results demonstrated consistent performance levels (MSL, 2012). Cronbach’s alpha scores resulted from using the instrument with specific populations (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). For this

reason, data from the initial 2006 study was used to calculate Cronbach's alpha scores for each major student sub-population, including race, gender, and sexual orientation. The results demonstrated the scales were reliable across all sub-populations and did not differ more than .12 (MSL, 2012).

Cronbach's alpha scores have been reported on a variety of samples from the MSL. Reliability for the original instrument ranged from .92 on citizenship to .71 on controversy for civility, with the other five scales scoring between those values (Dugan & Komives, 2010). As an additional example of the strong reliability of the scales, one study that consisted of 50,378 responses had Cronbach's alpha scores that ranged from .83 for commitment to .76 for controversy with civility (Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008).

Validity is defined as the degree a test measures what it is supposed to measure (Kirk, 2008). During the development of the instrument used in the MSL, Tyree (1998) led a team of doctoral students and faculty to generate scales and items for the seven C's of the SCM in addition to a scale called "change." Tyree examined content validity by using a panel of 21 raters, who reduced the instrument from 291 items to 202. A pilot study was conducted using the 202-item pilot instrument. Principal component analysis was used for factor analysis. A majority of the items loaded onto the first factor for each of the scales. Those items not loading onto the first factor were considered for deletion. In principal component analysis, Eigenvalues greater than 1.0 are considered significant. Each factor produced an Eigenvalue greater than 1.0 (Tyree, 1998).

Cronbach's alpha scores were examined for each scale and tested again by removing items from the factor analysis that did not load on the first factor. In such cases, the Cronbach's alpha scores for each scale were improved when these select items were deleted. The items were reduced to 103, while still maintaining each individual scale, and after an additional pilot study was conducted, strong results were found from two different tests of construct validity (Tyree, 1998). Following Tyree's work, the instrument was reduced to 68 items while retaining the same strong validity. This version of the instrument was used to collect data for the MSL (Dugan & Komives, 2010).

Data Collection Procedures

SCM data for this investigation were collected as part of the administration of the MSL in Spring 2012. Liaisons from each participating institution selected a three-week window in which

their students received the survey via e-mail. Up to four electronic notices were sent to students about the study. When taking the survey, information about confidentiality was presented to the participants and consent was requested. A company specializing in secure survey data collection, which employs a 128-bit encryption, handled the administration of the survey (MSL, 2014).

Virginia Tech's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved this study (Appendix B). Additionally, prior to the MSL data collection process, the principal investigator received IRB approval from his host institution and each participating institution received IRB approval.

I also contacted a staff member associated with the MSL to gain access to the data. Following the data request procedures outlined by the MSL, I explained the nature of my study, the variables in question, and how I intended to use the data. Upon receiving permission, I paid the \$500 fee associated with the procurement of the data and received it electronically. A copy of the communication granting me permission to use the data can be found in Appendix A.

Analysis Procedures

SPSS (Version 22) statistical software was used to analyze the data. I employed a variety of methods to clean the data. First, I ran descriptive statistics for each of variables to ensure that all values fit with the appropriate ranges. For example, for items with a Likert scale of 1-5, all values had to fit within that range. I used box plots and stem and leaf diagrams to assess the normality of the data and help find outliers. Any outliers and inconsistencies found from this process were removed.

Astin (1993) determined that one of the strongest influences on college students is peer interactions (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). As reviewed in Chapter One, the primary roles of the RA position include those of educator/teacher, counselor, and role model (Blimling, 1999)—all of which have the potential to influence peers. RAs are considered one type of peer helper whose responsibilities extend beyond that to include administrative and other duties (Ender & Newton, 2000). For this study, peer helpers are defined as student leaders who are selected to receive training in order to provide some type of educational support to their fellow students—such as peer counselors, peer educators, and tutors (Ender & Newton, 2000). I defined OSLs as peer helpers who did not serve in the RA role to assist in reducing the sample size and to make comparisons across leadership positions of similar scope of responsibility. The dataset includes RAs and peer helpers, indicated by separate variables. Item 17 asked participants if they were

involved in a variety of different student groups with the option of selecting “yes” or “no” to each item. The RA variable consists of participants who selected “yes” to serving as “Resident Assistants.” The OSL variable consists of those who selected “yes” to “Peer Helper (e.g., Academic tutors, peer health educators)” and “no” to “Resident Assistants” to avoid the potential for a participant to be included in both variables. Both research questions required a dummy variable, which I coded as RA (1) or OSL (0).

Each of the seven SCM values has a corresponding pretest item, which was used as control variables in the ANCOVA in RQ2. Pretest items allowed me to control for growth in SCM values prior to college. For example, a pre-test item associated with controversy with civility asked respondents their level of agreement with the idea that prior to college, hearing differences in opinions enriched their thinking. Possible responses ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) on a Likert scale (MSL, 2011). The items associated with the SCM were used to create scales for each of the seven C’s. I created a composite variable for each SCM value by computing the mean score for items related to each respective scale. I then determined the Cronbach’s alpha value for each scale to check reliability.

Logistic regression was used to answer RQ1. This analysis was conducted to understand to what degree the seven scales could predict a dichotomous variable of being an RA or an OSL. Logistic regression allows for the testing of models that predict the odds of a categorical variable. The probability of the dependent variable is converted to log odds by deriving the natural logarithm of the odds. The value is known as the *logit*. This is represented as

$$\log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)$$

where p is the probability of the dependent variable (i.e., serving as an RA or an OSL).

Graphically, this is represented as a sigmoidal curve rather than linear, which is more common in standard regression. When interpreting the coefficients of the independent variables, the coefficients are exponentiated, which creates odds ratios. Odds ratios are used to understand if there is a positive or negative impact on the log odds of the dependent variable. Odds with values greater than one are positive and less than one are negative (Howell, 2010). An odds value greater than one indicated that as a given scale increased, the probability of a student being an RA increased. The opposite occurred if the odds were less than one.

Chi-square tests are used in logistic regression to test for significance of the overall model and Wald's Chi-square test is used for each predictor variable. There are two common tests in logistic regression to measure the variance described by the model known as pseudo R square statistics (Spicer, 2004). Both the Cox & Snell R Square and the Nagelkerke R Square were used in this analysis. Nagelkerke R square has a maximum value of 1.0 allowing it to be interpreted similar to a standard R square value. However, the Cox & Snell R Square cannot reach 1.0 making it more challenging to interpret. The values from these tests describe the amount of variance that is explained in the model. The higher the value, the more variance that is explained. Percent accuracy was also determined, which describes the percentage of the cases the model correctly classified (Howell, 2010).

In logistic regression it is best to have large sample sizes—particularly with many predictor variables. Moreover, it is helpful to have a strong sample size to overcome unequal numbers in categories. While there is no rule about how large the sample must be, having at least 50 cases per independent variable is recommended (Spicer, 2004). This criterion was met by having over 3,000 participants in each sample.

The dependent variable was the RA/OSL dummy variable. The logistic regression equation for RQ1 is: $\text{logit}(\text{RA/OSL dummy} = 1) = \text{constant} + \text{the seven C's} + \text{error}$. The odds ratios were of particular interest for each of the scales. Using that information helped determine to what degree the scales predicted the odds of being an RA or OSL.

ANCOVA was used to answer RQ2. ANCOVA is useful when examining mean differences in a categorical value while controlling for a covariate (Howell, 2010). The RA/OSL dummy variable served as the independent variable, the pretest item served as the covariate, and an SCM scale score served as the dependent variable. An ANCOVA was run for each of the seven SCM values.

There are two assumptions associated with ANCOVA: 1) the independent variable and the covariate are independent of each other, and 2) the homogeneity of regression (i.e., there is no interaction between the independent variable and the covariate) (Howell, 2010). An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test the first assumption and ensure there was no statistical significance in the mean scores of the independent variable and the covariate variable. The homogeneity of regression was tested to check the second assumption. The interaction

between the independent variable and the covariate were examined to ensure that it was also not statistically significant.

An F score determined if the model was significant, while a partial eta squared value determined the percentage of the movement in the SCM score due to the RA/OSL variable explained by the model. When conducting this analysis I used pairwise exclusions to exclude missing values from variables in the analysis. The equation representing the ANCOVA for RQ2 is: $\text{scale (one of the 7 C's)} = \text{constant} + \text{RA/OSL dummy} + \text{pretest for the scale} + \text{error}$.

