

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: I THINK I CAN, I THINK I CAN: EXPLORING
PREDICTORS OF COLLEGE STUDENT RESILIENCE
& HOPE

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Education

The purpose of this study was to examine the constructs of (self-rated) resilience and (self-rated) hope in the context of college demographic and environment factors.

Data came from the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) Big Ten Coalition dataset, which included 6,928 total cases. Secondary data analysis was conducted utilizing the MSL in an ex-post facto correlational study design. Descriptive analyses were conducted to provide an overview of the Big Ten Coalition dataset. A series of cross-tabulation analyses and t-tests were utilized to explore the distribution of the dependent variables across select independent variables. This study utilized blocked hierarchical regression to explore the relationship between the outcome variables of resilience and hope and certain college environments such as participation in a living-learning program, research with a faculty member, mentorship and race-related experiences, among others.

Several key findings resulted from this study. There are significant differences in mean resilience and hope for students who participate in certain campus environments and those who do not. The most significant, positive predictors for resilience included students who responded they were Latino/Hispanic, Asian American, age, overall hope, resilience pre-test and leadership efficacy. Significant negative predictors for resilience include gender and long-lasting condition. For hope, gender, pre-test, resilience, leadership efficacy and mentorship by another student emerged as significant positive predictors of the construct. Identifying as Asian American and being a first-generation student were negative predictors. These findings enhance the understanding of college environments and the relationship to students' awareness of their own resilience and hope. The critical finding that leadership efficacy is a positive predictor of both resilience and hope stands to change the pervasive narrative that today's college students cannot cope based on staff and administrators' perspectives but rather whether or not students believe that they can. This study seeks to fill a gap that exists regarding the socio-emotional outcomes of resilience and hope, giving voice to the ways in which student affairs professionals continue to develop their grasp of aspects of wellness in relation to personal, academic and co-curricular experiences for college students.

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STUDENT RESILIENCE & HOPE

by

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DEDICATION

To Eli Richard Tobin. I hope you always *think you can*.

To Pearl Olanoff, my beloved Bubbe, who passed mid-way through this journey.
I dedicate this dissertation in honor of your fearless pursuit of education.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The changing face of diversity on campus is an undeniable fact of colleges and universities today, and the profile of students is anything but homogenous (Nadworny, 2018; Stansbury, 2017; The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2018). Students are increasingly more diverse than ever before: this diverse national student body is composed of more students of color, full-time working students, students from low-income families, commuter students, students balancing parenting responsibilities, and first-generation college students (The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2018). This is a different profile of college students, and today's scholars and practitioners must seek to understand the changing needs of this newly emergent student profile.

Today's college students are undoubtedly influenced by the country's changing economy (Crisp, Reyes, & Doran, 2017; Stansbury, 2017). In this knowledge economy, the cost of not going to college is too steep. Millennial college graduates earn approximately \$17,500 more than their peers without a bachelor's degree (Pew Charitable Trust, 2014). In the context of the increasing need to obtain a college education, more students than ever are financing their own education, requiring students to work while attending classes: a scenario largely impacting student success and retention (Stansbury, 2017).

The notion that obtaining a college degree is a necessity for future upward career attainment and financial security, coupled with the rising costs of higher education, provides context as scholars and practitioners begin to understand the many new faces of the American college student and the various pressures they may encounter. Further, emerging reports claim that this generation of students is facing what is referred to as

“greater levels of stress and psychopathology than any time in the nation’s history,” (Henriques, 2014, para. 1) likely due to the competing priorities many of these students are experiencing (Stansbury, 2017). This seemingly alarmist sentiment arises from what has been largely described as a mental health crisis facing campuses. Over 95% of college counseling center directors indicated that the number of students on their campuses with significant psychological issues is a growing concern (Henriques, 2014). Gray (2015) theorizes that the rise in mental health issues may be in part due to helicopter parenting, noting that the more parents intervene and act on behalf of their student, the less students are able to take responsibility for their lives and choices. The over-parenting associated with helicopter parents has significant adverse effects for students such as increased levels of depression, low self-efficacy, decreased levels of coping, and overall lower life satisfaction (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2013; Shiffrin, Liss, & McLean, 2014; van Ingen et al., 2015). Certainly, increasing diversity, economic influences, parenting styles, and today’s political climate alone could be potential factors in the rise of mental health issues or perceived lack of efficacy of students; yet further investigation of these compounding issues is warranted.

Statement of Problem

In an article entitled *The Coddling of the American Mind*, Lukianoff and Haidt, (2015) cite a number of factors that potentially contribute to a rise in mental health issues on campus, specifically relating to students’ abilities to cope and navigate life on campus. Referring to issues about academic freedom, including trigger warnings and microaggressions in the classroom environment, the authors warn of the slippery slope that results in creating a space that shields students from discomfort. Arguably, student

growth occurs in the context of discomfort, yet if students lack the skills they need to manage these environments, the perception of a fragile generation will only be perpetuated.

Further reflecting this sentiment, another piece claiming the decline of college student resilience was published by Stephen Gray (2015). Here too, Gray observes a rise in the emotional fragility of college students and an increase in mental health related issues as students navigate daily tasks and setbacks. Gray (2015) quotes the head of counseling at a major university who contends that the “lack of resilience is interfering with the academic mission of the University and is thwarting the emotional and personal development of students” (Gray, 2015, para. 4). Gray further provides several observations indicating that students struggle to handle failure, express neediness, and require extensive handholding on both the academic and social fronts. Marano (2015) agrees with the increasing fragility of this generation of students and notes that psychological distress is “rampant” across campuses nationwide.

A narrative has emerged that this perceived fragility is beginning to interfere with students’ ability to thrive in the college environment (Gray, 2015; Marano 2015). This shift towards students’ alleged lack of resilience and abilities to cope seems contrary to foundational student development theories and demonstrates the propensity of administrators to claim a narrative that has not been proven. Fundamentally, college student development theories such as Chickering’s Seven Vectors (1969), Perry’s Theory of Cognitive Development (1970, 1978), and Kohlberg’s Theory of Moral Development (1984) demonstrate movement and growth throughout their models, acknowledging the developmental and progressive nature of the college student experience. Embracing the

developmental and transformational experience of college students grounds the field of student affairs. I assert that these guiding theories were born out of a desire to understand students as they developed socially, emotionally, ethically and morally. The perceived lack of student resilience and coping, coupled with rising mental health concerns require that the scholars and practitioners of our time seek to understand these complex developmental processes that are inextricably woven into the fabric of today's student experience (Johansson & Felten, 2014).

Today's universities are at a crossroads: a changing student population with different needs than prior generations, coupled with what is considered a mental health crisis that is ostensibly related to a lack of ability to cope. It should be noted, however, that this relationship is likely not causal or implied: students who struggle with mental health concerns do not necessarily lack resilience and hope. In this light, Johansson and Felten (2014) share a more promising narrative regarding the uniquely transformative nature of colleges and universities. Learning and development in the college environment is transformational: an ongoing process in which one's actions, behaviors and evolving identities are woven together, ultimately preparing students to thrive and grow beyond college (Johansson & Felten, 2014). Johansson and Felten are describing the very nature of college as a developmental time in which students are learning and growing as they acquire skills required to be successful in their adult life. And yet, in the context of this developmental and transformational space, a deeply troubling narrative has developed within institutions; one of declining student resilience and an inability to cope coupled with a perceived mental health crisis.

The over-emphasis and focus specifically critiquing student resilience places students and practitioners at a disadvantage, as there are other interrelated constructs not included in the scholarly discourse. Rather than embracing a catastrophic narrative of the fragility of college students and the subsequent lack of student resilience, I propose the exploration of two unique and intertwined constructs to further explore and understand how college students today navigate challenges: *resilience* and *hope*.

Resilience is a deeply transformational construct, the understanding of which is further enhanced when examined alongside college student hope. Resilience can be broadly defined as the ability to navigate adversity, both from a daily perspective and more long-term challenges (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Masten, 2000). Resilience is a way by which people enact coping skills. Hope, too, is a transformational developmental process related to the ways in which individuals set and attain goals through exhibiting pathways and agency (Snyder, 2000). I propose that resilience may explain the ability to get back up after experiencing challenges and setbacks, and hope is the ability to see something in the future and move forward towards that goal (Snyder, 1996, 2000). While they can be explored individually, these processes are inextricably linked. Coping is the precursor to resilience; resilience is the precursor to hope; and too little is known about the relationship between these constructs and developmental, educational experiences in the college environment.

Further, given that mental health concerns on campus are on the rise, this study situates resilience and hope as a way to further explore social and emotional (socio-emotional) wellness. The National Wellness Institute (2018) defines wellness as “an active process through which people become aware of, make choices toward, a more

successful existence (para. 5).” I present the constructs of resilience and hope (pathways and agency) in the context of the environmental factors that may influence student socio-emotional wellness as a means by which to fully explore the increasing challenges facing college students today.

What is the current state of these challenges, what do we know, and what can we do? Gray’s perspective may resonate with many senior-level student affairs administrators who employ terms such as “resilience” and “fragile” with little technical understanding of what may in fact be a series of complex developmental processes influenced by many contextual and individual factors. A significant concern in regard to collegiate mental health and wellness rests in the alarming statistics. A survey of the American College Health Association (2018) revealed that thirty percent of students surveyed indicated feeling “overwhelming anxiety” in the last two weeks (p.14). And yet, between one fifth and one half of college students feeling the burden of mental health concerns do not seek treatment (Raghavan, 2014). Given the increasing changes in the profile of today’s college student, we must reassess the ways in which we are meeting these changing needs.

Beyond an attempt to consider the needs of a new and different generation of college students, Gray’s words are chilling, and a true call to action: “[the] lack of resilience is interfering with the academic mission of the University and is thwarting the emotional and personal development of students” (Gray, 2015, para. 4). Whether the students of today are in fact facing new challenges, the increasing concern regarding students’ ability to cope in the face of these challenges warrants further investigation.

Terms such as *resilience*, *coping*, and *fragile* should be more than just the “words du jour” in the discourse (Marano, 2015). These nebulous terms are difficult to pinpoint and understand given that institutions across the country vary in size, demographics, values, programs and services while students themselves experience developmental stages and approach the college experience in such drastically different ways. Colleges and universities must deliver at a minimum, one basic promise: an education. Beyond simply producing educated citizens, higher education should strive to produce resilient individuals who are able to overcome challenges, cope with the setbacks of life and identify broad strategies for success beyond the bounds of campus.

Patry and Ford (2016) explain that it may be necessary to explore resilience as an educational outcome; largely due to the growing role transferable skills play in preparing students for successful and productive lives. Noting that often these skills are not formally taught or assessed, institutions of higher education are expected to provide meaningful learning experiences, which ultimately result in such skills (Patry & Ford, 2016). Further, Goleman (1995) explains transferrable skills as a “set of personality and behavioral attributes—such as resilience, problem solving, teamwork, time management and work ethic—that may be most relevant to success in the workplace (p. 4). Not surprisingly, the concept of transferrable skills such as resilience, coping and goal attainment may also be linked to overall personal and academic success (Majid et al., 2012; Patry & Ford, 2016).

Higher education has a nascent understanding of how current student experiences and environments provide students with these types of skills. Deepening the understanding of how college students develop resilience and the subsequent skills

needed to thrive in college and beyond is necessary to reframe and reclaim the narrative. The emergent conversations around student resilience and coping are largely from a deficit perspective: focusing on what students cannot do or do not possess. Little scholarship exists investigating the ways in which established educational initiatives may be related student resilience, coping and hope.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the constructs of (self-rated) resilience and (self-rated) hope utilizing the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) resilience and hope scales. The findings of this study will enhance understanding of college environments and experiences and the relationship to students' awareness of their own resilience and hope. This study seeks to fill a gap that exists regarding the socio-emotional outcomes of resilience and hope, giving voice to the ways in which student affairs professionals continue to develop their grasp of aspects of wellness in relation to personal, academic and co-curricular experiences for college students.

This research posits that resilience and hope are complex developmental processes that are impacted by personal and environmental factors, before, during, and after college. Perhaps what is most intriguing about the idea of exploring resilience and hope as potential outcomes related to campus environments rests upon the assertion that neither construct is something that one possesses, but rather both evolve by acquiring skills which allow an individual to adapt and grow throughout the course of life (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Snyder et al., 1991, p. 35). By nature, these constructs are transformative, and deeply embedded, integral goals and outcomes of higher education.

While there are many constructs relating to college student success that warrant further research, this study will focus on **resilience** and **hope** to describe a socio-emotional component of wellness. I have selected resilience and hope instead of other similar constructs based on the potential relationship with certain environments that can be enhanced through intentional educational programs and initiatives. Further, there is an undeniable link between resilience and hope as broader components of wellness for college students. I assert that the intentional selection of these two constructs will begin to shift the narrative away from the deficit approach that has become so deeply pervasive in higher education.

Explanation of Terms

For the purposes of this research project, I begin with Masten's (1994) working definition of resilience as "successful adaptation despite risk and adversity" while simultaneously acknowledging that resilience itself likely cannot be captured in one single definition (p. 4). It should be noted that I have included coping in the literature review as a construct closely related to resilience. There is a growing body of literature exploring college student coping and problem solving. I posit that coping may be an important pre-cursor to resilience: a set of skills that students acquire as they navigate adversity or challenge in the context of broader goal attainment. These skills are inextricably linked to resilience, but for the purposes of this study refer broadly to the construct of resilience which is inclusive of coping.

The second component, hope, is a viable construct by which to explore college student goal attainment, motivation, perseverance, and wellness. Undeniably connected to resilience, hope is explained as a "process of thinking about one's goals, along with the

motivation to move forward those goals (agency) and the ways to achieve those goals (pathways)” (Snyder, 1995, p. 355). Further, Snyder (1991) writes that while hope is not an emotion, it is a dynamic cross-situational construct that is correlated with aspects such as self-esteem, problem solving capabilities and perceptions of control. Understanding how students develop pathways and initiate agency to fulfill their goals is an emerging component of student wellness, and largely understudied in higher education.

Research Questions

There are several research questions that guided this study:

- 1) Are there significant differences in resilience among student populations who engage in select campus environments and experiences (such as living-learning programs, leadership organizations, faith-based communities) and those who do not?
- 2) Are there significant differences in hope among student populations who engage in select campus environments and experiences (such as living-learning programs, leadership organizations, faith-based communities) and those who do not?
- 3) When controlling for pre-college variables, demographics and college environment factors, what environments or experiences are significant predictors of resilience? Of hope?