To examine effect size, I used Cohen's d, which measures the standardized difference between two means (Howell, 2010), which is also referred to as determining the practical significance. Specifically, I was interested in identifying the effect size between RAs and OSLs as they relate to scores for each of the seven C's. Determining effect size is only relevant if there is statistical significance between two means; hence, Cohen's d was only performed when the RA/OSL dummy variable was found to be significant in the ANCOVA. Descriptive statistics were run for RA and OSL mean scores related to each of the seven C's. The mean scores were then used for the Cohen's d analysis to determine if differences between RAs and OSLs were practically significant. A general guide for Cohen's d is .8 = large effect size, .5 = medium effect size, .2 = small effect, and anything smaller is considered trivial (Kirk, 2008).

In conclusion, this study was designed to use SCM values to predict the odds of being an RA or OSL, as well as if RAs differed significantly from OSLs in SCM values. I used data from the 2012 MSL, which provided a robust sample from a diverse array of institutions. Developing a logistic regression equation and employing ANCOVA allowed me to answer the two research questions that guided this investigation.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter summarizes the results of this study, which was designed to determine the degree of resident assistants' engagement in socially responsible leadership as measured by the Social Change Model (SCM). A description of the sample is presented in this chapter, which includes a summary of the demographic characteristics of participants. Chapter Four concludes with the results of the data analysis, which are arranged to answer the two research questions that guided this investigation:

1. To what extent do the seven values of the SCM predict whether a student is an RA or an OSL? (RQ1)
2. After controlling for pre-college levels of each of the seven SCM values, are there differences in SCM scores between RAs and OSLs? (RQ2)

Logistic regression was used to analyze RQ1 to determine if SCM values could be used to predict with any accuracy whether a student leader was an RA or another student leader (OSL). Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was employed to interpret results associated with RQ2 to determine if there were differences in SCM values between RAs and OSLs. Reviewed first are the composite scales, followed by an examination for erroneous responses and outliers. Second, the results of logistic regression analysis are shown to demonstrate the ability of SCM values to predict the RA role. Third, ANCOVA results are presented to show differences in SCM values between RAs and OSLs.

Sample Description

As detailed in the prior chapter, data used in this investigation came from the 2012 iteration for the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL, 2014). The data cohort analyzed herein consisted of responses from of 3,211 student leaders who were exclusively RAs and 3,118 OSLs (Recall that to arrive at an equal sample size, 25% of the total 12,471 OSLs who responded to the survey were selected at random.).

Data Analysis

I began the data analysis by running descriptive statistics and checking for any data errors. For example, all responses fit within the appropriate ranges for each item (e.g., all responses for Likert scale items fit within the range of 1-5). Composite scores were created by summing all items related to an SCM value and then dividing by the number of items. For example, the composite score for controversy with civility was created by adding items SRLS1, SRLS3, SRLS5, SRLS16, and SRLS62 and then dividing the sum by five. Cronbach's alpha scores were determined for each scale and were found to be reliable. Table 3 contains mean and reliability results for the seven core values (scales) of the Social Change Model. Table 4 contains each item for each respective scale in addition to mean scores and variances for RAs and OSLs. Item values ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Table 3

Mean and Reliability for the SCM Scales

Scales	Mean	Cronbach's alpha
Controversy with Civility	4.32	.819
Consciousness of Self	4.20	.819
Collaboration	4.29	.844
Congruence	4.34	.855
Common Purpose	4.31	.852
Commitment	4.48	.856
Citizenship	4.17	.894

Table 4

Scale Descriptives

	RA		OSL	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
<i>Controversy with Civility</i>	4.29	0.538	4.35	0.484
I am open to other's ideas (SRLS1)	4.31	0.663	4.39	0.611
I value differences in others (SRLS3)	4.30	0.688	4.36	0.647
Hearing differences in opinions enriches my thinking (SRLS5)	4.29	0.705	4.36	0.654
I respect opinions other than my own (SRLS16)	4.32	0.696	4.41	0.618
I share my ideas with others (SRLS62)	4.20	0.742	4.24	0.700
<i>Consciousness of Self</i>	4.17	0.567	4.23	0.533
I am able to articulate my priorities (SRLS4)	4.21	0.718	4.31	0.657
I am usually self-confident (SRLS9)	4.05	0.863	4.08	0.852
I know myself pretty well (SRLS22)	4.26	0.739	4.33	0.681
I could describe my personality (SRLS34)	4.21	0.785	4.28	0.739
I can describe how I am similar to other people (SRLS41)	4.15	0.726	4.22	0.696
I am comfortable expressing myself (SRLS59)	4.14	0.820	4.15	0.814
<i>Collaboration</i>	4.25	0.536	4.33	0.485
I am seen as someone who works well with others (SRLS10)	4.28	0.719	4.37	0.664
I can make a difference when I work with others on a task (SRLS29)	4.27	0.677	4.34	0.653
I actively listen to what others have to say (SRLS30)	4.33	0.665	4.40	0.597
I enjoy working with others toward common goals (SRLS42)	4.24	0.724	4.29	0.696
Others would describe me as a cooperative group member (SRLS48)	4.30	0.688	4.41	0.630
My contributions are recognized by others in the groups I belong to (SRLS60)	4.08	0.767	4.18	0.709

	RA		OSL	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
<i>Congruence</i>	4.31	0.565	4.38	0.510
My behaviors are congruent with my beliefs (SRLS13)	4.23	0.715	4.31	0.664
It is important to me to act on my beliefs (SRLS27)	4.29	0.732	4.34	0.677
My actions are consistent with my values (SRLS32)	4.25	0.709	4.31	0.647
Being seen as a person of integrity is important to me (SRLS52)	4.50	0.675	4.58	0.600
My behaviors reflect my beliefs (SRLS63)	4.26	0.716	4.33	0.655
<i>Common Purpose</i>	4.26	0.541	4.35	0.487
I am committed to a collective purpose in those groups to which I belong (SRLS14)	4.20	0.696	4.26	0.657
	4.30	0.644	4.40	0.602
I contribute to the goals of the group (SRLS19)				
I know the purpose of the groups to which I belong (SRLS58)	4.30	0.680	4.38	0.618
I work well when I know the collective values of a group (SRLS61)	4.24	0.701	4.34	0.626
I support what the group is trying to accomplish (SRLS67)	4.28	0.659	4.37	0.612
<i>Commitment</i>	4.43	0.514	4.53	0.446
I am willing to devote the time and energy to things that are important to me (SRLS23)	4.52	0.637	4.62	0.549
I stick with others through difficult times (SRLS24)	4.37	0.711	4.48	0.631
I am focused on my responsibilities (SRLS28)	4.34	0.701	4.47	0.623
I can be counted on to do my part (SRLS51)	4.49	0.632	4.59	0.575
I follow through on my promises (SRLS53)	4.39	0.672	4.51	0.606
I hold myself accountable for responsibilities I agree to (SRLS54)	4.43	0.664	4.56	0.581

	RA		OSL	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
<i>Citizenship</i>	4.15	0.635	4.19	0.605
I believe I have responsibilities to my community (SRLS33)	4.22	0.765	4.26	0.734
I work with others to make my communities better places (SRLS40)	4.08	0.818	4.09	0.774
I participate in activities that contribute to the common good (SRLS47)	4.21	0.732	4.29	0.679
I value opportunities that allow me to contribute to my community (SRLS66)	4.19	0.749	4.24	0.722
It is important to me that I play an active role in my communities (SRLS69)	4.08	0.826	4.08	0.807
I believe my work has a greater purpose for the larger community (SRLS71)	4.11	0.820	4.16	0.776

It should be noted that box plots and stem and leaf diagrams revealed some outliers for each of the scale items. However, responses that were considered outliers were still included as valid responses. For example, with the scale controversy with civility, all values ranged from 1-5. The box plot for that scale showed values ranging from 1.00 to 2.67 as outliers. The deletion of outliers can open the door to further problems, thus the researcher is obligated to make an informed decision on the best practice for outlier data points on a case-by-case basis (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Take, for example, the fact that 1.00 equates to a “strongly disagree” response on a Likert scale. While that value is considered an outlier, it remains a valid response to an item. Thus, removing outliers would remove a majority of the responses that indicated “strongly disagree” or “disagree” resulting in mean scores being artificially higher. Therefore, outliers were left in the dataset for analysis. After examining irregularities in the data, I proceeded with the data analysis.

Logistic Regression Analysis

Logistic regression was used to determine if SCM values could reliably predict a student leader serving as an RA or OSL. The overall model was statistically significant as demonstrated by the Chi-square analysis. However, very little variance was explained by this model with trivial scores for both the Cox and Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square tests. Close to 55% of the cases were correctly predicted by the model. Moreover, common purpose, commitment,

and citizenship were the only independent variables that were statistically significant as determined by Wald’s Chi-square analysis. In fact, these three SCM values were the only ones that were significant in predicting the RA/OSL dichotomous variable. The odds ratio demonstrated that an increase in citizenship resulted in an increased likelihood of being an RA. Conversely, the odds ratio for both common purpose and commitment were below the 1.0 value—meaning that an increase in either of these values decreased the odds of being an RA. The results for logistic regression analysis are presented in Table 4.

Seven Analyses of Covariance (ANCOVA) were used (one for each SCM value) to determine if there were differences in SCM values between RAs and OSLs, while controlling for precollege leadership traits. The covariate for the analysis was the pretest score related to the dependent variable SCM score. The RA/OSL dummy variable served as the independent variable in the models.

Table 5

Logistic Regression Analysis

Independent Variables	RAs/OSLs					
	B	SE	Wald	df	Sig.	Odds
Controversy with Civility	.00	.08	0.00	1	.996	1.00
Consciousness of Self	.10	.07	1.92	1	.166	1.10
Collaboration	-.04	.10	.18	1	.673	.96
Congruence	.13	.08	2.51	1	.113	1.13
Common Purpose	-.31	.10	9.45	1	.002**	.73
Commitment	-.60	.09	42.32	1	.000***	0.55
Citizenship	.28	.07	17.01	1	.000***	1.33
Constant	2.12	.27	63.89	1	.000***	8.35
χ^2		111.91**				
<i>df</i>		7				
<i>Cox & Snell R²</i>		0.018				
<i>Nagelkerke R²</i>		0.025				
<i>% correctly classified</i>		54.900				

Note: The dependent variable in the analysis is coded so that 1 = RA and 0 = OSL.
 p*<.05 *p*<.01 ****p*<.001

ANCOVA Analysis

There are two assumptions associated with ANCOVA that must be taken into consideration. The first is that the independent variable and covariate are independent, and the second pertains to the homogeneity of regression (Howell, 2010). However, these assumptions can be interpreted differently based on the research design (Keppel, 2004). This study used survey data, but as Keppel (2004) noted, results from non-experimental designs can still be accurately interpreted, even when the first assumption is not met. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used for each model to test the first assumption. Each pretest variable and the dummy variable were tested for significance. The goal was to have no significant difference between the two variables. Statistical significance was found for the models involving controversy with civility, commitment, and common purpose, meaning they did not meet the first assumption. Results from ANCOVA models associated with these values were still interpreted despite not meeting the first assumption due to the non-experimental nature of this study.

The second assumption was tested by setting up the ANCOVA analysis, but changing the model to look for interaction effects. The goal was to have no significant interaction between the pretest variable and the dummy variable. All seven models passed this requirement, as evidenced by the fact that no significance was found between the interacting variables.

The dummy variable (RA/OSL) was of primary interest in this analysis due to the fact that its significance determined if the two types of student leaders differed in SCM values. And indeed, there were significant differences between the scores of RAs and OSLs for the SCM values of controversy with civility, consciousness of self, collaboration, congruence, common purpose, and commitment. In other words, citizenship was the only SCM value not to demonstrate significant differences between RAs and OSLs. When combining this information with the mean scores for RAs and OSLs, one can infer that when controlling for the pretest score (covariate), OSLs had significantly higher scores than RAs for six of the SCM values. Table 5 presents the ANCOVA data findings.

Table 6

ANCOVA Summary

Variables	SS	df	MS	F	Partial η^2
<i>Controversy with Civility</i>					
Pre-test	216.29	1	216.29	954.91*	.136
Dummy	2.81	1	2.81	12.39*	.002
Error	1370.80	6052	.23		
Total	114506.44	6055			
<i>Consciousness of Self</i>					
Pre-test	133.78	1	133.78	476.48*	.073
Dummy	5.32	1	5.32	18.95*	.003
Error	1699.25	6052	.28		
Total	108605.14	6055			
<i>Collaboration</i>					
Pre-test	267.61	1	267.61	1232.25*	.169
Dummy	8.80	1	8.80	40.50*	.007
Error	1313.48	6048	.22		
Total	113009.56	6051			
<i>Congruence</i>					
Pre-test	256.05	1	256.05	1035.91*	.146
Dummy	5.72	1	5.72	23.16*	.004
Error	1493.66	6043	.25		
Total	115750.56	6046			
<i>Common Purpose</i>					
Pre-test	238.45	1	238.45	1059.99*	.149
Dummy	7.38	1	7.38	32.80*	.005
Error	1361.45	6052	.23		
Total	113962.12	6055			
<i>Commitment</i>					
Pre-test	229.20	1	229.20	1180.39*	.163
Dummy	10.88	1	10.88	56.02*	.009
Error	1176.13	6057	.19		
Total	123154.28	6060			
<i>Citizenship</i>					
Pre-test	404.49	1	404.49	1272.43*	.174
Dummy	.76	1	.76	2.39	.000
Error	1924.18	6053	.32		
Total	107518.14	6056			

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Effect size was determined by the partial Eta square statistic in addition to Cohen's d for all instances when the dummy variable was significant. Results from the Cohen's d analysis demonstrated a trivial effect size for all models. Similarly, the partial Eta square statistic was also found to be trivial for all seven SCM values, as shown in Table 6. These numbers demonstrate that while the data from the ANCOVA results may be statistically significant, they were not practically significant meaning the magnitude of the difference in socially responsible leadership between RAs and OSLs was minimal.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics and Effect Size

Variables	Mean	SD	Cohen's d
<i>Controversy with Civility</i>			
RA	4.29	0.54	
OSL	4.35	0.48	
Effect Size			0.12
<i>Consciousness of Self</i>			
RA	4.17	0.57	
OSL	4.23	0.53	
Effect Size			0.11
<i>Collaboration</i>			
RA	4.25	0.54	
OSL	4.33	0.49	
Effect Size			0.16
<i>Congruence</i>			
RA	4.31	0.56	
OSL	4.38	0.51	
Effect Size			0.13
<i>Common Purpose</i>			
RA	4.26	0.54	
OSL	4.35	0.49	
Effect Size			0.17
<i>Commitment</i>			
RA	4.43	0.51	
OSL	4.53	0.45	
Effect Size			0.21

In summary, the results revealed minimal difference in socially responsible leadership values between RAs and OSLs. When differences did exist that were statistically significant, OSLs tended to have the higher scores. These findings and their implications for future research, practice, and policy are discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Resident assistants (RAs) serve in ways that align with the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership Development (Blimling, 1999; Cilente, 2009). This study was designed to investigate the degree to which RAs demonstrate socially responsible leadership as defined by the SCM and its seven values: consciousness of self, congruence, controversy with civility, commitment, common purpose, collaboration, and citizenship. Data generated from this quantitative investigation were used to compare RAs with other student leaders (OSLs)—defined herein as peer helpers – to determine if there were differences between these types of leaders with similar levels of responsibility.

Data obtained from the 2012 Multi-institutional Study on Leadership (MSL) were analyzed via logistic regression to answer the research question: *To what extent do the seven values of the SCM predict whether a student is an RA or an OSL?* Additionally, seven Analyses of Covariance (ANCOVA) models were developed, one for each SCM scale, to answer the research question: *After controlling for pre-college levels of each of the seven SCM values, are there differences in SCM scores between RAs and OSLs?* Variables measuring precollege leadership abilities tied to each of the seven SCM values were used as a covariate in each model. Cohen’s d analysis was used to measure practical significance in each model.

The discussion of the results is organized according to the two areas of interest: the degree to which the seven SCM values could predict a student leader serving as an RA or an OSL, and whether there were any differences in socially responsible leadership scores between RAs and OSLs while controlling for precollege levels of leadership.