My professional role as a scholar practitioner in an honors living-learning program has strengthened my commitment to creating meaningful developmental experiences for students that seek to engage on a deeper level. I selected a dataset for this study that includes students from my own institution, further connecting me to

the data and ultimately to understanding the academic and co-curricular experiences for students on my campus and beyond.

Significance of Study

The 2017 Report from the Center for Collegiate Mental Health (CCMH) notes that anxiety and depression are the most common presenting concerns for college students today, and these numbers on the rise. According to The American College Health Association (ACHA), since the 1950s the suicide rate among young adults has tripled (Burwell, 2018). Students are self-reporting issues above and beyond anxiety and depression such as academic issues, eating related concerns, substance abuse and family distress. The challenges facing campus Counseling and Mental Health Centers are not theirs alone.

Bowen (2018) argues that reframing the approach of how learning and socio-emotional components of wellness are understood allows access to reach even the most vulnerable students. This ensures that learning, both academic and co-curricular, is self-regulated and promotes future success, especially in the workforce. Bowen's (2018) sentiments are echoed in the constructs of hope and resilience: higher education must cultivate environments in which students believe in their potential despite failure and shift the focus to what students can learn versus what they already know. This shift of mindset in regard to learning and development is transformative, and highlights the need to more fully understand these constructs in the context of the college student experience.

The challenges that college students today are facing can be generalized as stressful experiences that might require an individual to enact coping skills (Snyder & Dinoff, 1999). Though generally associated with negative outcomes, there is a small body

of research exploring the benefits of experiencing stress, particularly in relation to enhanced cognitive performance (Crum, Salovey & Achor, 2013). It may well be that the perceived fragility of college students may be developmental experiences leading to positive development and overall adjustment.

The importance of understanding these constructs is deeply rooted in student development and retention (Hartley, 2013). Furthering the understanding of resilience and hope stands to provide insight into how college students are retained. Explanations of retention and student departure signify that student retention may be result of the nuanced and complex interaction between social and academic integration (Astin et al., 2012; Braxton, 2000; Tinto, 2006). College students bring many different characteristics, goals, motivation and past coping strategies all of which they utilize once in the college environment. During college, students utilize these characteristics and skills to integrate and engage in their personal, social and academic development and environments, ultimately resulting in academic persistence (Hartley, 2013; Tinto, 1993). Constructs such as resilience and hope are largely understudied in relation to theories of student retention, yet the link is becoming clearer.

The link between mental health issues and retention is increasing and strengthening rapidly. According to Kognito (2015), of the students who terminated their college enrollment with less than a 3.0 GPA, nearly 25% screened positive for one or more mental illness. New retention data show that nationally, almost 30% of college students will not return for their sophomore year citing issues of mental health, lack of academic preparedness or performance or personal habits (Stixrud & Johnson, 2018). Exploring resilience and hope as motivational constructs relating to college student

mental health has urgent implications for student retention and overall wellness, particularly for underrepresented students. Alarming, nearly 40% of the students who do not return to college are first-generation college students, and one of the top reasons students cite for dropping out of college is an inability to balance school, jobs, and family commitments (College Statistics, 2014).

Additionally, this study provides a solid foundation upon which practitioners can make the case for resource allocation, program development, institutional values and priorities relating to the student experience with lasting implications for student success beyond their formal post-secondary education. The findings of this study support the notion that resilience and hope are socio-emotional constructs developed in the context of college, enhanced by intentional experiences such as living-learning programs, social fraternities and sororities, research with a faculty member. This research serves as a needs assessment by which administrators can self-audit current programs and services based on examining the relationship between student demographics such as age, race/ethnicity, and first-generation student status and resilience and hope. Rather than accepting the deficit narrative, encouraging institutions to recognize the current ways in which they support student resilience and hope while also identifying areas of opportunity represents a significant contribution to the field. This potential link between resilience and hope in the broader context of the college student experience may have significant implications, not only for scholars and practitioners, but also for undergraduate students as they gain the necessary skills to be successful on campus and in future personal and professional endeavors.

Summary

This study will significantly contribute to growing body of literature that explores college student socio-emotional development, particularly relating to the constructs of resilience and hope. Chapter 1 presented the problem, the research questions, the significance of the study, explanation of terms, and the purpose. Chapter 2 provides an overview of relevant literature relating to the broad construct of coping, resilience, and hope. Beyond an overview of the foundational constructs in this study, Chapter 2 provides a deeper exploration of resilience and hope from a broader academic perspective as well as the ways in which the constructs are explored in the college setting. Chapter 3 explains the methodology and procedures utilized for the study.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review will provide an overview of scholarship exploring the concepts of coping, resilience and hope. I assert that based on the existing literature, coping is a precursor to the development of resilience, and hope emerges as a complementary construct. As such, I will begin this literature review by providing a brief exploration of coping as it is described across the psychology and higher education literature. Then, I will explore the ways that the constructs of resilience and hope are described across disciplines, providing the psychological context and then narrow the focus to the ways the constructs are explained in the higher education context.

Exploration of Coping

Though there are a variety of definitions and ways to classify coping, Snyder and Dinoff (1999) suggest an all-encompassing definition as “a response that diminishes any physical, emotional, or psychological burden, or that which is related to stressful life events and daily hassles.” (p. 5). Coping skills can be further described as the responses that individuals develop to potentially minimize undesirable circumstances (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Snyder & Dinoff, 1999). Coping is a dynamic, cognitive transaction between the individual and the context in which they are operating, resulting in a largely developmental process rather than a trait that one might inherently possess (Lazarus, 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Struthers, Perry, & Menec, 2000). Largely individualistic and personal in nature, early coping research explained that coping is determined by the ways and degree to which individuals perceive threat in a given situation, or the *primary appraisal* (Brougham, Zail, Mendoza, & Miller, 2009; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Lazarus, 1966). After the initial threat analysis, the *secondary*

appraisal relates to the consideration of resources needed to effectively cope with the given situation (Brougham et al., 2009; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Lazarus, 1966).

Finally, coping skills have been largely placed into two categories: problem-focused and emotion-focused strategies (Brougham et al., 2009). Problem-focused coping involves developing strategies that are behavioral in nature, such as developing action and planning, whereas emotion-focused coping is largely related to the ways in which emotions are expressed in the context of a stressful situation (Brougham et al., 2009; Lazarus, 1966; Stanton & Franz, 1999). Beyond the two types of coping identified, coping can also be explained generally as applied problem solving, or “highly complex, often intermittent, goal-directed sequences of cognitive, affective and behavioral operations to adapt to stressful internal and external demands.” (Heppner, 2008, p. 806). This connection to goal-directed cognitive operations creates a link to the construct of hope, which will be explored later in this literature review.

Coping is a series of personal analyses about the problem or stressor in a given context, and the skills necessary to manage the situation. Coping is, in effect, the manifestation of context-dependent problem-solving skills. I posit that coping as a construct may be a precursor to resilience, with significant implications for the ways in which hope as a goal-attainment process develops and manifests in the college student experience. There is a small body of literature situated in the context of higher education specifically examining the ways in which college students cope with stress and adversity.

College Student Coping

There are many sources of stress that college students experience which may require them to develop and utilize coping skills. These stressors can be academic,

financial, family related, racial, social or simply based on the daily hassles experienced throughout life (Brougham et al., 2009). The development of coping strategies has been associated with positive adaptations to environmental and situational stressors, and the acquisition of such skills has been shown to ultimately decrease the effects of stress on overall well-being (Brougham et al., 2009; Lazarus, 1984). Further, these sources of stress can have an adverse effect on college student motivation, with implications for academic performance (Struthers, Perry, & Menec, 2000). It is important to note that stressors associated with college may not necessarily be negative. Stress often precedes growth and change, which are markers in the transition from adolescence to young adulthood (Brougham et al., 2009).

While there is existing scholarship that documents stressors in the college context, there is little examining how students cope with the documented stressors (Brougham et al., 2009). MacNair and Elliott (1992) examined college student perceptions of stress in the context of problem-solving ability. Utilizing a 2x2 repeated-measures MANOVA analysis, the authors determined whether self-perceived effective problem solvers would report less stress and utilize more problem-focused coping versus emotion-focused coping strategies. To examine the relationship between perceived problem-solving ability and the cognitive component of stress and coping, MacNair and Elliott (1992) utilized the Problem Solving Inventory (PSI), an inventory frequently used in coping literature. This study found that the way a person perceives their own problem-solving ability is related to the ways in which they utilize certain coping strategies (MacNair & Elliott, 1992). Essentially, individuals who think they are effective at solving problems are more likely to employ problem-focused coping strategies rather than emotion-focused strategies.

These findings are supported by an earlier study, which utilized a similar methodology and found that problem-solving appraisal was directly related to the enactment of problem-focused coping strategies; the higher the PSI index, the higher the correlation to problem-focused coping (Heppner, Reeder, & Larson, 1983).

Heppner and colleagues have replicated this study for decades, though a significant gap in this literature exists in the diversity of the test subjects as most student samples only include white undergraduates in the United States, resulting in a very narrowly tailored view of coping and problem solving (Heppner et al., 2006). In a more recent study, Heppner et al. (2006) investigated the role of problem solving in terms of adjustment, or coping, in the context of Asian culture and values. The team designed the Collectivistic Coping Styles Inventory (CCS), which was based on collectivism as an overarching Asian cultural value, rather than emphasizing personal autonomy and control (Heppner et al., 2006; Siu & Chang, 2011). Utilizing a sample of 344 Taiwanese college students, the CCS was administered along with a survey of common stressful life events. The study found that in the context of the collectivistic culture of Taiwan, the majority of the students indicated the traumatic life events they experienced in the past 1-6 years interfered with their daily functioning (including mood, relationships, academics) at the time they occurred, but not at the time the survey was administered (Heppner et al., 2006). There were five factors included in the study: *Acceptance, Reframing and Striving, Family Support, Religion-Spirituality, Avoidance and Detachment, and Private Emotional Outlet*. The interfactor correlation coefficients were positive, suggesting that participants found each factor helpful in resolving their trauma (Heppner et al., 2006). The results further indicate that coping factors utilized by the Taiwanese students include

a variation of primary and secondary control, which are optimal for resolving stress. The largest factor (Acceptance, Reframing and Striving) included eleven items and is connected to coping strategies of accepting and enduring traumatic events and searching for meaning and positivity. Heppner et al. (2006) suggest that the coping strategies revealed by the CCS are significantly different than those of Western coping inventories, contributing new scholarship about the ways collectivistic coping styles differ among cultures.

There is scant research that has utilized the CCS since it was designed in 2006. However, to continue towards a global understanding of coping, Siu and Chang (2011) utilized the CCS along with the Depression-Anxiety-Stress-Scale (DASS) with university students in Hong Kong to test the generalizability of the inventory. There were 305 total students in the sample, and the stress-related events were divided into two categories: study and relational problems (Siu & Chang, 2011). To establish the factorial structure of the CCS and DASS items, two confirmatory factor analyses were conducted. For the CSS, 30 coping strategies were grouped into five factors based on their a priori structure. Reliability for each subscale was satisfactory each with a Cronbach's alpha of .85, .88, .84, .66, .75 depending on the subscale. For the DASS, the a priori three-factor structure resulted in satisfactory reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .95, .92 and .93 (Siu & Chang, 2011). This study confirmed that the CCS inventory could be generalized and revealed that the coping strategies of university students in Hong Kong relied heavily upon social support (particularly family) to overcome stressful life events, a theme that is reflected in other Asian cultures. These studies reveal that differences may exist among coping strategies for students in Western and Eastern culture, and provide additional

insight into the understanding of how U.S. college students may navigate stress. Overall, the findings enhance the broad applicability of the CCS measure, thus allowing scholars to more broadly understand and generalize coping beyond Western culture.

Much of the work examining college student coping is specifically in the academic setting. Folkman and Lazarus (1985) and Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994) studied the stages of coping associated with taking an examination: what happens before the exam, while waiting for a grade to be returned, and after the exam. The findings indicated that coping in relation to the examination differed based on the stage, but overall dispositional coping predicted situational coping, though the correlation was low (Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 1994, 1997; Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). A significant limitation in this scholarship is largely related to the measure that was utilized: the COPE scale, which was initially created to measure coping in the general population, not specifically in the context of measuring student coping in the academic setting (Struthers, Perry, & Menec, 2000). To address this limitation, Struthers et al. (2000) examined the relationship between academic stress, coping, motivation, and performance with a scale to specifically measure college student coping. This study predicted that there would be a relationship between stress level and course grade, which would be mediated by an academic coping style. Using the SCOPE scale, an enhanced version of the COPE inventory, and structural equation modeling, the study found that students' academic stress was inversely related to the grade they received in the course (Struthers et al., 2000). Though not focused on the grade received in the context of an academic course, Bamuhair et al. (2015) utilized the COPE scale to examine sources of stress among undergraduate pre-medical students and the subsequent coping strategies employed.

Notably, this study found that female students perceived more stress than their male counterparts, and as such they applied more coping strategies than males (Bamuhair et al., 2015; Brougham et al., 2009).

There have been documented differences in the utilization of coping strategies among males and females and whether they employ problem-focused or emotion-focused strategies. In a 2009 study, Brougham and her team examined sex differences to determine whether college men and women had differing overall stress levels in five main stressor areas (academics, familial relationships, finances, daily hassles, and social relationships). Overall, women reported statistically significant greater stress levels in every area other than academic stress and were more likely to cope by utilizing self-help approaches and self-punishment strategies than their male counterparts (Brougham et al., 2009). This research indicates a potentially significant area of future research about how male and female students assess and approach their stress and the subsequent coping strategies they utilize to navigate such situations.

A significant limitation is the quantitative nature of the literature about coping in the context of the college environment. This is likely due to the accessibility of indicators such as the COPE and Problem Solving Indicators (PSI) and other adaptable measures. An additional significant gap exists in how emotion-focused coping manifests in undergraduate students. Given the prevalence of mental health concerns on campus, an enhanced understanding of emotion-focused coping is necessary. This study will begin to address these gaps by linking the constructs of coping, resilience and hope. The two categories of coping explored in this section: problem-focused and emotion-focused coping begin to weave a thread throughout the three constructs explored in this literature

review and the foundational concepts of this study. How students manage and respond to stress and adversity have significant implications for the ways resilience and hope may manifest. These constructs lay the foundation of a socio-emotional perspective of wellness, which is reinforced by the notion that coping and the subsequent skills developed may become a stabilizing factor in psychosocial adaptation as stressful events occur (Bamuhair et al., 2015).

Exploration of Resilience

The next section of this literature review will explore the construct of resilience. First, I will provide an overview of the many definitions of the construct as explained predominantly by scholars in the field of psychology. Then, I will transition to a broad discussion of resilience as it is described in academic contexts. Finally, I will provide an overview of resilience in the college environment.