Values Predicting RA/OSL

Logistic regression was used to understand the probability of the dichotomous RA/OSL variable based on the seven SCM scales. The Chi-square test confirmed that the overall model was significant. However, Wald’s Chi-square test validated that only three SCM variables could be identified as statistically significant predictor variables: common purpose, commitment, and citizenship. Moreover, citizenship was the only variable that could predict a student leader being

an RA (odds of 1.33) rather than an OSL; in contrast, common purpose (odds of .73) and commitment (odds of .55) predicted OSL over RA.

Peer helpers were chosen to serve as the OSL variable because they have similar levels of responsibility as RAs (Blimling, 1999; Ender & Newton, 2000). However, given that these two types of student leaders have similar job responsibilities, the differences between the two groups may have been insufficient to identify significant dissimilarities in socially responsible leadership. This overlap likely explains why only three of the seven SCM values were significant in predicting the type of student leader.

Citizenship—which pertains to leaders serving for a greater societal good, while focusing on appreciating diversity and practicing social justice (Cilente, 2009)—was the sole SCM value that positively predicted RA over OSL as the student leader type. Citizenship, as defined in the SCM, aligns with the educator role of the RA position. Specifically, this student leader is charged with educating students on communal and societal values such as social justice and the benefits of diversity that align with citizenship (Blimling, 1999; Cilente, 2009). Having formal or informal socio-cultural conversations with peers is one of the strongest influences on growth in SCM values (Dugan & Komives, 2010). RAs have the benefit of living among those they serve, aiding them in their development and educating their peers in the societal and communal values associated with citizenship.

RAs who are members of culturally diverse leadership teams tend to have increased confidence in addressing cultural issues (Johnson & Kang, 2006). The value of citizenship may predict RAs over OSLs because (a) RAs are either on more diverse leadership teams than OSLs, or (b) RAs are formally associated with a leadership team; in contrast, an OSL may not be a part of any formal staffing hierarchy and instead serves in an informal leadership role. Either way, promoting values related to diversity and social justice as reflected in the SCM value of citizenship might more strongly predict being RAs due to the more formal nature of their position.

One surprising result from this investigation was that the value of common purpose could predict the OSL role rather than the RA role. Recall that common purpose is a group value in the SCM that entails the leader helping peers focus on a shared goal (Cilente, 2009). Through their work of educating peer residents on societal values—notably the value of diversity as demonstrated in the value of citizenship—it was anticipated that the RAs would inherently be

demonstrating common purpose. Thus, it was perplexing that the SCM value of common purpose was more strongly linked to OSLs. However, the RA role is multi-faceted (Blimling, 1999) and it is possible that students serving in this position emphasize one role over others. Thus, instead of working towards a common purpose, RAs are in fact working towards diverse purposes.

The SCM value of commitment also predicted OSLs over RAs. Commitment is an individual value and refers to an individual's intrinsic desire to lead towards positive social change (Cilente, 2009). Many peer helping roles such as academic tutors and health advocates tend to work in one-on-one settings. While RAs also work one-on-one with the students in their residence halls, they also commonly address groups of students. In fact, Byrne (1998) noted that the larger the residence hall, the better the RAs tended to perform. Byrne (1998) surmised that since larger residence halls have more RAs on staff, it is possible that these RAs perform better in the presence of supportive peer coworkers in comparison to working solo or in small groups. Similarly, Sadouskas (2011) found that the number of residents positively impacts RA performance in that RAs tend to perform better among large groups of people rather than in single student interactions. This finding could be tied to the idea that when RAs work with larger groups of students they are likely to be working "on script"—i.e., supporting the university's mission through "tried-and-true" interactions that the RA is expected to uphold. Thus, the more individualized nature of many of the peer-helper positions may lead to the value of commitment in predicting OSLs rather than RAs.

Long-term leadership programs and trainings appear to negatively influence SCM scores (Dugan & Komives 2010). Long-term leadership programs are defined as participating in a leadership minor or a living/learning program. It may be that long-term leadership programs introduce dissonance in students between their initial views of their leadership abilities and their realization of their actual abilities as made aware through their experiences – further explaining the perceived negative influence on SCM scores. Conversely, taking part in a short-term leadership program (e.g., attending an educational seminar) or moderate length program (e.g., engaging in an academic leadership course) led to increased scores in SCM values. However, the length of trainings for RAs and OSLs was not part of the dataset used in this study. RAs regularly engage in formal training while serving in their positions (Blimling, 1999), most of which would generally be considered short-term or of moderate length. It is possible that the

length of trainings may be of such a duration that instead of being beneficial, a protracted training period might actually negatively affect their growth in some SCM values. Dugan & Komives (2010) also hypothesized that the content of some leadership courses could be related to hierarchical leadership that directly conflicts with the ideals of the SCM, hence negatively impacting students' scores in the study. And indeed, only one value positively predicted the leadership role of RA over OSL.

Differences Between RAs and OSLs

A total of seven ANCOVA models were used to understand differences in SCM values between RAs and OSLs. The RA/OSL dummy variable was statistically significant for six of the seven values, with the model for citizenship being the lone instance where the dummy variable was not significant after controlling for precollege leadership abilities. Interestingly, OSLs had significantly higher scores for the six SCM values of controversy with civility, consciousness of self, collaboration, congruence, common purpose, and commitment. These findings are surprising due to the skills and leadership qualities needed to fulfill the multifaceted RA role. Moreover, as described in Chapter One, the RA roles of educator/teacher, counselor, and role model align with the SCM values of citizenship, controversy with civility, congruence, and collaboration. To fulfill the duties of an RA, one should expect that this individual would excel in modeling these SCM values. Therefore, it is worth examining these SCM values to try to understand why OSLs outperform RAs. It is also worth noting that while the differences were statistically significant, the Cohen's *d* analysis determined a trivial effect size for all six models meaning that pragmatically performance for the two groups were virtually the same.

To start, the model for citizenship did not produce a statistically-significant dummy variable—meaning that there was little difference between RAs and OSLs for this SCM value. Interestingly, as noted earlier, citizenship was the sole SCM value in the logistic regression equation that could predict a student leader serving as an RA over an OSL. And indeed, logistic regression confirmed that this value more closely aligns with the RA role than the OSL. Nonetheless, the ANCOVA model revealed that the two types of student leaders exhibit this value at relatively equal levels.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, RAs have a variety of opportunities to demonstrate citizenship through their role as an educator/teacher. Providing help and guidance to peers is an important aspect of the peer helper role (or the equivalent OSL) (Ender & Newton, 2000). OSLs

may also demonstrate citizenship through interacting with peers across a number of diverse areas. In their roles as tutors, mentors, and health educators, OSLs may encourage their peers to serve their college and wider community to positively influence society. Such informal interactions could explain why OSLs are exhibiting citizenship at similar levels as RAs.

Another finding of note is that OSLs had higher scores than RAs for the SCM value of controversy with civility. While the effect size for this difference in scores is trivial, it is worth exploring why RAs and OSLs may have scored this way. Having diverse viewpoints and openly sharing these differing opinions are important tenets of this SCM value. It would be expected that RAs would demonstrate controversy with civility due to their counselor role, since they are called upon to mediate disagreements among residents while recognizing different perspectives (Blimling, 1999). Given that research shows that female RAs perform better than males (Sadouskas, 2011), the statistical outcome might have been different (i.e., RAs outperforming OSLs) had the sample been limited to females. Moreover, RAs from liberal arts colleges are more adept at addressing diversity and multicultural issues than RAs from other types of institutions (Martin & Blechschmidt, 2014). This finding is likely due to the type of student who would be attracted to such an institution (i.e., those with broad interests in the “liberal” arts and humanities and in the Socratic method of teaching), as well as the fact that such institutions tend to be smaller and more intimate—thereby fostering opportunities for friendships and one-on-one interactions. In other words, RAs perform better at liberal arts institutions because their diversity-promoting roles are likely inherently easier to carry out at such institutions. Being skilled in addressing issues related to diversity could positively affect RAs ability to moderate dialogues around different beliefs and values particularly due to culture.

The next SCM value of interest is congruence, which refers to consistently acting within one’s own value system (Cilente, 2009). As role models, RAs should be displaying congruence with their values as they interact with their residents. However, peer helpers would be equally likely to interact with students as tutors or mentors in ways that are also consistent with their values. For example, peer health educators charged with teaching healthy exercise habits would not be effective if they did not demonstrate those habits personally. They must be congruent in words and actions. However, Posner (2004) found that RAs who performed well (as judged by formal evaluations) exhibited leadership abilities that included modeling behavior for others, which is similar to congruence. While RAs are expected to perform well in this area it is also

understandable that OSLs scored higher than RAs, but with only minimal practical significance in the area of congruence.