Operationalizing the Definition of Resilience

Broadly, the concept of resilience places an emphasis on the individual's ability to overcome predetermined risk or adversity based on life circumstances (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Masten, 2000). Rutter (1985, 1987), who studied psychiatric risk in the late 1980s, described resilience as the difference in an individual's responses to stress and adversity; essentially how some people are more able to overcome setbacks and others are not. Slightly different than an operationalized response to stress, and focused on a different population, Masten and Garmezy (1985) explored the innate qualities that made children resilient. This nuanced difference of a response versus an innate quality illuminates a growing discrepancy in how resilience is defined: is it an immediate response to stress, innately trait-based, or a learned skill based on context?

Masten and Garmezy (1985) identified three factors integral to investigating the development of resilience: a) personality features (autonomy, self-esteem, positive social orientation); b) family cohesion, and warmth and an absence of discord; and c) external support systems that support and encourage positive development and coping. Notably, this perspective focuses on resilience as a developable skill, not something that is innately trait-based. These factors have emerged as protective factors; a concept now widely accepted and included in the general discussion and scholarship about resilience (Johnson, Taasobshirazi, Kestler & Cordova, 2015; Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Masten & Garmezy, 1985; Richardson, 2002).

Silliman and Higgins (1995) explained resilience as more individual trait-based, or a process of “self-righting or growth” (p. 1). Perhaps a more familiar definition to the mainstream understanding of resilience is Wolin and Wolin’s (1993) definition of resilience as an individual’s ability to “bounce back” or endure hardship (p. 5). Both perspectives position resilience as an individual process. Masten (1994) explained resilience as “successful adaptation despite risk and adversity” and a set of phenomena characterized by good outcomes despite risk or threat to adaptation (p. 3). Further, Masten noted that individuals who are considered resilient can be explained in three groups: a) people from high risk populations who perform better than expected; b) people who adapt positively despite stress; and; c) people who recover from traumatic situations (Masten, 1994). Resilience has also been described as a characteristic of someone who overcomes a stressful situation through a set of learned behaviors that evolve from an internal system of beliefs related to coping (Jew, Green, & Kroger, 1999).

Luthar and Cicchetti (2000) build off of this definition to explain resilience and coping as a dynamic process where individuals positively adapt to a situation despite significant adversity or trauma (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Masten, 1994). This two-dimensional process implies exposure to adversity and the resulting positive adjustment outcomes (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). Despite slightly nuanced definitional differences, common themes have emerged over the years as the construct continues to be studied. Though there are many potential ways to explain the construct of resilience, I propose that the notion of positive adaptation despite risk or adversity nestles with the notion of college as a transformative time for students as adaptation implies adjustment and change.

Resilience is the result of a dynamic interaction between internal traits and external influences, which continues to emerge as a common theme among its many explanations (Hines, Merdinger, & Wyatt, 2005; Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000; Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). Luthar and Cicchetti (2000) broadly explain *adversity* as risk and utilize the terms (adversity and risk) interchangeably for explaining negative life situations or circumstances related to adjustment difficulties. The phrase *positive adjustment* explains behaviorally manifested social competence as a result of adversity (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). Notably, this explanation of risk and resilience emphasizes the importance of vulnerability factors and protective factors that might mitigate the risk of an individual's experience. Specifically, *vulnerability factors* are explained as markers that may exacerbate the negative effects of risk and, conversely, *protective factors* modify the effects of risk in a positive direction (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). Further, these vulnerability and protective factors may operate individually or additively within

the levels of influence. Essentially, something that emerges as a protective factor can exist on its own in the context of the development of resilience in light of adversity, or it can be compounded by other vulnerability factors. Both vulnerability and protective factors emerge from multiple levels of influence, namely the community, family and individual levels. This research explains community level influence as what an individual may have been exposed to, such as violence, supportive relationships in a school setting, and potentially traumatic events. The family level of influence relates to factors such as parental discipline, parent support, caregiving style, and relationships with siblings and extended family members (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000).

A summary by McAllister and McKinnon (2009) reinforced Luthar and Cicchetti's work through the exploration of a series of studies between the 1980s and 1990s. These studies examined the responses of young people to adversity and stress. Overall, the findings explained that the ability of some young people to cope was equally related to both internal and external (described as protective and converse) factors impacting the ability to cope in adverse situations. This emerging understanding of resilience and hope is largely based on the individual's environment and context, bringing together the overarching influences of an individual's resources and assets as well as external factors (Bleasdale & Humphreys, n.d.; Tusaie & Dyer, 2004). The next section will frame resilience as it is described broadly from an academic resilience perspective and then from a more focused view of resilience as it is explained in the college student experience, both academic and co-curricular.

Academic Resilience

There is a growing body of work exploring resilience specifically from the academic achievement perspective. As explained earlier, broad discussions of resilience generally include the presence of risk and adaptation despite such risk. The earliest definition of academic resilience described the construct as “the increased likelihood of academic success despite environmental adversities” (Wang, Haertal, & Walberg, 1994, p. 46). This work directly links the construct of academic resilience to motivation, explaining resilient students as those who maintain high motivational achievement and performance despite stressful events that may increase their risk for poor performance (Alva, 1991). Motivation and achievement constructs intersect with academic resilience, despite the dearth of additional scholarship explicitly linking these constructs. Relating to the notion that academic resilience is defined as achievement in the educational setting despite adversity, Catterall (1998) explored the improvement of low achieving students from 8th to 10th grade, which was mitigated by family support and school-based activities and engagement.

Perhaps offering the most concise definition, Cappella and Weinstein (2001) explained academic resilience as a concept that is interchangeable with academic improvement, or the ability to perform better academically. Gayles (2005) drew from these definitions to explain academic resilience as academic achievement when the likelihood of success is rare for students facing similar situations in a given sociocultural context. Gayles noted that resilience, particularly academic resilience, is an outcome.

Within the higher education setting, academic resilience is explained as “the ability to persevere despite negative academic experiences” (Harrington, 2012, p. 154).

Harrington (2012) noted that there are seven elements of academic resilience: self-confidence, risk taking, optimism, willingness to learn from mistakes, concern about internal and external control, a network of trusted people and efforts to build connection. Similarly, Waxman, Padrón, and Gray (2004) explained academic resilience as a characteristic that describes students who succeed at school despite adverse conditions.

Finally, Jowkar, Kojuri, Kohoulat, and Hayat (2014) utilized the Wang et al. (1994) definition of academic resilience, which explains the increased likelihood of success in school despite environmental adversities, but expanded the concept by suggesting that academically resilient students may actually sustain higher levels of achievement motivation and performance in spite of stressful situations. This scholarship again presents academic resilience as a construct linked to personal or individual motivation and how students recover from significant trauma or adversity. Jowkar et al. (2014) noted the impact of protective factors, specifically internal and external protective factors that may affect academic resilience. Defined as environmental social supports that may be available in the home, school, and peer environment, external factors may manifest as caring or supportive relationships, high expectations, and encouragement of engagement in meaningful activities (Jowkar et al., 2014). This body of scholarship specifically explaining academic resilience reveals that the construct is largely environmental, in that it is a result of protective factors that emerge and are subsequently associated with positive outcomes (Jowkar et al., 2014). Overall, resilience in an academic setting is largely explained from the perspective of academic hardships or adversity.

College Student Resilience

There has been little scholarship in the context of higher education exploring resilience, specifically among individuals from underrepresented or disadvantaged backgrounds. Understanding which student population is traditionally recognized as an at-risk population, Morales (2008) explored possible significant differences in the academic resilience process of high achieving, low socioeconomic status students and the role of gender. This research found that female students struggled more to pursue and achieve their collegiate goals, were more motivated by their post-college plans and goals than their male counterparts, and that the gender of their mentor was less significant for females than for males (Morales, 2008). A 2014 study of Black male college students discussed how traits such as grit are responsive to programmatic intervention, suggesting the critical role a mentor can play in academic achievement for underrepresented students such as Black males (Strayhorn, 2014). Although this study focused on grit, the findings may be relevant to enhancing the understanding of college student resilience and its connection to an intervention, or components of an environment in which student learning and growth may occur.

Reynolds (1994) noted that nurturing relationships contribute to an increase in resilience among students who are navigating the college environment with impairments, such as a health issue, learning disability, or physical impairment. Miller's 2002 study explored experiences of resilient college students with learning disabilities through a developmental lens. The qualitative study explored resilience in the context of risk-factor, noting that the resilient individual is not succumbing to the factors that label them "at-

risk,” or someone who achieves through adaptation something that would not have been predicted of them (Fraser, 2002; Miller, 2002).

Hines, Merdinger, and Wyatt’s (2005) exploration of the resilience of foster care children transitioning to college supports the notion of resilience as an adaptive process. Hines et al. utilized the terminology of *high-risk* students as a construct to better understand how foster children develop academic resilience and the role of social supports once they arrive on campus. Students who have just exited the foster care system and enter college are seemingly at high developmental risk for failure at the crossroads of adjusting to college (Hines et al., 2005). Further, assertiveness, persistence and acceptance of help proved to be key factors contributing to an internal locus of control that has been linked to resilience (Hines et al., 2005; Masten & Cicchetti, 2010). Academic resilience for students who are not considered at-risk has not been examined, which limits the generalizability and applicability of this construct for college students. However, the factors contributing to the development of resilience and help-seeking behavior has implications for all students.

There are also several studies bounded in higher education relating to resilience and trauma. Galatzer-Levy, Burton, and Bonnano (2012) explored resilience in terms of adjustment to college, the vulnerability of college students as it relates to coping, and possible exposure to potentially traumatic events (PTEs) in light of the developmental stressors that can occur throughout college. The study resulted in a clear correlation between how students responded to PTEs and their ability to adapt to other stressors. The study noted that almost half of the students surveyed indicated they had experienced a PTE in their first year of college (Galatzer-Levy et al., 2012). This reinforces the

vulnerability of students during this time period and volatile developmental stage. Several factors impacted the students' responses in relation to their ability to cope, most notably social networks. Students involved in a social support system or social network indicated increased stability and coping mechanisms even with the presence of PTEs. Again, this research reinforces the notion that resilience is studied only in the context of students who have experienced trauma, and not as a general trait or learned skill with broad applications and enhancements for college students on the whole, representing a significant gap in the literature. Defining resilience specifically relating to how individuals overcome trauma is markedly less generalizable across the college student population, but it does provide insight into what specific student populations may experience. Scholars are beginning to understand the construct of resilience in many ways, each with different implications for understanding college students.

Banyard and Cantor (2004) considered college students who had experienced trauma a population at risk for a stressful and difficult transition to college. This study again utilized the term *at-risk*, in line with the resilience research explored thus far. Banyard and Cantor (2004) noted that historically, trauma literature comes from a deficit perspective, focusing on depression or suicide as maladaptive symptoms of trauma instead of on factors that contribute to resilience. Looking at the role of intra-personal and inter-personal variables, Banyard and Cantor (2004) were hoping to predict positive adjustment among trauma survivors. Of all the types of trauma accounted for, the findings indicated that only physical abuse was correlated significantly with resilience. Overall, higher levels of resilience were correlated to students' individual meaning making, social support and a higher internal locus of control than external (Banyard & Cantor, 2004). The results of

Banyard and Cantor's study align with prior resilience literature: the higher the levels of cumulative trauma, the more negative the college adjustment. For example, a student trauma survivor with a strong internal locus of control will have higher levels of adaptation or resilience, as they believe they can control what happens to them. Further, this group of resilient students indicated a belief that they could learn something as a result of the trauma (Banyard & Cantor, 2004).

Yet another perspective describes resilience as a developable trait versus an acute response to trauma. This perspective of resilience is largely derived from scholarship explaining the construct *mindset* as it relates to intelligence theory. Specifically relating to resilience, however, Yeager and Dweck (2012) explained that mindset could promote resilience when students believed that their personal characteristics could be developed. This is largely based on students' implicit theories relating to personality and intelligence. Students who possessed a fixed, or entity theory, largely believe that they have an unchangeable amount of something such as intelligence, coping skills, or resilience. Those who have a malleable or incremental theory see these traits as able to be developed over time (Yeager & Dweck, 2012). Arguing that entity and incremental approaches have implications specifically for academic resilience, this perspective indicates that resilience may be a learned skill, potentially developable throughout an individual's lifetime based on one's experiences.

A review of undergraduate college student resilience would be incomplete if the topic of mental health and wellbeing were not included. Themes of mental health and the portrayal of today's college students are rampant in the media whereby authors are specifically calling out the fragility, lack of coping skills and mental health concerns of

today's college students (Gray, 2015; Marano 2015). The next section will provide a brief overview of college student resilience through the lens of mental health and wellness.

Resilience & College Student Mental Health

The discourse surrounding mental health and resilience is rapidly gaining traction. An early study by Hartley (2011) examined the relationships between inter- and intrapersonal resilience and academic persistence utilizing a sample of college students with documented mental health issues. The findings of this study reveal that though there was a relationship between academic persistence and interpersonal resilience, there was no way to test the interaction among resilience, mental health, and GPA over time (Hartley, 2011).

Shortly after his initial study, Hartley (2013) re-examined the relationship between resilience and GPA in attempt to identify resilience as the moderating variable between mental health and the response variables. The study utilized variables of academic achievement such as GPA, high school GPA, SAT or ACT score, an abbreviated Mental Health Inventory scale (MHI-5) and the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC). Only high school GPA accounted for the variance in cumulative university GPA, and none of the resilience variables explained a significant amount of the variance. Additional findings revealed that there was a significant interaction between mental health and intrapersonal resilience, yet no significant interaction between intra- and interpersonal resilience (Hartley, 2013). The results of this study further indicate that resilience is a complex construct to understand, and as such the findings are difficult to generalize. Resilience is the cumulative effect of a variety of relationships across interpersonal and intrapersonal factors, yet students experiencing mental health concerns

may rely most on intrapersonal factors instead of social supports (Hartley, 2013). A limitation of this study is in the nature of the cross-sectional data that was collected only at one time point. As such, it is impossible to examine the impacts of intrapersonal and intrapersonal resilience factors over time.

This scholarship reveals a growing relationship between resilience and mental health. However, in the Undergraduate Resilience Project Research Report, Humphreys (n.d.) expressed concern over the conflation between resilience and mental health. It is possible that a student who is experiencing mental health issues may have developed coping skills to effectively navigate their condition, and therefore has higher resilience, and a person with no presenting mental health issues could simply be low in resilience. As a result, I believe that coping, resilience and hope represent important components of students' broader socio-emotional wellness, but the constructs should not be synonymous with their mental health.