An important SCM value for any student leader is collaboration. RAs will typically receive formal training in the area of collaboration since they are charged with interacting with students of varying backgrounds—with the goal of bringing diverse people together to develop a sense of community (Blimling, 1999; Cilente, 2009; Watt et al., 2003). And as noted earlier, RAs who are a part of diverse leadership teams are more confident in addressing multicultural issues (Johnson & Kang, 2006). While RAs are likely achieving this goal, results from this study once again demonstrated that OSLs modeled collaboration to a degree similar to RAs as indicated by the statistical significance yet trivial effect size.

According to Sessa et al. (2014) two desired outcomes from OSL leadership experiences are building teamwork and understanding diversity. Based on results from this study, it is evident that OSLs are gaining leadership skills that align with the value of collaboration, as indicated by scoring higher than RAs, but little practical difference. In contrast, it is possible that the RAs in the current study were not members of diverse management teams, and thus did not have this value inculcated into their own leadership practices – at least not at a level that greatly exceeds the level demonstrated by OSLs. As with the finding related to congruence, more research is needed to account for this outcome.

While the SCM values of commitment, common purpose, and consciousness of self, do not explicitly align with the roles of an RA (Blimling, 1999; Cilente, 2009), it is worth exploring why OSLs scored higher than RAs in these values, but again with a minimal effect size. Commitment refers to one's passion and energy to drive a collective effort (Cilente, 2009). Accountability and responsibility were also leadership skills derived as outcomes of an OSL (Sessa et al., 2014). Being responsible and held accountable for their work (usually unpaid) may have contributed to the reason that OSLs had higher scores in comparison to RAs. This is not to say that RAs function with impunity. Rather, the fact that RAs are usually compensated for their work may attract students who want the benefits of the job (e.g., a paycheck and/or free room/board), but lack the intrinsic motivation evidenced by the OSLs in this study—most of whom (if not all) were not compensated for their service. In addition, OSLs may demonstrate common purpose stronger than RAs because, as previously stated, OSLs have a singular purpose while RAs have multi-faceted roles.

Awareness of one's beliefs and values is important in demonstrating the SCM value of consciousness of self. Similarly, the value of congruence relates to one acting according to one's personal values and beliefs (Cilente, 2009). As already discussed, OSLs demonstrated higher scores in congruence in comparison to RAs. With high congruence scores it is easy to understand why OSLs also evidenced higher scores in consciousness of self. Simply put, OSLs are aware of their values and act within their values. As discussed above, RAs at liberal arts institutions are likely to demonstrate greater intercultural competence than RAs from other types of institutions (Martin & Blechschmidt, 2014)—again, perhaps because their student clientele require less guidance in this area from RAs. Moreover, RAs at these smaller colleges may be able to develop common values more readily. In contrast, it is more challenging to develop common values across a large, decentralized college or university. Thus, it is possible that if this study focused on RAs from larger research institutions, they might outperform their OSL counterparts. Effective mentoring, which is another predictor of an RA who demonstrates socially responsible leadership (Early, 2014), may be more prevalent at a liberal arts college where faculty members teach small classes and are expected to interact with students outside of the classroom. So it is conceivable that RAs from liberal arts colleges would demonstrate higher scores in consciousness of self and congruence.

As previously stated, there is little difference between RAs and OSLs. In addition, as seen in table 4, there is little variance in mean scores across all items for both types of leaders. All items in the instrument are written in a positive direction and it is possible that the results were influenced by respondents' positive response bias – meaning the respondents were drawn to positive responses by the way the items were written. The majority of today's college students are part of the Millennial Generation. In general, this generation of students has received high praise from both parents and primary and secondary school teachers (Howe & Strauss, 2007). It is quite possible that the instrument reinforced positive affirmation the respondents received throughout their upbringing leading to inflated scores and minimal variance. This issue can be corrected by using other sources of data such as observations from both supervisors as well as clients (e.g. residents, recipients of tutoring, etc.).

Relationship of the Findings to Prior Research

Overall, this study produced very little data supporting the notion that RAs are exhibiting SCM values to a greater degree than other student leaders. The most plausible explanation for

these findings is that the RAs who contributed to the 2012 Multi-institutional Study on Leadership may not have been performing at high levels and thus did not fully demonstrate the SCM values to the degree that the OSLs did. Supporting this supposition is the significant body of research on RA burnout (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989; Fuehrer & McGonagle, 1988; Hardy & Dodd, 1998; Hetherington, Oliver, & Phelps, 1989; Paladino, et al., 2005) and its negative impact on performance (Deluga & Winters, 1990; Denzine & Anderson, 1999; Everett & Loftus, 2011; Gentry, et al., 2007; Jaeger & Caison, 2006; Sadouskas, 2011; Wu & Stemler, 2008). Some of the specific factors that typically contribute to RA burnout and poor performance include living in a certain type of residence hall (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989; Fuehrer & McGonagle, 1988; Hardy & Dodd, 1998), working with first-year students (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989; Hardy & Dodd, 1998; Paladino et al., 2005), or attending a midsized (versus large or small) public institution. The RAs represented in this dataset could manifest some or all of these factors, thus impeding their performance. Related to the literature on reduced performance, the RAs in this study may have had low emotional intelligence (Jaeger & Caison, 2006) or certain personality traits that negatively impacted their effectiveness (Wu & Stemler, 2008), were having difficulty balancing academic requirements and their RA responsibilities (Sadouskas, 2011), lived in a certain type of residence hall (Byrne, 1998), or lacked a trusted mentor (Early, 2014)—any or all of which could have taken a toll on their RA abilities. Further research is warranted in this area to determine if in fact there is any relationship between RA performance and SCM values.

It must be noted that Martin and Bleschmidt (2014) recently showed that RAs were found to have significantly higher scores than non-RAs in the value of consciousness of self. However, there were no significant differences in scores for the other SCM values (Martin & Bleschmidt, 2014). In this study, however, consciousness of self was not significant in predicting a student leader serving as either an RA or an OSL; moreover, in contrast to the 2014 investigation, OSLs in the current study demonstrated this value at significantly higher levels than RAs. Thus, overall there is no correlation between the findings of Martin & Bleschmidt (2014) and those reported herein.

The results of this study are perplexing. An analysis of the data failed to produce a strong relationship between high SCM values and fulfilling the roles of the RA position—despite there being an alignment between those seven values and the typical RA job description. With the

exception of one statistically significant SCM value (citizenship), four of the seven SCM values were more closely aligned with being an OSL.

Practice, Policy, and Future Research

While these findings were unexpected, the results of this study can positively influence practice, policy, and future research. The Input-Environment-Outcome (I-E-O) model guided this investigation. Administrators can help shape the collegiate environment to assist in educating students towards desired outcomes. The practical applications of this investigation, related to the “E” in the model, include looking at RA training programs, incorporating aspects of the OSL role into the RA position, and using socio-cultural conversations as a tool for development. With respect to RA training practices, if housing administrators agree that RAs should be demonstrating socially responsible leadership as stated in Chapter One, training can be adjusted to center on the seven SCM values. To best serve the many roles of an RA as outlined by Blimling (1999), which include educator, role model, and counselor, RAs should, in fact, be demonstrating SCM values to a higher degree than they now appear to be. To further that goal, Komives, Wagner, and Associates’ (2009) *Leadership for a Better World* is a helpful resource for engaging students in learning and reflection on the seven values of the SCM; as such, it could be beneficial for administrators in developing new training practices. However, Kouzes and Posner (1995, 2007) emphasized the importance of leadership being modeled by others. Perhaps housing administrators need to “lead by example” and demonstrate the SCM values in order for their RAs to be more engaged in socially responsible leadership.