Sociocultural Factors: Coping & Resilience

A review of the intersection of mental health and socio-emotional components of wellness such as coping and resilience would be incomplete without an exploration of how cultural factors influence students' coping and resilience, and the connection with overall socio-emotional wellness.

This section represents an important consideration in light of the changing profile of today's college student. As discussed in Chapter 1, students attending college are more diverse than ever before. For students from these diverse backgrounds who are coming to campus with varying backgrounds and life experiences, cultural factors may influence the development of their coping and resilience (Clauss-Ehlers, 2008).

Given the underrepresented student retention implications and concerns of mental health, wellness, and stress, an exploration of the literature on race-related coping and stressors is warranted. Clauss-Ehlers (2004) coined the term “cultural resilience” to explain the degree to which the strength of an individual’s culture promotes or inhibits the development of coping. While there are several quantitative measures by which to explore resilience, it can be argued that few of the existing measures incorporate culture to understand coping and resilience.

Brown (2008) utilized three measures to explore the resilience of African-American students: the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC), the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MPSS) and the Teenager Experience of Racial Socialization Scale (TERS). The results of the regression analysis revealed that students who scored higher in resilience had significantly more support from their family or another special person in their life, and those who had more family support also had an increased level of cultural pride socialization as compared to their peers (Brown, 2008). Cultural factors supporting African American student resilience have been proven in other studies, though this work specifically examined the significance of racial socialization and social support and how these concepts may serve as protective factors for students. Emergent predictors of resilience such as family support, social support, and the identification of a special person informed the selection of my input variables.

Conversely to the exploration of protective factors, Brown and Tylka (2011) explored racial socialization messages as potential vulnerability factors in the development of African American student resilience. Citing the current status of race

relations in the United States, the authors noted that racism continues to adversely affect African Americans with negative implications for psychological, physiological and behavioral outcomes (Brown & Tylka, 2011; Wong, Eccles, & Sameroff, 2003). This study utilized the Schedule of Racist Events (SRE), a measure that was designed to assess the frequency of racial discrimination or stressful life events culturally specific in nature, along with the TERS inventory and the CD-RISC. The findings indicated that resilience was positively associated with racial socialization on three specific measures: pride reinforcement, coping with antagonism and appreciation of legacy (Brown & Tylka, 2011). Notably, resilience was not related to racial discrimination, but further analysis indicated that racial socialization moderated perceived racial discrimination and resilience, and the interaction accounted for 2% of the variance in resilience beyond the predictor and moderator variables. The results of this study have implications for how scholars conceptualize resilience, particularly for underrepresented students, as some of the racial socializations messages were directly related to resilience. Though this study is correlational in nature and the direct cause of these relationships cannot be confirmed, considering the messages about racial socialization for underrepresented students at Predominantly White Institutions has the potential to impact their development of resilience and the ways in which they cope.

A significant criticism of current research exploring constructs such as resilience is that this discourse does not necessarily account for the toll that societal racism can have on underrepresented students (McGee & Stovall, 2015). A major criticism of the current body of resilience scholarship relates to the “static definitions” of the construct that describe resilience as a way of “bouncing back” (McGee & Stovall, 2015, p. 492).

This perspective places the onus on the individual to act without acknowledging the role that racism plays in Black students' ability to survive and thrive (McGee & Stovall, 2015). As such, the scholars propose a more ecological perspective of the construct. McGee and Stovall (2015) embrace Margaret Beale Spencer's (Spencer, Dupree & Hartmann, 1997) Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST) which explains the interaction between environmental factors, context, and identity development (McGee & Stovall, 2015). This resiliency framework emphasizes the role vulnerability plays for people of color as well as the potential supports.

Exploration of Hope

This review of the literature further emphasizes multiple perspectives on resilience, diverse student populations, and building deeper connections among race, coping and resilience. While the connection between college student coping and resilience may be explicit, how college students develop and actualize hope is emergent, and vital to the understanding of students' socio-emotional wellness.

Psychological Construct of Hope

Snyder (1994, 2000) explained that hope theory originated from his research in the early 1980s as he examined the manifestation of goal attainment. This gave way to the operationalized definition of hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful agency and pathways" (Snyder, 2002, p. 249). There are two main components of hope theory: *pathways* and *agency*. *Pathways* refer to cognitive routes towards goals and are further explained as the actual planning, strategies and routes to meet such goals (Chang, 1998; Feldman, Rand, & Kahle-Wroblewski, 2009; Snyder et al., 1991, 1995, 2000). *Agency* (often referred to as *agency thinking*) relates to

one's willpower and determination to meet goals (Chang, 1998; Snyder, 2000, Snyder et al., 1991). Hope theory explains a goal-directed phenomenon demonstrated in Snyder's (1994) model, positing that *hope = pathways + agency* (Feldman et al., 2009; Snyder, 1995). Feldman et al. (2009) noted that hope is thought- and perception-based, meaning that one can have hope and not necessarily attain any goals. This is reflected in the iterative nature of hope theory in that hope and goal attainment have a reciprocal relationship (Feldman et al., 2009; Snyder, 2002).

To assess measures of hope, Snyder et al. (1991) developed the Hope Scale, a 12-item measure of hope, which includes a 4-item agency subscale and a 4-item pathway subscale. There is limited research utilizing the Hope Scale, largely because of concerns surrounding validity given the self-report nature of the instrument (Edwards, Rand, Lopez, & Snyder, 2007).

Goal Orientation, Attainment & Motivation

I posit that the understanding of hope as a construct is perhaps muddled in the seemingly ambiguous definition and subsequent understanding of the term. Exploring hope as the capacity to generate, initiate, and sustain motivation towards goal attainment requires a brief discussion of motivation theory. This scholarship further links the constructs of resilience and hope by informing how individuals approach goal attainment.

Broadly explained, goal orientation explains why individuals engage in specific behavior, which for the purposes of this dissertation will be defined as academic behavior. Goal orientation was initially described as approaches that either sought to gain positive judgments or avoid negative judgments (entity or performance goals) or goals that focused on increasing general competence and learning (incremental or learning

goals) (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1991). This work gave way to the enhanced study of achievement goal orientation work by Midgley et al. (1998) which related specifically to the goal of developing ability (task goal orientation), the goal to demonstrate ability (ability-approach goal orientation) or the goal to avoid the demonstration of the lack of ability (ability-avoid goal orientation).

Elliot and McGregor (2001) refined these concepts as approach goals and avoidance goals. *Approach goals* involve positive possibilities whereas *avoidance goals* relate to the evasion or prevention of less than ideal outcomes (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). These terms have evolved over the years to more broad concepts of mastery goal orientation and performance-approach goal orientation. The goal of mastery-approach is competence, while performance-approach is to demonstrate competence. It is not unreasonable to tentatively link the constructs of resilience, hope and mastery-approach orientation given that both constructs are related to control, efficacy and self-esteem (Splan, Brooks, Porr & Broyles, 2011).

Self-Efficacy, Self-Regulation & Locus of Control

It is difficult to examine goal orientation without acknowledging the concepts of self-efficacy, self-regulation and locus of control. Explained as an individual's belief in their capacity to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance, this construct is an integral component of resilience and hope (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy specifically relates to hope and goal attainment and given the affective, cognitive and motivational components. Broadly, to be considered self-efficacious, individuals must be able to focus on specific tasks, identify what is necessary to achieve, and be devoted to a largely internal motivation process.

In addition to understanding how self-efficacy can play a role broadly in understanding constructs such as resilience and hope, self-regulation should be considered as well. Bandura (1991) explains self-regulation one of five human capabilities with three sub-functions: self-observation and monitoring, performance judgment and evaluation and self-reaction. Many of the studies discussed previously relate the construct of academic resilience to engagement, which is reflected in Zimmerman's (1998) definition of self-regulation and emphasizes active participation in one's own learning process through metacognitive skills and motivation. Self-efficacy and self-regulation are clearly elements that work together with goal orientation, further intertwining the construct of academic resilience and motivation.

Motivation research explains locus of control as the foundational roots of attribution theory, a body of research that has implications for how failure may intersect with resilience and hope. Rotter (1966) initially described individuals with an internal locus of control as people who believed that success or failure was within their control, which is in direct contrast to those with an external locus of control, who believed in luck, chance, and external influence.

Self-efficacy, self-regulation, and locus of control provide a foundational understanding of motivation, and ultimately provide a foundation upon which to build the relationship between resilience and hope.

College Student Hope

There is a very limited body of literature exploring college student hope, likely because the construct is a small part of motivation and goal attainment theory. A study of college students by Snyder et al. (1991) found a significant association between two

related inventories: the HOPE Scale and the Problem-Solving Index (PSI), though the study was not able to differentiate between problem- and emotion-based coping. A slightly later study (Snyder, 1996) attempted to test for internal validity using factor analysis in relation to the State HOPE scale (SHS), a measure created to examine goal-directed thinking in a given moment. This study revealed convergent validity for the SHS because it correlated positively with scores on the Hope Scale (Edwards et al., 2007; Snyder, 1996).

Challenging these results, Chang (1998) conducted a regression analysis to determine whether hope had any influence on students' academic or interpersonal life satisfaction when controlling for the influences of coping. Overall, high-hope students had higher levels of positive problem-orientation and rational-problem solving styles as compared to their low-hope peers and conversely, low-hope students had higher negative problem orientation- and avoidant-problem-solving styles (Chang, 1998). In this study, hope pathways and agency predicted a significant amount of the variance in that academic and interpersonal life satisfaction independent of the coping measures included in the regression. In this study, hope agency emerged as a significant predictor (Chang, 1998). Due to the cross-sectional nature of the data utilized in Chang's study, cause and effect cannot be determined and as such it is not possible to definitively state that hope predicts life or academic satisfaction or the reverse. This finding reinforced Snyder's (1991, 1995) research that hope was directly related to positive influences on well-being.

Utilizing the Hope Scale in a slightly different manner, Feldman et al., (2009) examined changes in hope over a short period of time in the context of the college environment. Adding the Goal-Specific Hope Scale, the research team attempted to

identify a relationship between hope and specific goals, rather than goals overall. The team assessed students' hope and goals during the first and final weeks of a semester through path analysis (Feldman et al., 2009). The Goal-Specific Hope Scale had Cronbach's alphas that ranged from .74 to .88 over the seven goals and two time points assessed. The limited research specifically examining the construct of hope in the context of higher education points to the overall validity of the construct questioning whether the scales measure what they intended to measure (Edwards et al., 2007; Snyder, 1996). Edwards et al. (2007) noted that the Goal-Specific Hope Scale measures dispositional hope versus hope in the context of a time-specific situation.

Snyder et al. (2002) sought to expand the literature relating hope to academic achievement, specifically throughout the college experience. Utilizing trait hope levels at the beginning of college as well as student GPA at the end of the first and second semesters, cumulative GPA, and graduation status, the study confirmed that students who scored higher on the Hope Scale would have higher GPAs, greater retention, and a higher likelihood of persisting to graduation (Snyder et al., 2002). These findings reinforce the notion that high-hope students are more able to clearly conceptualize their goals as compared to low hope peers who have more ambiguous or uncertain goals (Snyder, 1995). This research reveals the potential implications for student retention and presents a motivation and aspirational view of retention that is largely understudied.

Beyond the implications of hope on GPA or academic achievement, Curry, Snyder, Cook, Ruby, and Rehm (1997) examined how hopeful college athletes were as compared to their non-athlete peers. Assuming that athletes would be more goal oriented in their approach to life and their sport, the authors posited they would have higher levels

of dispositional hope. Additionally, the team wanted to correlate higher hope among the athletes with increased classroom achievement. The findings revealed that hope significantly predicted semester GPA among college athletes, but not beyond measures of self-worth or cumulative GPA (Curry et al., 1997).

There is a dearth of research utilizing the construct of hope as a predictor of any outcome other than academic achievement or GPA. Tullier (n.d.) explored students' reflections on self-rated hope in high school and hope in college by comparing students who did and did not report a psychological or psychiatric condition. This study utilized the Big Ten dataset of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) administered in 2018. For both groups of students: those with psychiatric or psychological conditions and those without; hope (pathways) scores increased in college. Notably, hope (agency) decreased for students in college who responded indicating they had a psychological or psychiatric condition whereas their peers without such conditions had no change (Tullier, n.d.). Though unsupported in additional scholarship, this finding is notable, signifying the relationship between resilience, hope, and mental health.

There is a significant gap in the literature relating to the exploration of hope in the college student context. While some studies do explore the influence on hope in the academic achievement context, there is virtually no research correlating the environmental factors that influence student hope. Given that hope is largely explained as a form of goal-attainment, this concept warrants additional research.

Situating Socio-Emotional Wellness in the College Environment

Perhaps what is most unique about the emerging relationship among coping, resilience, and hope is that none of these constructs are something that one possesses;

rather, all involve developing a set of skills that allow individuals to adapt and grow throughout the course of life (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Snyder & Dinoff, 1999). Developing resilience and hope are not end-state finite destinations, but ever-evolving developmental processes influenced at a variety of time points by and through an individual's environment. Certain campus environments, both academic and co-curricular may create a form of social support, which can be vital to coping, and by association, to the development of resilience and hope among students (Baumeister, Faber, & Wallace, 1999).

Throughout the college experience many academic and co-curricular experiences place students in environments in which they must take risks, academically and socially. Through the protective factors of self, family, and community, this risk is mitigated, and students develop socially, emotionally, and academically (Henderson & Milstein, 2003, Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). This growth almost requires that students develop resilience and hope to help them cope with the adversity associated with what may be experienced during the college experience. Currently, there is no research explicitly linking the concepts of resilience and hope.

Additionally, certain academic and social undergraduate environments may well be able to be classified as interventions as they relate to the development of resilience (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). As per Luthar and Cicchetti's (2000) guidelines, such interventions must target specific vulnerability and protective processes, have a strong developmental focus, be grounded in contextual relevance and, be able to be effectively assessed. Potentially connected to the protective factors of self and community, further exploring college student resilience and hope may target the specific role that community

plays as a protective process in developing these constructs. Whether serving in a leadership role; engaging in a learning community; participating in study abroad; engaging in a faith-based community, a first-year mentoring cohort, or other intentionally designed experiences; the community-as-protective-factor cannot be understated. I believe that intentional curricular and co-curricular experiences as interventions may deepen learning for students and simultaneously promote their resilience and hope.

Resilience & Hope: Through the Lens of a Conceptual Framework

In this section I explore resilience and hope through the lens of Luthar and Cicchetti's (2000) framework to synthesize and determine if these constructs may in fact be interrelated. More specifically, I will explore how college experiences and environments may evolve as individual protective factors as described through Luthar and Cicchetti's (2000) framework.

Though this framework specifically describes the context of resilience, given the interrelated nature of the constructs as explored in this chapter, I posit that the model is applicable to hope and proceed with the understanding that both constructs will be applied and explored through this framework. Describing resilience as a "dynamic process," Luthar and Cicchetti (2000) stated that individuals can positively adapt to a situation despite significant adversity or trauma (para. 1). This two-dimensional process implies exposure to adversity and the resulting positive adjustment outcomes (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). Luthar and Cicchetti explained adversity as risk and utilized the terms interchangeably to explain negative life situations or circumstances that are related to adjustment challenges. This explanation of risk and subsequent adaptation is reflected in the how hope has been described as a manifestation of problem-solving and goal

attainment, which requires positive adaptation; here again inextricably linking resilience and hope.

The term *positive adjustment* or adaptation explains social competence that is behaviorally manifested as a result of adversity (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). Notably, this framework emphasizes the importance of vulnerability factors and protective factors that might mitigate the risk of an individual's experience, and as such influence the adaptation or problem-solving ability. Specifically, vulnerability factors are explained as markers that may exacerbate the negative effects of risk and, conversely, protective factors modify the effects of risk in a positive direction (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). These vulnerability and protective factors may operate individually or cumulatively, within the levels of influence, depending on an individual's experience.

Vulnerability and protective factors emerge from multiple levels of influence, namely the community, family and individual levels. Community level influence is what an individual may have been exposed to, such as violence or supportive relationships in a school setting, and potentially traumatic events. The family level of influence relates to factors such as parental discipline, parent support, caregiving or parenting style, and relationships with siblings and extended family members (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000).

It is my assertion that college students continually navigate risk and adversity and thus develop resilience and hope within the context of the self, community, and family levels of influence. I also contend that certain campus environments may mitigate this risk and enhance the protective factors at play. Certain environments and experiences throughout their undergraduate experience may maximize the potential for support and

mitigate risk by enhancing protective factors that could develop resilience. These environments enhance the protective factors by creating spaces in which students develop coping skills, problem solving skills, resilience, and hope.

Bleasdale and Humphreys (n.d.) posit that skills such as resilience [and hope] may be the interaction of dynamic internal and external factors and that colleges and universities can influence among their student population. The next chapter will explain the methodology for this study, utilizing the conceptual framework and an Input-Environment-Output Model to describe the regression analysis.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Research Questions

Despite distinct bodies of literature that have examined college student coping, resilience and hope, there is no scholarship that examines the potential relationship between student experiences and these constructs. As such, the purpose of this study is to examine whether certain selected campus environments are predictors of resilience and hope for college students. The guiding research questions for this study are:

- 1) Are there significant differences in resilience among student populations that engage in select campus environments and experiences (such as living-learning programs, leadership organizations, faith-based communities) and those that do not?
- 2) Are there significant differences in hope among student populations that engage in select campus environments and experiences (such as living-learning programs, leadership organizations, faith-based communities) and those that do not?
- 3) When controlling for pre-college variables, demographics, and college environment factors, what environments or experiences are significant predictors of resilience? Of hope?

Hypotheses

The guiding hypotheses for this study are:

- (R1) There will be a significant variance in resilience among students who participate in certain experiences and environments and those who do not.
- (R2) There will be a significant variance in hope among students who participate in certain experiences and environments and those who do not.

(R3) Based on the literature, race, race-related experiences, long-lasting conditions, and social supports will significantly predict resilience and hope beyond the effect of demographics and other college environment factors.

Overview of Instrument

This study utilized the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) dataset. The MSL was designed to broadly examine the influences of higher education specifically on student leadership development in college and was originally developed based upon a set of measures that were adapted from the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) and the Social Change Model (MSL 2018 Executive Summary, 2017). Validity and reliability were been established through pilot testing of earlier MSL versions, including the most recent 2018 instrument. Though initially designed to measure student leadership development, the instrument has evolved to include measures such as critical thinking, sense of belonging, and diversity-related climate issues. I have intentionally selected the MSL as the instrument for this study because of the resilience measure as well as the inclusion of several intentionally selected pre-college variables and college environments on which my research is built.

Resilience and hope are both constructs assessed by the MSL through two components: a quasi-pretest, designed to capture pre-college knowledge, development and self-perceptions prior to attending college. The second components are the resiliency scale and the hope scale. The Resiliency Scale is included as an MSL core scale, and the Hope Scale was added to the MSL in the 2015 version of the instrument.

Sample

The MSL has been utilized nationally and internationally at more 350 institutions with over 610,000 student respondents. Overall, in the 2018 administration of the MSL, 78 total schools participated. The data for this study are drawn from the 2018 MSL data collected at 8 mid-to-large size institutions in United States between January and April of 2018. These institutions comprise the dataset referred heretofore as the “Big Ten Coalition.” The Big Ten Coalition dataset includes the flagship public institutions in 8 states between New Jersey and Nebraska. The institutions included in this dataset are: University of Maryland College Park, Rutgers University, Purdue University, University of Minnesota, Northwestern University, University of Michigan, Indiana University and University of Illinois. With the exception of Northwestern University, the 7 other institutions are all public institutions. Each institution is required to pay to participate in the MSL. These data provided in the Big Ten Coalition dataset provide a diverse and geographically unique perspective.

Each individual institution’s Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved the MSL study. For the purposes of this study, no additional IRB is required given the secondary data analysis. Data were collected for the most recent administration of the study between January and April 2018. The survey was administered entirely online to all students at each institution and managed centrally by the MSL team. Participating institutions provide student emails directly to the MSL and their designated survey company coordinates all communication with students. Wording regarding emails sent to students are consistent across all participating institutions, but personalized by school. Students received a series of email reminders including a pre-survey notification email, a survey

invitation email, and three follow up reminder emails. Students who received reminder emails had not yet completed the survey.

There are 6,928 total cases in the Big Ten Coalition dataset, with a response rate of approximately 24% as compared to the national survey completion benchmark of 29% for the 2018 administration. In order to conduct this dissertation, I collaborated with the, Assistant Director for Assessment & Research in the Stamp Student Union. The Stamp Student Union manages institutional participation in the MSL. I was added to the Institutional Review Board protocol at my institution in April of 2019 and had full access to the Big Ten Coalition dataset for the 2018 administration of the MSL.

Design of Study & Conceptual Framework

This section provides a review of the conceptual framework, which is the foundation upon which the regression analysis has been designed. The I-E-O model is based upon three components controlling for student inputs and student environments to examine student outcomes (Astin, 1991). This research controls for inputs and environments to assess and measure the outcomes of student resilience and hope, and will provide a way for higher education professionals to understand the impact of various educational practices and policies in the college context. The MSL Big Ten Coalition dataset utilizes the I-E-O model (Astin, 1993) to explain college student impact based on controlling for student characteristics, environmental experiences, and the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) measures.

Secondary data analysis was conducted utilizing the MSL in an ex-post facto correlational study design. For research questions one and two, cross tabs and t-tests were utilized to test the hypotheses. ANOVA were utilized to compare means for resilience

and hope across subpopulations and among the inputs and environments included on the MSL instrument. Research question three utilized blocked hierarchical regression, as the outcome variables of resilience and hope are continuous measures. I conducted a blocked hierarchical regression analysis to explore how much variance in the outcome variable could be explained by adding the variables sequentially.

To frame this research study, I assert that resilience and hope develop as a result of the individual and the context in which they are operating, which in this exploration of the constructs, is the university, and more specifically, the environment or experience in which a student may have participated. Therefore, I present a correlational study using regression analysis that relies on the conceptual framework that is based on the intersection of Luthar and Cicchetti's (2000) explanation of resilience as a process that is either prohibited or enhanced by protective and vulnerability factors and is applicable to the construct of hope as well.

It is my assertion that college students continually navigate risk and adversity and thus develop resilience and hope within the self, community and family levels of influence that occur in context (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). Students are navigating this risk and adversity within the context of the broader educational experiences and environments in which they engage and participate throughout the course of their college experience. This study examined predictors of resilience and hope by the intentional selection of input and environmental variables that may fall within the levels of influence of self, family and community.

Variables & Measures

Dependent Variables

There are two dependent variables for this study: resilience and hope. This study examined the student inputs and environmental variables, which may predict the outcome of resilience for undergraduate students in the Big Ten Coalition dataset.

The first dependent variable of interest is resilience. The resiliency scale that is included in the MSL asks students to respond to ten statements by indicating how much they agree with the statements as applied over the last month. Students are asked to select on a 1 to 5 Likert scale: 1= Not at All True, 2= Rarely True, 3= Sometimes True, 4= Often True, 5= True Nearly All the Time. In the 2018 administration of the MSL for the Big Ten dataset, Cronbach's alpha for the resiliency scale was .913. The statements included on the Resiliency Scale are as follows:

1. I am able to adapt when changes occur.
2. I can deal with whatever comes my way
3. I try to see the humorous side of things when I am faced with problems
4. Having to cope with stress can make me stronger
5. I tend to bounce back after illness, injury or other hardships
6. I believe I can achieve me goals, even if there are obstacles
7. Under pressure, I stay focused and think clearly
8. I am not easily discouraged by failure
9. I think of myself as a strong person when dealing with life's challenges and difficulties

10. I am able to handle unpleasant or painful feelings like sadness, fear and anger

The second dependent variable, hope, is based on the hope scale that is included in the MSL. The scale consists of eight statements, and students are asked to indicate how much they agree with the statements using a 1 to 8 Likert scale: 1 = Definitely False, 2 = Mostly False, 3 = Somewhat False, 4 = Slightly False, 5 = Slightly True, 6 = Somewhat True, 7 = Mostly True, 8 = Definitely True. In the 2018 administration of the MSL for the Big Ten dataset, Cronbach's alpha for the hope scale was .916. The statements included on the Hope Scale are as follows:

1. I can think of many ways to get out of a jam
2. I energetically pursue my goals
3. There are lots of ways around any problem
4. I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are important to me
5. Even when others get discouraged, I know I can find a way to solve a problem
6. My past experiences have prepared me well for my future
7. I've been pretty successful in life
8. I meet the goals that I set for myself

Validity and reliability have been tested for the MSL through pilot tests and full data collection during multiple survey distribution and data collections. Prior to conducting the full regression analysis, I screened for multicollinearity. There were no predictors with intercorrelations greater than $r = 0.7$. Additionally, there was no need to condense variables into composite scales for ease of analysis. To address concerns of missingness, I utilized list-wise deletion prior to conducting the regression analyses.

Independent Variables

Inputs. Utilizing the I-E-O design, input variables were selected to examine the relationship of the interest variables (resilience and hope) while holding other variables constant. The input variables for this study were initially grouped according to Luthar and Cicchetti's (2000) model of explaining resilience (and for the purposes of this study, hope) as mitigated or prohibited by vulnerability and protective factors of the self, family and community. Block 1 in Table 3.2 shows the input variables for this study that are fixed in nature or include characteristics with which students entered college. This includes, gender, race, first-generation student status, parent education level, and parent income level. Gender will be included as a dummy coded variable utilizing female as the referent group. Due to low endorsement, students responding as transgender will be omitted. Race will also be included as a dummy variable with White as the referent group. Because students' resilience and hope prior to attending college, both the resilience and hope pre-tests have been included as variables in Block 2.

Bridge variables. Block 3 includes the bridge variable of age. Astin (1991, 1993) suggested the inclusion of bridge variables, which are identified as neither input nor environmental variables that measure a current state.

Environments. The environmental variables included in this study are: participation in a living-learning program, involvement in college organizations, leadership efficacy, racial or ethnic group involvement, mentoring relationship and religious student group participation. These variables represent the importance of examining environmental influences within more personal and social dimensions of the

student experience rather than relying solely on more cognitive variables such as GPA or standardized test scores (Sedlacek, 2017)

Variable of interest. Given the conflation of mental health concerns on campus and the implications for student resilience and hope, the variable of interest asks student respondents to assess whether they had a long-lasting condition (physical, visual, auditory, mental, emotional or other) that “substantially limited major life activities” (2018 MSL Codebook, p. 23). For this study, the variable of interest specifically relates to respondents who indicated a psychological or psychiatric condition. This variable of interest will be included as a third environment block to examine the contribution of this kind of condition above and beyond the other input variables. Table 3.2 shows the inputs by block, concept, and variable as included in the 2018 MSL codebook as well as the responses and items.

Table 3.2
Variables, Measures & Reliability

Block	Concept	Variable	MSL Responses and Items
Block 1: Inputs	Gender	What is your gender? (DEM7)	1= Woman 2= Man
	Race	Please indicate your broad racial group membership (DEM10a)	1=White/ Caucasian 2=Middle Eastern/ Northern African 3=African American/ Black 4=American Indian/ Alaska Native 5=Asian American 6=Native Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander 7=Latinx/ Hispanic 8=Multiracial 9=Race Not Listed
	First-Generation	DEM14.1 (adjust later)	(see below)
	Parent Education	What is the HIGHEST level of formal education obtained by	1=Less than high school diploma or less than a GED 2=High school diploma or a GED 3=Some college

		any of your parent(s) or guardian(s)?	4=Associates degree 5=Bachelors degree 6=Masters degree 7=Doctorate or professional degree (e.g., JD, MD, PhD)
	Parent Income	What is your best estimate of your parent(s) or guardian(s) combined total income from last year? (DEM15)	2=\$12,500 - \$24,999 3=\$25,000 – \$39,999 4=\$40,000 – \$54,999 5=\$55,000 - \$74,999 6=\$75,000 - \$99,999 7=\$100,000 - \$149,999 8=\$150,000 - \$199,999 9=\$200,000 and over
Block 2: Inputs	Resiliency Pre-Test	Looking back to before you started college, please indicate your level of agreement with the following items: (PRERES)	1=Definitely False 2=Mostly False 3=Somewhat False 4=Slightly False 5=Slightly True 6=Somewhat True 7=Mostly True 8=Definitely True
	Hope Pre-Test	Looking back to before you started college, please indicate your level of agreement with the following items: (PREHOP)	1=Definitely False 2=Mostly False 3=Somewhat False 4=Slightly False 5=Slightly True 6=Somewhat True 7=Mostly True 8=Definitely True
Block 3: Bridge Variables	Age	What is your age? (DEM6)	Open response for participant (will be recoded)
Block 4: Proximal Environments	Spirituality: Search for Meaning	How often do you... (SUB2a-e)	0=Never 1=Sometimes 2=Often 3=Very Often (will be recoded)
	Living-Learning Program	Which of the following have you engaged in during your college experience (LLP): (ENV4d)	1=Yes 0= No
	Involvement in Campus Organizations	Since starting college, how often have you: been an involved in campus organizations?	0=Never 1=Once 2=Sometimes 3=Many Times 4= Much of the Time
	Mentoring Relationship	A mentor is defined as a person who intentionally assists	0= No 2= Yes

		your growth or connects you to opportunities for career or personal development. Since you started at your current college/university, have you been mentored by the following types of people?	
	Leadership Efficacy	How confident are you that you can be successful at the following? (OUT2a-d)	1=Not At All Confident 2=Somewhat Confident 3=Confident 4=Very Confident
	Racial/Ethnic Group Involvement	Have you been involved in the following kinds of student groups during college?: To what extent have you been actively involved in racial/ ethnic groups (ENV7d1)	0=Never 1=Sometimes 2=Often 3=Very Often
Block 5: Variable of Interest	Long Lasting Condition: Psychological/ Psychiatric	Do you have a long-lasting condition that substantially limits one or more of your major life activities? (DEM11 a/b)	7= Psychiatric/Psychological Condition: (e.g. anxiety disorder, major depression)

This chart has been designed based on the Input-Environment-Output model (Astin, 1993).