Administrators can provide opportunities for their student leaders to put the SCM values into practice. As evidenced by this study, both RAs and OSLs had high scores for all seven scales. Providing experiential learning opportunities for these students can help create dissonance and self-awareness. For example, a faculty member can have students serve in a community different than their own. Following this experience, the faculty member can facilitate a reflection that helps these students realize they did not demonstrate the value of citizenship as high as they initially thought prior to the experience. This type of an experience is an opportunity for administrators to demonstrate Sanford’s “Challenge and Support,” where educators introduce dissonance to students while supporting their development (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Peer influence/mentoring is also known to be a strong influence on the development of students (Astin, 1993). Thus, if the inculcation of SCM values is considered to be important for RA training, RAs who actively demonstrate socially responsible leadership should be enlisted to teach their peer RAs by facilitating training sessions focused on the seven SCM values. Moreover, as detailed herein, OSLs were found to demonstrate a majority of the SCM values to a greater degree than RAs. For example, there may be practices used in the training of peer helpers that are inherently more effective in developing their socially responsible leadership abilities; administrators can borrow such practices from those who advise OSLs to incorporate into training RAs. Similarly, the roles descriptions of peer helpers can be examined to see how aspects could be applied to RA mentoring in ways that would increase their development of socially responsible leadership.

Finally, purposefully engaging in socio-cultural conversations represents one of the biggest contributors to developing all seven SCM values (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Incorporating these conversations into RA trainings and discussions of job expectations would be beneficial. Not only would RAs grow in SCM values, but the residents with whom they engage could also see gains in socially responsible leadership due to interacting with their RAs.

The higher education policy implications associated with this investigation pertain to on-campus residency requirements, as well as the official job description for a college's RAs. With respect to the former, the results of this study could negatively impact student residency policies. Many institutions require students to live on-campus for a minimum amount of time. If leadership development is an institutional priority, it can be challenging to justify the benefit of living on-campus when the OSLs with whom both on-campus/off-campus students are engaging are demonstrating SCM values to a greater degree than RAs. Campus administrators can potentially alleviate this issue by funding initiatives (e.g., trainings, courses) that would better develop RAs' socially responsible leadership abilities, which in turn would create a better residential experience for students.

With respect to the hiring and retention of RAs, administrators may decide that they want to hire RAs who are already exhibiting socially responsible leadership at a high level, which could be achieved through a written survey, specifically the instrument used in this investigation, that assesses the degree to which a potential RA has inculcated the SCM values. Since the results of this study indicate that OSLs demonstrated these traits significantly higher than RAs,

policies addressing the qualifications for the RA position can be changed to focus on hiring RAs with strong socially responsible leadership abilities. In support of this goal, administrators should consider rewriting the job description of the RA to better align with SCM values.

Finally, with RA burnout a well-known problem on many college campuses, administrators should investigate if there is a relationship between burnout and lower SCM scores. If such a connection exists, administrators must preemptively address the issue of burnout through self-care measures (e.g., guided meditation, self-reflection exercises, support networks, and recreation opportunities), targeted training programs (e.g., time-management training, staff retreats), and via the implementation of events such as “RA Appreciation Days,” or even limiting an RA’s tenure to a single academic year pending a thorough assessment. In short, RAs must understand that their personal limitations may curtail their ability be “everything to everybody,” and be encouraged to seek help when needed.

Finally, the results of this study point to the need for further investigations to better understand RAs’ engagement with socially responsible leadership. A major limitation of this study was not being able to control for RAs’ years of service in the role. It is conceivable that a more experienced second-year RA would perform well in the role and would exhibit desirable SCM values to a greater degree than those new to the RA role. However, as noted above, experience could also be accompanied by burnout, which would then put that RA’s effectiveness in jeopardy. Thus, a longitudinal study would improve the accuracy of the findings. The MSL data used for this study included items for pre-college leadership traits, which were used as covariates. These items asked participants to reflect on their time before college, thus leaving room for error due to simply recalling past experiences incorrectly. Although more time intensive, a longitudinal study would be helpful in in both gauging participants’ abilities prior to starting college as well as assessing their status on a yearly basis during college. This approach would more accurately measure growth in SCM values throughout a student’s college experience.

Just as importantly, a qualitative study would support quantitative findings by enabling RAs to discuss and expand upon the factors that may have contributed to their level of socially responsible leadership. Focus groups and/or interviews would allow RAs to speak in detail about their experiences, thereby providing more detail and understanding about their leadership abilities. As discussed in the prior paragraph, a longitudinal qualitative study would further

enhance our understanding of how RAs' socially responsible leadership abilities evolve (or don't) over the course of their college experience—as well as the factors that influence that development. One additional component to a future qualitative study would be to include observational data to triangulate results. Supervisors of RAs could be interviewed or asked to submit evaluations of RAs under study to obtain a third-party assessment of the degree to which RAs demonstrate SCM values. Such data would provide a more nuanced picture of if and how RAs are practicing socially responsible leadership.

Given that findings from this study showed that OSLs demonstrated higher scores in SCM values in comparison to RAs, a potential future study could be designed to understand how this cohort developed their leadership abilities—or whether OSLs simply are drawn to leadership positions due to inherent personal qualities (i.e., a nature versus nurture investigation). Thus, a qualitative study (or mixed-methods investigation) would be useful in examining what experiences have led to the development of socially responsible leadership in OSLs.

Limitations of the Study

Findings from this study were based on secondary survey data, which presents some inherent limitations. To reiterate, the dataset analyzed herein came from the 2012 iteration of the Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership (MSL). This dataset consisted of 3,211 RAs and 3,118 OSLs from 82 institutions. Institutions participating in the MSL were asked to supply a simple, random sample of 4,000 undergraduates (or all undergraduates if the institution had a population smaller than 4,000). Specifically, this investigation features four notable limitations that limit its generalizability: (a) the lack of a control variable for years of service, (b) the lack of a comparison among various types of student leaders, (c) the sampling, and (d) a lack knowledge of specific RA job responsibilities at different institutions.

First, as noted previously in this chapter, the lack of a variable detailing years of service for student leaders represents an important limitation of this study. This particular variable would be beneficial when incorporated as an additional covariate in an ANVOCA model. Controlling for years of service could possibly lead to stronger findings related to the SCM values and help determine if serving in the RA or OSL role for a certain period of time affected student scores.

Second, this investigation focused on comparing RAs to OSLs, who were defined as peer leaders since these student leaders have similar levels of responsibility as RAs. A comparison

among different types of student leaders could provide more information regarding RA scores. While OSLs outperformed RAs, the latter could still display the SCM values to a great degree than other forms of student leaders (e.g., fraternity/sorority presidents and student government officers).

Third, despite the fact that the MSL is a robust dataset, it is possible that these samples were not representative of the population from their respective institutions. Gender and race are predictors of RA performance (Sadouskas, 2011; Stemler, 2008; Watt, et al., 2003), and burnout is a known risk factor for the efficacy of RAs (Fuehrer & McGonagle, 1988; Hardy & Dodd, 1998; Hetherington et al., 1989). Thus, if the dataset was not representative of the entire population of each institution the results described herein could be skewed. In other words, it is possible that RAs not included in this dataset do engage in socially responsible leadership to the same degree as the OSLs on their campuses.

Fourth, while the basic roles of an RA are similar from campus to campus (Blimling, 1999), each institution will undoubtedly structure its RA job description to meet its specific needs or population served. Thus, having a better understanding of the priorities of an RA at each campus would have better informed this study. For example, additional survey items could have asked RAs to select job functions that best describe their position (e.g., some campuses may emphasize the educator role over the counselor role). This information would allow for SCM values to be compared among the different RA roles.

Despite these limitations, this study of RAs and the development of socially responsible leadership in college students represents a valuable addition to the literature on leadership development, the roles and responsibilities of the RA, and how higher education administrators can weave SCM values into RA training programs—if, indeed, that is important for a given college or university. This investigation fills a scholarly gap in terms of how the two leadership groups (RAs and OSLs) practice socially responsible leadership, which ultimately provides more information as to the ways that colleges and universities are preparing students to interact with diverse people and be effective in a global society.

In conclusion, the findings of this study were surprising. Overall, OSLs demonstrated growth in socially responsible leadership at similar or greater levels than RAs, despite the fact that the “typical” RA position aligns with many of the SCM values. Thus, more research is needed to gain a better understanding of why RAs performed in the manner in which they did.

Continuing research in this area will inform higher education administrators in developing stronger student leaders and creating better residential environments for students—especially in light of the changing demographics of America’s college and universities.

REFERENCES

- Adams, T. C., & Keim, M. C. (2000). Leadership practices and effectiveness among Greek student leaders. *College Student Journal, 34*(2), 259-271.
- Astin, A. W. (1970a). The methodology of research on college impact, part one. *Sociology of Education, 43*(3), 223-254.
- Astin, A. W. (1970b). The methodology of research on college impact, part two. *Sociology of Education, 43*(4), 437-450.
- Astin, A. W. (1984). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 25*, 297-308.
- Astin, A. W. (1991). *Assessment for excellence: The philosophy and practice of assessment and evaluation in higher education*. New York: McMillan.
- Astin, A. W. (1993). *What matters in college: Four critical years revisited*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Astin, A. W., Keup, J. R., & Lindholm, J. A. (2002). A decade of changes in undergraduate education: A national study of "system transformation." *Review of Higher Education, 25*, 141-162.
- Bardou, K. J., Byrne, S. M., Pasternak, V. S., Perez, N. C., & Rainey, A. L. (2003). Self-efficacy and student leaders: The effects of gender, previous leadership experiences, and institutional environment. *Journal of the Indiana University Student Personnel Association, 33*-48.
- Benedict, J. O., & Mondloch, G. J. (1989). Factors affecting burnout in paraprofessional residence hall staff members. *Journal of College Student Development, 30*, 293-297.
- Blimling, G. (1999). *The Resident Assistant: Applications and Strategies for Working with College Students in Residence Halls*. Debuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company.
- Burkhardt, J.C. & Zimmerman-Oster, K. (1999). How does the richest, most widely-educated nation prepare leaders for its future? *Proteus 16*(2), 9-12.
- Buschlen, E., & Dvorak, R. (2011). The social change model as pedagogy: Examining undergraduate leadership growth. *Journal of Leadership Education, 10*(2), 38-56.
- Byrne, J. (1998). *Outcomes of the Resident Advisor Position* (Unpublished master's thesis). Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA.

- Campbell, C. M., Smith, M., Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2012). Mentors and college student leadership outcomes: The importance of position and process. *The Review of Higher Education, 35*(4), 595-625.
- Chan, R. Y., Brown, G. T. L., & Ludlow, L. H. (2014). What is the purpose of higher education?: Comparing student and institutional perspectives for completing a bachelor's degree. *Academia.edu*. Retrieved from http://www.academia.edu/2626994/What_is_the_purpose_of_higher_education_Comparing_student_and_institutional_perspectives_for_completing_a_bachelors_degree_in_the_21st_century
- Chowdhry, C. (2010). *Undergraduate college students' perceived sense of civic responsibility and social change behaviors in the context of service, advocacy, and identity-based student organizations* (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Maryland, College Park. College Park, MD.
- Cilente, K. (2009). An overview of the social change model of leadership development. In S. R. Komives, W. Wagner & Associates (Eds.), *Leadership for a Better World: Understanding the Social Change Model of Leadership Development* (pp. 43-78). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Cress, C. M., Astin, H. S., Zimmerman-Oster, K., & Burkhardt, J. C. (2001). Developmental outcomes of college students' involvement in leadership activities. *Journal of College Student Development, 42*(1), 15-27.
- Deluga, R. J., & Winters, Jr., J. J. (1990). The impact of role ambiguity and conflict on resident assistants. *Journal of College Student Development, 31*(3), 230-236.
- Denzine, G. M., & Anderson, C. M. (1999). I can do it: Resident assistants' sense of self-efficacy. *Journal of College Student Development, 40*(3), 247-256.
- Diambra, J. F. (2003). Peer advising: An opportunity for leadership and competency development. *Human Service Education, 23*(1), 25-37.
- Diambra, J. F., & Cole-Zakrzewski, K. G. (2002). Peer advising: evaluating effectiveness. *NACADA Journal, 22*(1), 56-64.
- DiChiara, A. N. (2009). Fraternal leadership: Differences in leadership practices among four governing Greek councils. *Oracle: The Research Journal of the Association of Fraternity/Sorority Advisors, 4*(2), 16-29.

- Dugan, J. P. (2006). Involvement and leadership: A descriptive analysis of socially responsible leadership. *Journal of College Student Development, 47*(3), 335-343.
- Dugan, J. P. (2008). Exploring relationships between fraternity and sorority membership and socially responsible leadership. *Oracle: The Research Journal of the Association of Fraternity Advisors, 3*(2), 16-25.
- Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2010). Influences on college students' capacities for socially responsible leadership. *Journal of College Student Development, 51*(5), 525-549.
- Dugan, J. P., Komives, S. R., & Segar, T. C. (2008). College student capacity for socially responsible leadership: Understanding norms and influences of race, gender, and sexual orientation. *NASPA Journal, 45*(4), 475-500.
- Early, S. L. (2014). *An examination of mentoring relationships and leadership capacity in resident assistants* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH.
- Everett, D. D., & Loftus, Z. V. (2011). Resident assistants as rule enforcers versus friends: An exploratory study of role conflict. *Journal of College and University Student Housing, 37*(2), 72-89.
- Foreman, E. A., & Retallick, M. S. (2012). Undergraduate involvement in extracurricular activities and leadership development in college of agriculture and life sciences students. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 53*(3), 111-123.
- Forward, G. L., & Sadler, N. C. (2013). "The harder I work, the behinder I get!" An exploration of communication, religiosity, and burnout in women student leaders at a church-related university. *Journal of Communication & Religion, 36*(1), 127-149.
- Fuehrer, A., & McGonagle, K. (1988). Individual and situational factors as predictors of burnout among resident assistants *Journal of College Student Development 29*, 244-249.
- Gentry, W. A., Harris, L. S., & Nowicki, S. (2007). Recognition of emotion in facial expressions and resident advisor effectiveness. *Journal of College and University Student Housing, 34*(2), 61-69.
- Gerhardt, C. B. (2008). *The social change model of leadership development: Differences in leadership development by levels of student involvement with various university student groups* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND.

- Gleason, M. C. (2012). *Mentoring influence on socially responsible leadership capacity based on institutional Carnegie classification*. Iowa State University, Ames, IA.
- Haber, P., & Komives, S. R. (2009). Predicting the individual values of the social change model of leadership development: The role of college students' leadership and involvement experiences. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 7(3), 133-166.
- Hardy, S. E., & Dodd, D. K. (1998). Burnout among university resident assistants as a function of gender and floor assignment. *Journal of College Student Development*, 39(5), 499-501.
- Hetherington, C., Oliver, M. K., & Phelps, C. E. (1989). Resident assistant burnout: Factors of job and gender. *Journal of College Student Development*, 30, 266-269.
- Higher Education Research Institute. [HERI] (1996). *A social change model of leadership development* (Version III). Los Angeles: University of California Los Angeles, Higher Education Research Institute.
- Hogendorp, M. B. (2012). *The relationship of student involvement in political organizations to self-reported capacities for socially responsible leadership* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana-Champaign, IL.
- Howe, N., & Strauss, W. (2007). *Millennials go to college: [strategies for a new generation on campus : recruiting and admissions, campus life, and the classroom]* (2nd ed.). Great Falls, VA: LifeCourse Associates.
- Howell, D. C. (2010). *Statistical methods for psychology (7th ed.)*. Belmont, CA: Cengage Wadsworth.
- Hu, S., & McCormick, A. (2012). An engagement-based student typology and its relationship to college outcomes. *Research in Higher Education*, 53(7), 738-754.
- Hynes, S. L. D. (2009). *Perceptions of the capacity for change as a component of leadership development as reported by select populations of college students: Implications for college student leadership development* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Texas A&M University, College Station, TX.
- Jaeger, A. J., & Caison, A. L. (2006). Rethinking criteria for training and selection: An inquiry into the emotional intelligence of resident assistants. *NASPA Journal*, 43(1), 144-165.
- Johnson, V. D., & Kang, Y. (2006). Assessing differences in resident assistant confidence in addressing issues of cultural diversity between in three predominantly white universities. *Journal of College and University Student Housing*, 34(1), 31-42.