Data Analysis

Following the cleaning of the data, the correlations and distributions were examined to ensure the data meet the methods assumptions. Independent variables with correlations higher than .90 were removed to preserve the integrity of the study (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Additionally, VIF levels were scrutinized and held to the

rule of 10 as a standard threshold. It was not necessary to hold a more conservative threshold to minimize the effect of inflation of the variance.

For the first two hypotheses, I utilized descriptive statistics to calculate the mean, standard deviation and correlations. To compare means, I conducted independent samples t-tests and test for significance. For the third hypothesis, I conducted a blocked, force-entry regression with blocks built in. Table 3.2 includes the coding of these measures.

Limitations

Although the study will significantly contribute to scholarship and practice regarding college student resilience and hope, a significant limitation of these data is the cross-sectional nature of the MSL. Providing only a snapshot of the students in the sample (at only one time point) paints a limited picture for understanding student self-rated resilience and self-rated hope from the perspective of self, family and community protective and vulnerability factors. Utilizing cross-sectional data precludes the researcher from interpreting growth and change in a student, given the “one-shot” nature of this type of data analysis (Astin & Lee, 2003). This risk is slightly mitigated by the inclusion of both the resilience and hope pre-tests, though the limitation does remain. An additional limitation of this study is that the MSL examines resilience and hope utilizing self-reports. Few, if any, studies examine the dependent variables from an observation perspective; it is nearly always identified by the respondents’ perceptions of their own resilience, however further examination of the environmental factors that may influence college student resilience and hope is in itself a significant contribution.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the constructs of resilience and hope utilizing the 2018 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) resilience and hope scales. Three specific research questions guided this study: (1) Are there significant differences in resilience among student populations who engage in select campus environments and experiences (such as living-learning programs, leadership organizations, faith-based communities) and those who do not? (2) Are there significant differences in hope among student populations who engage in select campus environments and experiences (such as living-learning programs, leadership organizations, faith-based communities) and those who do not? (3) When controlling for pre-college variables, demographics and college environment factors, what environments or experiences are significant predictors of resilience? Of hope?

Hypotheses

The guiding null hypotheses for this study are:

H1₀: There will not be a significant variance in resilience among students who participate in certain experiences and environments and those who do not.

H2₀: There will not be a significant variance in hope among students who participate in certain experiences and environments and those who do not.

H3₀: Based on the literature, race, race-related experiences, long-lasting psychiatric conditions, and social supports will not significantly predict resilience and hope beyond the effect of demographics and other college environment factors.

Sample Characteristics

This study utilized a subset of the data collected from the 2018 administration of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership known as the “Big Ten Coalition.” This Big Ten Coalition dataset includes data from seven flagship state institutions and one private institution and included 6928 total cases. The MSL was originally designed to examine the impacts of college environments on college student leadership but has since evolved to include other related scales. The full MSL instrument includes over 400 different variables, scales and measures.

Missing Data Analysis

Prior to conducting any analyses, an exploration of missing data is required. I conducted Little’s Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) Test to determine if the data were missing completely at random or missing not at random to determine the appropriate method to proceed with data analysis. Little’s MCAR test resulted in $\chi^2(1,377, N=6,703) = 1526.18, p > .003$. These results indicate that the data are not MCAR, rendering these data either missing not at random (MNAR) or missing at random (MAR). Based on this finding, the use of listwise deletion rather than multiple imputations is justified, as both methods are potentially biased (Pepinsky, 2018). However, to further consider the missing data for any potential impact on the analysis, I conducted a series of cross-tabulations to examine whether certain demographic groups were more likely to have missing data than others. The only demographic group that did show a statistical difference in overall responses of missing cases was first-generation students. This means that in this dataset, first-generation students were more likely than

non-first-generation students to be excluded from the analysis as they did not have complete data on all variables in the model: $\chi^2 (1, N=4,865) = 1526.189, p > 0.003$.

Descriptive Analysis

The overall sample included in the Big Ten Coalition dataset of the 2018 MSL consists of 7,226 total respondents. Table 4.2 shows the frequencies for the demographic variables included in this study. The variables included: age, gender, first-generation student status, race, involvement in a multicultural fraternity or sorority, involvement in a social fraternity or sorority, involvement in a religious organization, involvement in racial/ethnic groups, mentorship, participation in a learning community, overall dispositional hope, the pre-test for hope, resilience, the pre-test for resilience, leadership efficacy, and long-lasting condition. It should be noted that these variables shifted slightly from the initial variables outlined in Chapter 3 based on feedback provided by my dissertation committee. Variables were adjusted to include a deeper exploration of involvement and student environments that may more accurately depict the student experience at a Big Ten institution. A full, updated table of variables included in this study and organized by block can be found in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1
Updated Variables, Measures & Reliability

Block	Concept	Variable	MSL Responses and Items
Block 1: Inputs	Gender <i>**Dummy coded, woman as referent group***</i>	What is your gender? (DEM7)	0= Woman 1= Man
	Race <i>**Dummy Coded, White as the Referent Group**</i>	Please indicate your broad racial group membership. (DEM10a)	0= White/Caucasian 1= African American/Black 1= Latino/Hispanic 1= Asian American

			1= Middle Eastern/Northern African
	First-Generation Student Status (based on parent educational attainment) <i>**Dummy Coded, Not First Generation as the Referent Group**</i>	What is the HIGHEST level of formal education obtained by any of your parent(s) or guardian(s)?	0=High school diploma or a GED 3=Some college 0=Associates degree 0=Bachelors degree 0=Masters degree 0=Doctorate or professional degree (e.g., JD, MD, PhD) 1=Less than high school diploma or less than a GED
	Long Lasting Condition (Variable of interest)	Do you have a long-lasting condition that substantially limits one or more of your major life activities? (DEM11a)	1= Yes 2= No
Block 2: Inputs (Pre-Tests)	Resiliency Pre-Test *only included for the corresponding DV	Looking back to before you started college, please indicate your level of agreement with the following items: (PRERES)	1=Definitely False 2=Mostly False 3=Somewhat False 4=Slightly False 5=Slightly True 6=Somewhat True 7=Mostly True 8=Definitely True
	Hope Pre-Test *only included for the corresponding DV	Looking back to before you started college, please indicate your level of agreement with the following items: (PREHOP)	1=Definitely False 2=Mostly False 3=Somewhat False 4=Slightly False 5=Slightly True 6=Somewhat True 7=Mostly True 8=Definitely True
Block 3: Bridge Variable	Age	What is your age? (DEM6)	Open response for participant
Block 4: Environments /Proximal Environments	Learning Community <i>**Recoded to include Living-Learning Program and Learning Community)</i>	Which of the following have you engaged in during your college experience (Living-Learning Program or Learning Community) *ENV4c and ENV4D recoded	1= Yes 0= No

	Multicultural Fraternity/ Sorority Involvement	Have you been involved in the following kinds of student groups during college? (ENV7p)	1= Yes 0= No
	Social Fraternity/ Sorority	Have you been involved in the following kinds of student groups during college? (ENV7q)	1= Yes 0= No
	Religious Student Group	Have you been involved in the following kinds of student groups during college? (ENV7n)	1= Yes 0= No
	Mentoring Relationship	Since you started at your current college/university, have you been mentored by the following types of people? (ENV8A1-6)	1= Yes 0= No
	Leadership Efficacy (Proximal Environment)	How confident are you that you can be successful at the following? (OUTEFF)	1=Not At All Confident 2=Somewhat Confident 3=Confident 4=Very Confident
	Racial/Ethnic Group Involvement (Recoded)	To what extent have you been actively involved in racial/ethnic groups (ENV7d1)	1 = Yes 0 = No

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.3 depicts the frequencies and percentages for the variables included in the model through the research questions. Table 4.3 show all binary and categorical variables included in the model. Table 4.4 shows all continuous, scaled variables in the model. It should be noted that both tables showing frequencies, percentages, and descriptive statistics include data from the Big Ten Coalition dataset to give the widest perspective possible. For the purposes of further analysis of my research questions, they have been cleaned and recoded and can be found in the appendix as well as Table 4.1.

Table 4.2
Frequencies & Percentages

VARIABLE	%
Gender (n=5,166)	
Man	39.2
Woman	59.8
Transgender	1.0
Race (n= 5,226)	
White/Caucasian	48.7
Middle Eastern/Northern African	2.5
African American/Black	6.9
American Indian/Alaska Native	0.8
Asian American	19.3
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	0.4
Latino/Hispanic	9.7
Multiracial	3.8
Race Not Listed	3.3
First-Generation Student (n=6,928)	
Yes	8.3
No	91.7
Participation in a Multicultural Fraternity or Sorority (n=6,928)	
Yes	5.0

No	95.0
Participation in a Social Fraternity or Sorority (n=6,928)	
Yes	21.5
No	78.5
Participation in a Religious Student Group (n=6,928)	
Yes	22.9
No	77.1
Research with a Faculty Member Outside of Class (n=6,928)	
Yes	24.0
No	76.0
Mentored by the Following Types of People (n=6,928)	
Faculty/Instructor	60.2
Academic or Student Affairs Professional	49.2
Employer	39.4
Community Member	23.9
Parent/Guardian	68.8
Other Student	64.1
Participation in a Learning Community (n=6,928)	
Yes	36.0
No	64.0
Involvement in a Racial or Ethnic Organization (n=6,928)	
Yes	11.9
No	88.1
Long-Lasting Condition (n=6,928)	
Yes	12.5
No	87.5

Table 4.3***Means and Standard Deviations***

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
Resilience	3.76	1.0	5.0	0.68
Hope	6.38	1.0	8.0	1.06
Age	20.54	17.0	64.0	2.61
Leadership Efficacy	3.05	1.0	4.0	0.67
Resilience Pre-Test	3.41	1.0	5.0	0.86
Hope Pre-Test	6.23	1.0	8.0	1.2

Additionally, a series of cross-tabulations were conducted to examine the distribution of the dependent variables across demographic groups among three intentionally selected demographic variables. Tables 4.4 through 4.6 show the distribution of the dependent variable, resilience, across the independent variables of gender, first-generation student status, and long-lasting condition. However, to best examine resilience and hope by these groups, I transformed the continuous variables into high, medium, and low categories based on a calculation of standard deviation above the mean. For resilience, data included in the original dataset are reported based on an average score on a scale of 1 to 5. For hope, data included in the original dataset are reported as an average score based on a scale of 1 to 8.

Table 4.4 shows the distribution of resilience across gender. The most dramatic difference is between men and women students, as 19.3% of students who identify as men indicate they have high resilience as compared to only 14.2% of students who identify as women. It should be noted that while the Big Ten Coalition dataset included man, woman, those who did not list gender (missing cases) and transgender students, the

percentage of students who indicated they identified as transgender was so low they were left out these analyses.

Table 4.4
Resilience (High, Medium Low) by Gender

RESILIENCE SCORE	GENDER	
	Man	Woman
Resilience (High)	19.3	14.2
Resilience (Medium)	66.9	69.3
Resilience (Low)	13.9	16.5

Table 4.5 shows the distribution of hope across gender. A similar pattern emerges in that students who identify as men indicate they have higher hope than students who identified as women. Conversely, women were more likely to indicate they had lower levels of hope as compared to men. There was a slight difference in high hope among women and men, though it may not be statistically significant.

Table 4.5
Hope (High, Medium Low) by Gender

HOPE SCORE	GENDER	
	Man	Woman
Hope (High)	14.3	13.4
Hope (Medium)	69.4	72.9
Hope (Low)	16.3	13.4

The next two cross-tabulations explore the distribution of resilience and hope across first-generation student status as demonstrated in Table 4.6 and Table 4.7

Table 4.6
Resilience (High, Medium Low) by First-Generation Student Status

RESILIENCE SCORE	FIRST- GENERATION STATUS	
	First-Generation	Non-First-Generation
Resilience (High)	15.4	16.3
Resilience (Medium)	63.6	69.1
Resilience (Low)	21	14.6

Interestingly, the notable differences in this comparison are between students who fall within the medium and low categories. While there is a difference between high resilience among first-generation and non-first-generation students, the notable differences exist between the medium and low resilience categories. This analysis shows that first-generation students consider themselves to have lower resilience than their non-first-generation peers. Most concerning is that 21% of first-generation students consider themselves to have low resilience as compared to only 14.6% of their non-first-generation peers. Table 4.7 examines hope and first-generation student status.

Table 4.7
Hope (High, Medium Low) by First-Generation Student Status

HOPE SCORE	FIRST-GENERATION STATUS	
	First-Generation	Non-First-Generation
Hope (High)	13.1	13.8
Hope (Medium)	65.6	72.3
Hope (Low)	21.5	13.8

There are very subtle differences between first-generation students and non-first-generation students in regard to the high hope category. However, this analysis shows a similar story to the cross-tabulation between resilience and first-generation student status. Overall, first-generation students indicate they have lower hope than their non-first-

generation peers. Again, the chasm between only 13.8% of non-first-generation students as compared to 21.5% of first-generation students indicating they have low hope is striking.

The next cross-tabulation analysis examines the distribution of resilience and hope across long-lasting condition. This analysis was intentionally selected given the increased concern over mental health issues on campuses. It is important to note that the variable long-lasting condition includes students who indicated they had any sort of physical, visual, auditory, mental or emotional condition that limits one or more major life activities. While this analysis is important for understanding the relationship between the dependent variables and this particular independent variable, it is not possible to isolate only mental health concerns.