- Keeling, R. P. (2004). *Learning reconsidered: A campus-wide focus on the student experience*. Washington, D.C.: National Association of Personnel Administrators and the American College Personnel Association.
- Kirk, R. E. (2008). *Statistics: An introduction*. Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Koch, V. A. (2012). *An exploration of current practices in curricular design of resident assistant training programs* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Loyola University, Chicago, IL.
- Komives, S. R., Dugan, J. P., Owen, J. E., Slack, C., Wagner, W., & National Clearinghouse of Leadership Programs (NCLP). (2011). *The handbook for student leadership development*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Komives, W.R., Wagner, W., & Associates (2009). *Leadership for a Better World: Understanding the Social Change Model of Leadership Development*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1995). *The leadership challenge: How to keep getting extraordinary things done in organizations*. San Francisco (CA): Jossey- Bass.
- Kouzes, J.M., & Posner, B.Z. (2003). *Student leadership practices inventory: Facilitator's guide*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2007). *The leadership challenge: How to make extraordinary things happen in organizations* (4th Ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Lee, A. M. (2010). *Examining the socially responsible leadership development outcomes of study abroad experiences for college seniors* (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Maryland, College Park, College Park, MD.
- Martin, G. L., & Blechschmidt, S. (2014). The impact of being a resident assistant on intercultural effectiveness and socially responsible leadership development during college. *The Journal of College and University Student Housing*, 40(2), 30-45.
- Martin, G. L., Hevel, M. S., & Pascarella, E. T. (2012). Do fraternities and sororities enhance socially responsible leadership? *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, 49(3), 267-284.
- Merisotis, J. P. (2013). National goals and policy for higher education. *Speech*. Washington, DC: SHEEO annual meeting. Retrieved from http://www.luminafoundation.org/about_us/president/speeches/2013-07-10.html

- Milem, J. F., & Berger, J. B. (1997). A modified model of college student persistence: Exploring the relationship between Astin's theory of involvement and Tinto's theory of student departure. *Journal of College Student Development*, 38(4), 387-400.
- Miles, J. (2010). Experiences of community college student leaders. *Community College Enterprise*, 16(2), 77-89.
- Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership. [MSL] (2014). *About*. Retrieved from www.leadershipstudy.net
- Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership, [MSL] (2012). *Psychometrics & design considerations*. Retrieved from <https://leadershipstudymsl.files.wordpress.com/2012/03/psychometrics1.pdf>
- Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership. [MSL] (2011). *MSL 2012 codebook* (Unpublished).
- Newman, J. H. (1873). *The idea of a university*. London: Longmans, Green, & Co.
- Page, J. D. (2010). *Activism and leadership development: Examining the relationship between college student activism involvement and socially responsible leadership capacity* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Maryland, College Park, College Park, MD.
- Paladino, D. A., Murray, Jr., T. L., Newgent, R. A., & Gohn, L. A. (2005). Resident assistant burnout: Factors impacting depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and personal accomplishment. *Journal of College and University Student Housing*, 33(2), 18-27.
- Pascarella, E. T., & Blaich, C. (2013). Lessons from the Wabash national study of liberal arts education. *Change*, 45(2), 6-15.
- Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (2005). *How college affects students: A third decade of research* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Pedhazur, E. J., & Schmelkin, L. P. (1991). *Measurement, design, and analysis: An integrated approach*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Peterson, T. O., & Peterson, C. M. (2012). What managerial leadership behaviors do student managerial leaders need? An empirical study of student organizational members. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 11(1), 102-120.
- Pew Research Center (2011). The Purpose of College Education. June 2, 2011. Retrieved from <http://www.pewresearch.org/daily-number/purpose-of-college-education/>

- Posner, B., & Brodsky, B. (1993). The leadership practices of effective RAs. *Journal of College Student Development*, 34(4), 300-304.
- Posner, B. Z. (2004). A leadership development instrument for students: Updated. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45(4), 443-456.
- Pugh, D. (2000). *College student leadership development: Program impact on student participation* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Georgia, Athens, GA.
- Rosch, D. (2007). *Relation of campus involvement to self-reported capacities for socially responsible leadership* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY.
- Rosch, D. M., & Caza, A. (2012). The durable effects of short-term programs on student leadership development. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 11(1), 28-48.
- Sadouskas, A. P. (2011). *Resident advisor selection: Is a broad measure of personality a good predictor of resident advisor performance?* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH.
- Salisbury, M. H., Pascarella, E. T., Padgett, R. D., & Blaich, C. (2012). The effects of work on leadership development among first-year college students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 53(2), 300-324.
- Seifert, T., Goodman, K., Lindsay, N., Jorgensen, J., Wolniak, G., Pascarella, E., & Blaich, C. (2008). The effects of liberal arts experiences on liberal arts outcomes. *Research in Higher Education*, 49(2), 107-125.
- Sessa, V. I., Morgan, B. V., Kalenderli, S., & Hammond, F. E. (2014). Key events in student leaders' lives and lessons learned from them. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 13(2), 1-28.
- Shushok, Jr., F., & Manz, J. W. (2012). Rewinding forward: What James A. Wallace's 1980 Essay "the philosophy of university housing" tells us about where we've been, where we are, and where we're heading. *The Journal of College and University Student Housing*, 38(2), 100-107.
- Skendall, K. C. (2012). *Socially responsible leadership: The role of alternative spring break participation* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Maryland, College Park, College Park, MD.

- Spicer, J. (2004). *Making sense of multivariate data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Tyree, T. M. (1998). *Designing an instrument to measure the socially responsible leadership using the social change model of leadership development* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Maryland, College Park, College Park, MD.
- Wagner, W. (2006). The social change model of leadership: A brief overview. *Concepts & Connections, 15*(1), 9.
- Watt, S. K., Howard-Hamilton, M. F., & Fairchild, E. (2003). An assessment of multicultural competence among residence advisors. *The Journal of College and University Student Housing, 32*(2), 32-37.
- Webber, K. L., Krylow, R. B., & Zhang, Q. (2013). Does involvement really matter? Indicators of college student success and satisfaction. *Journal of College Student Development, 54*(6), 591-611.
- Workman, N. (2009). Change. In S. R. Komives, W. Wagner & Associates (Eds.), *Leadership for a better world: Understanding the Social Change Model of leadership development* (pp. 101-143). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Wu, M. B., & Stemler, S. E. (2008). Resident advisor general intelligence, emotional intelligence, personality dimensions, and internal belief characteristics as predictors of rated performance. *NASPA Journal, 45*(4), 528-559.

Appendix A: Data Approval Letter

Note: This letter came in the form of an e-mail message. Below is a copy of that message.

Dear Jonathan:

Thank you for expressing interest in using data from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. We would like to inform you that your request has been approved. The following steps must be completed in order to fulfill this request:

- For the data access fee, please make a \$500 check payable to Loyola University Chicago. Please do not place any information in the “memo line” of the check.
- Mail check to address below:
John Dugan
Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership
Loyola University Chicago
820 N. Michigan Avenue, Suite 1100
Chicago, IL 60611
- The primary method of data transference is through Dropbox. Please send an email to ‘mslconnection@gmail.com’ to inform us of the email address associated with your Dropbox account.

Please note data will not be shared until the aforementioned items have been addressed and will take approximately two to three weeks for processing. Should you have any questions or concerns, please contact the MSL Project Manager at mslconnection@gmail.com.

Sincerely,
Natasha Turman
MSL Project Manager

Appendix B: IRB Approval Letter



Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
North End Center, Suite 4120, Virginia Tech
300 Turner Street NW
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
540/231-4606 Fax 540/231-0959
email irb@vt.edu
website <http://www.irb.vt.edu>

MEMORANDUM

DATE: December 21, 2015
TO: Steven M Janosik, Jonathan William Manz
FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires July 29, 2020)
PROTOCOL TITLE: Resident Assistants’ Demonstration of Socially Responsible Leadership
IRB NUMBER: 15-1203

Effective December 21, 2015, the Virginia Tech Institution Review Board (IRB) Chair, David M Moore, approved the New Application request for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report within 5 business days to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at:

<http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm>

(Please review responsibilities before the commencement of your research.)

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Approved As: **Exempt, under 45 CFR 46.110 category(ies) 4**
Protocol Approval Date: **December 21, 2015**
Protocol Expiration Date: **N/A**
Continuing Review Due Date*: **N/A**

*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:

Per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals/work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

Invent the Future

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY
An equal opportunity, affirmative action institution

Date*	OSP Number	Sponsor	Grant Comparison Conducted?

* Date this proposal number was compared, assessed as not requiring comparison, or comparison information was revised.

If this IRB protocol is to cover any other grant proposals, please contact the IRB office (irbadmin@vt.edu) immediately.