Table 4.8
Resilience (High, Medium Low) by Long-Lasting Condition

RESILIENCE SCORE	LONG-LASTING CONDITION	
	No	Yes
Resilience (High)	16.5	13.8
Resilience (Medium)	69	63.1
Resilience (Low)	14.5	23.2

This cross-tabulation analysis shows a difference in resilience between students who indicated they had a long-lasting condition and those who indicated they did not. Only 14.5% of students without a long-lasting condition indicated a low resilience as compared to 23.2% of students with a long-lasting condition. Both the medium and low resilience categories did reveal a similar trend, with students who had a long-lasting condition having lower medium and high resilience as compared to their peers. This analysis illustrates the conflation of resilience and mental health that may be contributing to the narrative that students who are experiencing physical, mental or emotional

challenges struggle to cope and lack resilience. Table 4.9 shows the relationship between hope and long-lasting condition.

Table 4.9
Hope (High, Medium Low) by Long-Lasting Condition

HOPE SCORE	LONG-LASTING CONDITION	
	No	Yes
Hope (High)	13.6	14.1
Hope (Medium)	72.3	65.7
Hope (Low)	14.1	20.2

A similar pattern is reflected in this cross-tabulation analysis between hope and long-lasting condition. Notably, 14.1% of students with a long-lasting condition indicated they had slightly higher hope as compared to 13.6% of students without a long-lasting condition, though this may not be a statistically significant difference. Notably, 20.2% of students with a long-lasting condition indicated lower hope as compared to only 14.1% of their peers without a long-lasting condition.

To further examine the dataset, I conducted an ANOVA to explore the relationship between (a) race and resilience and (b) race and hope. For resilience, a one way analysis of variance shows that the effect of race was significant: $F(5,4,766) = 7.567$, $p = <0.00$. Post-hoc analyses revealed that Asian American students have statistically significantly lower levels of self-reported resilience than the following racial groups: White, Latino/Hispanic, Multiracial, and African American/Black. For hope, a one way analysis of variance shows that the effect of race was also significant: $F(146.10,5160.50) = 27.15$, $p = <0.00$. Post-hoc analyses revealed that Asian American students have statistically significantly lower levels of hope than the following racial groups: White, Latino/Hispanic, Multiracial, and African American/Black.

Research Question 1: Examining Differences in Resilience

To analyze Research Question 1, differences in means were examined to determine if there are significant differences in resilience between students who participate in certain college environments and those who do not. The following explains the differences in resilience among students who participated in the campus environments included in the model.

Learning Community

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for those who participated ($M=3.78$, $SD = 0.66$) and those who did not participate ($M= 3.74$, $SD = 0.66$); $t(4839) = -2.173$, $p = 0.03$. Students who did participate in a learning community (living-learning program or learning community) had a statistically significant higher average level of resilience than their peers who indicated they did not participate.

Mentorship by Faculty Instructor

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for those who were mentored by a faculty member or instructor ($M=3.82$, $SD = 0.66$) and those who were not ($M= 3.66$, $SD = 0.70$); $t(3853.36) = -7.58$, $p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by a faculty member or instructor had a statistically significant higher level of resilience than their peers who did not indicate such a mentoring experience.

Mentorship by an Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff Member

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for those who were mentored by a student affairs professional staff member ($M=3.81$, $SD = 0.67$) and those who were not ($M= 3.71$, $SD = 0.69$); $t(4836.15) = -5.23$, $p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by a student affairs professional staff member had a statistically significant

higher level of resilience than their peers who did not indicate such a mentoring experience.

Mentorship by an Employer

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for those who were mentored by an employer, ($M=3.86$, $SD = 0.65$) and those who were not ($M= 3.69$, $SD = 0.70$); $t(4,279.06) = -8.67$, $p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by an employer had a statistically significant higher level of resilience than their peers who were not.

Mentorship by a Community Member

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for those who were mentored by a community member, ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 0.64$) and those who were not ($M= 3.72$, $SD = 0.69$); $t(2,030.39) = -7.12$, $p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by a community member had a statistically significant higher level of resilience than their peers who did not experience the mentoring relationship.

Mentorship by a Parent/Guardian

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for those who were mentored by a parent/guardian ($M= 3.80$, $SD= 0.65$) and those who were not ($M= 3.66$, $SD= 0.74$); $t(2,584) = -6.60$, $p < 0.01$. Students who indicated having been mentored by a parent or guardian had a statistically significant higher level of resilience as compared to their peers who did not.

Mentorship by Another Student

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for those who were mentored by another student ($M= 3.80$, $SD = 0.65$) and those who were not ($M= 3.67$, SD

= 0.73); $t(3,250) = -6.26, p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by another student had a statistically significant higher level of resilience than students who were not.

Research with a Faculty Member Outside of Class

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for students who engaged in research with a faculty member outside of class ($M = 3.80, SD = 0.66$) and those who did not ($M = 3.74, SD = 0.69$); $t(2,020.45) = -2.68, p < 0.01$. Students who engaged in research with a faculty member had a statistically significant higher level of resilience than their peers who did not share this experience.

Participation in a Social Fraternity or Sorority

There was a significant difference in the resilience score for students who were members of a social fraternity or sorority ($M = 3.85, SD = 0.66$) and those who were not ($M = 3.73, SD = 0.68$); $t(4,819) = -5.047, p < 0.01$. There is a statistically significant difference in the resilience of students who participated in social fraternity and sororities and those who did not.

Participation in a Multicultural Fraternity or Sorority

There was no significant difference in resilience for students who were members of a multicultural fraternity or sorority ($M = 3.68, SD = 0.77$) and those who were not ($M = 3.76, SD = 0.68$); $t(240.67) = 1.48, p = 0.138$. While the mean resilience score is slightly lower for students who indicated they were members of a multicultural fraternity or sorority, it is not statistically significant.

Participation in a Racial/Ethnic Group

There was no statistically significant difference in resilience for students who indicated that they participated in a racial or ethnic group on campus ($M=3.76$, $SD= 0.68$) and those who did not ($M= 3.76$, $SD= 0.68$); $t(4,834) = -0.091$, $p = 0.927$.

Participation in a religious organization. There was no significant difference in resilience for students who participated in a religious student group ($M=3.79$, $SD= 0.64$) and those who did not ($M=3.75$, $SD= 0.68$); $t(1,935) = -1.97$, $p = 0.058$. While students who participated in a religious organization had slightly higher resilience than their peers who did not, the difference was not statistically significant.

Research Question 2: Examining Differences in Hope

To examine Research Question 2, t-test analyses were utilized to determine if there are differences in hope between students who participate in certain college environments and those who did not participate.

Learning Community

There was a significant difference in the overall hope score for those who participated ($M=6.46$, $SD = 1.01$) and those who did not participate ($M= 6.32$, $SD = 1.08$); $t(3,865) = -4.50$, $p < 0.01$. Students who did participate in a learning community (living-learning program or learning community) had a statistically significant higher level of hope than their peers who indicated they did not participate in either a living-learning program or learning community.

Mentorship by Faculty Instructor

There was a significant difference in the hope score for those who were mentored by a faculty member or instructor ($M=6.51$, $SD = 0.97$) and those who were not ($M=$

6.16, SD = 1.15); $t(3,590.75) = -11.04, p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by a faculty member or instructor had a statistically significant higher level of hope than their peers who did not indicate such a mentoring experience.

Mentorship by Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff Member

There was a significant difference in the hope score for those who were mentored by a student affairs professional staff member (M=6.50, SD = 0.98) and those who were not (M= 6.26, SD = 1.11); $t(4,898.09) = -7.99, p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by a student affairs professional staff member reported a statistically significant higher level of hope than their peers who did not indicate experience a mentoring relationship such as this.

Mentorship by an Employer

There was a significant difference in the hope score for those who were mentored by an employer, (M=6.58, SD = 0.97) and those who were not (M= 6.24, SD = 1.09); $t(4,522.80) = -11.20, p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by an employer had a statistically significant higher level of hope than their peers who were not.

Mentorship by a Community Member

There was a significant difference in the hope score for those who were mentored by a community member, (M = 6.58, SD = 0.99) and those who were not (M= 6.31, SD = 1.07); $t(2,100.44) = -8.03, p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by a community member had a statistically significant higher level of hope than their peers who did not experience a similar mentoring relationship.

Mentorship by a Parent/Guardian

There was a significant difference in the hope score for those who were mentored by a parent/guardian ($M= 6.49$ $SD= 0.96$) and those who were not ($M= 6.11$, $SD= 1.21$); $t(2,457.52) = -10.87$, $p < 0.01$. Students who indicate having been mentored by a parent or guardian have a statistically significant higher level of hope as compared to their peers who did not.

Mentorship by Another Student

There was a significant difference in the hope score for those who were mentored by another student ($M= 6.50$, $SD = 0.96$) and those who were not ($M= 6.14$, $SD = 1.17$); $t(3,103.77) = -10.97$, $p < 0.01$. Students who were mentored by another student had a statistically significant higher level of hope than students who were not.

Research with a Faculty Member Outside of Class

There was a significant difference in the mean hope score for students who engaged in research with a faculty member outside of class ($M= 6.48$, $SD=0.99$) and those who did not ($M= 6.34$, $SD= 1.08$); $t(2,114.48)$, -4.25 , $p < 0.01$. Students who engaged in research with a faculty member had a statistically significant higher level of hope than their peers who did not share this out of class experience.

Participation in a Social Fraternity or Sorority

There was a significant difference in the hope score for students who were members of a social fraternity or sorority ($M= 6.53$, $SD= 1.07$) and those who were not ($M= 6.34$, $SD= 1.07$); $t(1,748.50) = -5.613$, $p < 0.01$. There was a statistically significant difference in the hope of students who indicated they were members of a social fraternity or sorority and those who were not.

Participation in a Multicultural Fraternity or Sorority

There was a significant difference in hope for students who were members of a multicultural fraternity or sorority ($M=6.14$, $SD= 1.32$) and those who were not ($M=6.39$, $SD= 1.04$); $t(246.96) = 2.38$, $p < 0.01$. The mean hope score for students who did indicate participation in a multicultural fraternity or sorority was statistically significantly lower than students who were not members.

Participation in a Racial/Ethnic Group

There was no statistically significant difference in hope for students who indicated that they participated in a racial or ethnic group on campus ($M=6.35$, $SD= 1.02$) and those who did not ($M= 6.38$, $SD= 1.06$); $t(4,947)= 0.607$, $p = 0.544$.

Participation in a Religious Organization

There was no significant difference in resilience for students who participated in a religious student group ($M=6.43$, $SD= 1.02$) and those who did not ($M=6.36$, $SD= 1.07$); $t(4,950)= -1.95$, $p = 0.051$. While students who participated in a religious organization had slightly higher resilience than their peers who did not, it was not statistically significant.

Summary

Overall, the results of both Research Questions 1 and 2 reveal that there are statistically significant differences in both resilience and hope between students who participate in certain college environments and those who do not. For both resilience and hope, however, two variables emerge indicating no statistically significant difference between those who participated and those who did not: participation in a racial or ethnic group and participation in a religious organization. Further, while membership in a social

fraternity revealed a significantly higher mean difference in resilience and hope, participation in a multicultural fraternity or sorority revealed lower levels of both dependent variables. Notably, this mean difference was only statistically significant for hope.

Research Question 3: Exploring Predictors of Resilience & Hope

The third research question reflects the exploratory nature of this study that examined which college environments predict both resilience and hope for undergraduate college students. Though the research question was combined, I conducted two separate regression analyses for each dependent variable. The regression analyses were designed based upon Astin's (1993) Input-Environment-Outcome model that is presented in Table 4.1.

Before conducting the regression analyses, assumptions were checked to ensure independent and normal distribution across the model. Additionally, correlations were run to screen for multicollinearity. None of the variables were highly correlated at a level of .7 or above. The full correlation matrices can be found in the appendix. All variables had a variance inflation factor (VIF) in the range of 1.0 - 2.3, which is comfortably within the accepted maximum variance inflation factor of 10 (Pallant, 2007).

Dependent Variable: Resilience

For the first regression analysis utilizing resilience as the dependent variable, the final, adjusted $R^2 = 0.567$ indicating that 56.7% of the variance in resilience is explained by the input and environmental variables. Table 4.10 shows the full Beta chart.

The first block of the regression model for resilience included student demographics (race, gender, first-generation student status and long-lasting condition)

and explained an initial 2.6% of the variance. It should be noted the following variables were dummy coded: race affiliation variables (White as the reference group), gender (man as the reference group), and first-generation student status (non-first-generation student as the reference group). In this final analysis, I included the variable of interest, long-lasting condition, in the first block rather than as a fifth block as students as I believe it should be considered along with other demographic variables given that it is a characteristic that a student would possess upon entering college. In the second block, the pre-test for resilience was entered. Only the pre-test for the corresponding dependent variable was utilized. The second block accounted for 21% of the variance. The third block included bridge and proximal variables age, leadership efficacy and overall hope. The first three blocks explained 56.8% of the variance. Finally, the following environmental variables were entered in block four: learning community, mentorship by a faculty instructor, mentorship by an academic or student affairs professional staff member, mentorship by an employer, mentorship by a community member, participation in a multicultural fraternity or sorority, participation in a social fraternity or sorority, involvement in a religious student group, research with a faculty member outside of class, and involvement in a racial or ethnic group. For this last block, the adjusted $R^2 = 0.567$. It should be noted that this R^2 change was only 0.001, and not statistically significant, indicating that the variables entered in block four did not contribute to the model. Table 4.10 provides data from the regression analysis.

Table 4.10
Predictors of Resilience (Final Block Only)

Variable	b	β	VIF
BLOCK 1			
African American/Black	0.034	0.011	1.163
Latino/Hispanic	0.088	0.028**	1.183
Asian American	0.057	0.031**	1.239
Multiracial	0.022	0.010	1.103
Middle Eastern	0.031	0.005	1.032
Gender	-0.108	-0.077***	1.042
First-Generation	0.027	0.012	1.121
Long-Lasting Condition	-0.051	-0.025*	1.041
R² change 0.028***			
BLOCK 2			
Pre-Test for Resilience***	0.150	0.189	1.256
R² change 0.192***			
BLOCK 3			
Age	0.007	0.027**	1.083
Hope	0.345	0.529***	1.782
Leadership Efficacy	0.184	0.179***	1.675
R² change 0.349***			
BLOCK 4			
Learning Community	-0.010	-0.007	2.319
Mentored by Faculty/Instructor	0.006	0.004	1.412
Mentored by Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff	-0.012	-0.009	1.264
Mentored by Employer	0.015	0.011	1.224
Mentored by Community Member	0.017	0.011	1.163
Mentored by Parent/Guardian	-0.014	-0.009	1.342
Mentored by Other Student	-0.018	-0.012	1.345
Multicultural Social Fraternity/Sorority	-0.049	-0.015	1.084
Social Fraternity/Sorority	0.018	0.011	1.080
Involvement in Religious Organization	0.004	0.003	1.049
Involvement in Racial/Ethnic Organization	0.027	0.013	1.262
Research with Faculty Member	0.001	0.000	2.347
R² Change 0.001			

Total R² = 0.567, F = 244.76***

*****p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05**

Dependent Variable: Hope

In the second regression analysis utilizing hope as the dependent variable, the final adjusted $R^2 = 0.636$ indicating that 63.6% of the variance in hope is explained by the input and environmental variables utilized in the model. The first block of the regression model for hope included student demographics (race, gender, first-generation student status and long-lasting condition) and explained an initial 3.4% of the variance. The following variables were dummy coded: race affiliation variables (White as the reference group), gender (man as the reference group), and first-generation student status (non-first-generation student as the reference group). In the second block, the pre-test for hope was entered resulted in an adjusted $R^2 = 0.325$ accounting for 32.5% of the variance. The third block included the bridge and proximal variables age, leadership efficacy and resilience, resulting in an adjusted $R^2 = 0.633$, explaining 63.3% of the variance. Finally, the following environmental variables were entered in block four: learning community, mentorship by a faculty instructor, mentorship by an academic or student affairs professional staff member, mentorship by an employer, mentorship by a community member, participation in a multicultural fraternity or sorority, participation in a social fraternity or sorority, involvement in a religious student group, research with a faculty member outside of class, and involvement in a racial or ethnic group. For this last block, adjusted $R^2 = 0.636$, explaining 63.6% of the variance. The R^2 change for the final block was 0.004, which was statistically significant; indicating that the variables entered in block four made a statistically significant contribution to the model. As such, I reject the null hypothesis that race, race-related experiences, long-lasting psychiatric conditions, and social supports will not significantly predict resilience and hope beyond the effect of

demographics and other college environment factors. Table 4.11 demonstrates the data from the regression analysis.

Table 4.11
Predictors of Hope (Final Block Only)

Variable	b	β	VIF
BLOCK 1			
African American/Black	-0.051	-0.011	1.161
Latino/Hispanic	-0.067	-0.014	1.182
Asian American	-0.134	-0.047***	1.238
Multiracial	-0.013	-0.004	1.103
Middle Eastern	0.054	0.006	1.034
Gender	0.076	0.035***	1.047
First-Generation	-0.093	-0.028**	1.119
Long-Lasting Condition	-0.019	-0.006	1.031
R² change 0.036***			
BLOCK 2			
Pre-Test for Hope	0.239	0.269***	1.294
R² change 0.291***			
BLOCK 3			
Age	0.003	0.008	1.086
Resilience	0.704	0.459***	1.593
Leadership Efficacy	0.363	0.231***	1.583
R² change 0.308***			
BLOCK 4			
Learning Community	0.041	0.019	2.318
Mentored by Faculty/Instructor	0.026	0.012	1.410
Mentored by Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff	-0.005	-0.002	1.264
Mentored by Employer	0.029	0.014	1.224
Mentored by Community Member	0.016	0.006	1.162
Mentored by Parent/Guardian	0.002	0.012	1.338
Mentored by Other Student	0.081	0.037***	1.339
Multicultural Social Fraternity/Sorority	-0.063	-0.012	1.084
Social Fraternity/Sorority	-0.030	-0.012	1.079
Involvement in Religious Organization	-0.015	-0.006	1.049
Involvement in Racial/Ethnic Organization	0.004	0.001	1.262
Research with Faculty Member	-0.016	-0.006	2.349
R² Change 0.004***			

Total R² = 0.636, F = 327.006***

*****p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05**

Through the examination of the standardized beta values in the first analysis, the following variables are significant positive predictors of resilience: students who reported that they were Latino/Hispanic ($\beta = 0.028$, $p < 0.01$), students who reported that they were Asian American ($\beta = 0.031$, $p < 0.01$), the pre-test for resilience ($\beta = 0.189$, $p < 0.001$), age ($\beta = 0.027$, $p < 0.01$), overall dispositional hope ($\beta = 0.529$, $p < 0.001$), and leadership efficacy ($\beta = 0.179$, $p < 0.000$). Essentially, for every one unit increase in the X (independent variable), Y (dependent variable) is expected to increase in the amount corresponding to the coding of the variable. The following variables emerged as significant negative predictors in the model: gender ($\beta = -0.077$, $p < 0.001$) and long-lasting condition ($\beta = -0.025$, $p < 0.05$). None of the environmental variables emerged as a predictor of resilience in this model. These equations explain that for every one unit increase in X, Y is expected to decrease in the amount corresponding to the coding of the variable.

Through the examination of the standardized beta values for the second analysis, the following variables are significant positive predictors of hope: gender ($\beta = 0.035$, $p < 0.000$), the pre-test for hope ($\beta = 0.269$, $p < 0.001$), resilience ($\beta = 0.459$, $p < 0.001$), leadership efficacy ($\beta = 0.231$, $p < 0.001$) and mentorship by another student ($\beta = 0.037$, $p < 0.000$). The following variables emerged as significant negative predictors of hope: identifying as an Asian American student ($\beta = -0.047$, $p < 0.001$) and being a first-generation student ($\beta = -0.028$, $p < 0.01$).

Summary

This chapter has provided a detailed description of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership Big Ten Coalition dataset and the methodology utilized to explore and

analyze the data based upon the research questions. There were many findings that emerged as a result of the cross-tabulations, independent sample t-tests, chi-square calculations, ANOVAs and the two blocked, hierarchical regression analyses. Chapter Five will discuss the findings rendered in this chapter and provide implications for practice as well as directions of future research.

CHAPTER FIVE: RECLAIMING THE NARRATIVE

This work is just the tip of the iceberg as scholars and practitioners begin to wade through college student resilience and hope, illuminating a major gap that exists between the literature, practice and understanding surrounding the constructs of resilience and hope, and the implications for students' socio-emotional wellness and mental health. This study began with a quote from Gray (2013) in which a university staff member indicated their observation of a decline in student resilience on campus and stated: "this lack of resilience is of the University and is thwarting the emotional and personal development of students" (Gray, 2013, para. 4). This dissertation seeks to change the narrative by investigating the ways in which pre-college characteristics and environments that do the exact opposite of what this sentiment asserts. Rather than leading from deficit perspective, this work seeks to frame the ways in which current educational interventions significantly contribute to college student resilience and hope, positioning our students for success on campus and throughout their lives.

The purpose of this study was to explore whether certain selected campus environments are predictors of resilience and hope for college students based on the following three research questions:

1. Are there significant differences in resilience among student populations that engage in select campus environments and experiences (such as living-learning programs, leadership organizations, faith-based communities) and those that do not?

2. Are there significant differences in hope among student populations that engage in select campus environments and experiences (such as living-learning programs, leadership organizations, faith-based communities) and those that do not?
3. When controlling for pre-college variables, demographics and college environment factors, what environments or experiences are significant predictors of resilience? Of hope?

Summary of Findings

To more fully understand the Multi Institutional Study of Leadership Big Ten Coalition sample, I ran descriptive statistics and frequencies on all respondents. Prior to removing missing cases utilizing list-wise deletion there were a total of 6,928 cases in the Big Ten Coalition dataset. In the dataset, 59.8% of the respondents identified as women. Nearly 48.7% of the respondents identified as White/Caucasian, 19.3% identified as Asian American, 9.7% as Latino/Hispanic, and 6.9% as African American. Middle Eastern/Northern African, American Indian/Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander and Multiracial were all less than 3.8% of the population in the dataset. First-generation college students as determined by parent educational attainment represented 8.3% of the sample. Only 5% of students indicated they were members of a multicultural fraternity or sorority in contrast to 21.5% of respondents who indicated they participated in a social fraternity or sorority. In the sample, 22.9% of the respondents participated in a religious student organization and nearly 25% responded indicating they had engaged in research with a faculty member outside of class. Notably, only 36% of the students in the dataset indicated they were members of a learning community. Earlier identified as a variable of interest, 12.5% of the respondents indicated they had a long-lasting condition,

defined as any sort of physical, visual, auditory, mental or emotional condition that limits one or more major life activity.

Additionally, I conducted a series of cross-tabulation analyses to explore the relationship between resilience and hope and several demographic variables. To have a clearer understanding of the two dependent variables, resilience and hope, I examined how the dependent variables are distributed across independent variables gender, first-generation student status, and long-lasting condition. These variables were recoded into high, medium and low categories based on a calculation of standard deviation above and below the mean. For resilience, data included in the original MSL survey are reported as an average score of 1 to 5. For hope, data included in the original dataset are reported as an average score of 1 to 8.

Research Question 1

To examine Research Question 1, a series of t-test analyses were conducted to explore the mean differences in resilience between students who participated in certain on-campus environments. Overwhelmingly, the results of this analysis conclude that there is a positive, significant difference in resilience between students who engage in select campus experiences and those who do not for the following variables: participation in a learning community, mentorship by a faculty instructor, mentorship by an academic or student affairs professional staff member, mentorship by an employer, mentorship by a community, mentorship by a parent or guardian, mentorship by another student, research with a faculty member, and participation in a social fraternity or sorority. Notably, there was no significant difference in mean resilience score for students who indicated they

participated in a multicultural fraternity or sorority, a racial/ethnic group, or a religious organization.

Research Question 2

To examine Research Question 2, a series of t-test analyses were conducted to explore the mean differences in hope between students who participated in certain on-campus environments. Similar to the results of Research Question 1, there is a positive significant difference in mean hope score for students who participated in the following campus environments or experiences: learning community, mentorship by faculty instructor, mentorship by a student affairs or professional staff member, mentorship by an employer, mentorship by a community member, mentorship by a parent or guardian, mentorship by another student, research with a faculty member outside of class, and participation in a multicultural fraternity or sorority. The results of this analysis concluded that there was no significant difference in mean hope for students who participated in a racial/ethnic group or for students who participated in a religious organization and those who did not.

Research Question 3

To examine Research Question 3, a blocked, force-entry regression analysis was conducted to examine which college experiences and environments predict both resilience and hope for undergraduate students. The variables were selected based upon existing literature examining these constructs in the higher education setting as well as those that are well documented in student development scholarship. This section explores the emergent predictors of resilience and hope and is followed by a discussion of the variable of interest, long-lasting condition.

Dependent Variable: Resilience

After controlling for demographic characteristics, the following predictors were significant, positive predictors of resilience: (a) identifying as Latino/Hispanic, (b) identifying as Asian American, (c) pre-test for resilience, (d) age, (e) overall measure of dispositional hope, and (f) leadership efficacy. The following predictors emerged as significant, negative predictors of resilience: (a) gender and (b) long-lasting condition.

Identifying as Latino/Hispanic. It is unsurprising that identifying as Latino or Hispanic emerges as positive predictor of resilience given research supporting the cultural implications for Latino and Hispanic students in relation to coping abilities (Chiang, Hunter & Yeh, 2004). The institutions included in the Big Ten Coalition dataset are predominantly white institutions, providing the context within which these Latino and Hispanic students navigate the college environments explored in this study. Latino and Hispanic students attending predominantly white institutions may enact their cultural values by establishing social networks to find connections and increase their sense of belonging (Chiang, Hunter & Yeh, 2004). Social networks such as family support, student organizations or spiritual connections stand to mitigate such stressors and enhance students' coping abilities and increase resilience in comparison to their non-Latino or Hispanic peers (Chiang, Hunter & Yeh, 2004; LeSure-Lester, 2003). For students who identify as Latino or Hispanic, developing and engaging in social networks and social supports allows them to find and connect with students who look like them in a sea of students who do not, positively impacting their ability to navigate challenges associated with the college experience (Bozak, 2013). Further, these social networks may serve as a protective factor by increasing students' sense of belonging and social support

systems, which ultimately increases their resilience (Bozak, 2013; Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). However, this finding may be contextual, as students attending a Hispanic-Serving institution may seek different support systems that could have a different impact on their resilience.

Additionally, existing scholarship indicates that this population of students as well as undocumented Latino students presents a unique lens through which to explore the concept of resilience. Given that resilience is often described as a process of overcoming significant risk or adversity, documented and undocumented Latino students may experience significant educational and psychological risks and accompanying stressors (Masten, 1994; O'Neal et al., 2016, Perez et al., 2009). In the context of college, these stressors may include family responsibilities, financial worries, immigration status, and generally navigating the obstacles associated with the college experience (O'Neal et al., 2016). Further exploration of the role that personal and environmental factors may play for this population of students, particularly at the college level should be considered.

Identifying as Asian American. At the time of this study, there was very little scholarship specifically exploring Asian American college students and resilience, likely due to the fact that this population is so significantly understudied (Museus, 2009). Similar to the experience of Latino and Hispanic students, it may be possible that this variable emerges as a significant predictor of resilience given the role that ethnic identity pride may play as a protective factor to promote resilience (Lee, 2005). Beyond ethnic pride, this finding is supported by the positive role and protective factor that ethnic student organizations can serve as for underrepresented students, particularly at Predominantly White Institutions, though the predictor was not significant in this

particular study. Ethnic student organizations have emerged sources of cultural validation by creating environments in which students feel accepted and supported through cultural familiarity and validation (Museus, 2008). While not all students who identify as Asian American are necessarily members of an ethnic student organization, those who seek out the experience and connection may be more resilient than their peers who do not and as such are more likely to be able to respond to adversity or setbacks. More specific research exploring the role that ethnic identity may play in the development of resilience for Asian American students is necessary.

Pre-test for resilience. Unsurprisingly, students who indicated they were resilient prior to coming to college were more likely to be resilient in college.

Overall dispositional hope. The finding that students' overall hope emerges as a significant, positive predictor of resilience confirms that these constructs are deeply interrelated. While this analysis does not show a causal relationship indicating that one must have hope to be resilient, it supports the supposition that goal-orientation and the ability to identify pathways and execute agency towards a goal is undoubtedly related to one's ability to adapt positively after a setback.

Leadership efficacy. Identifying leadership efficacy as a significant predictor of resilience illuminates the connection between efficacy and resilience as developmental processes that can be enhanced by campus experiences, programs, and environments. Resilience is deeply connected to leadership, especially in how leaders persevere and persist in difficult and challenging circumstances, and navigate systems of power, ambiguous situations, and interpersonal conflicts and situations (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002; Kodama, 2014; Luthans & Hughes, 2006; Luthans, Avolio, Avey & Norman, 2007). This

connection is unsurprising as *leadership self-efficacy* has been explained as the “levels of confidence in the knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with leading others” (Hannah, Avoilio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008, p.1). In this study, leadership efficacy emerged as a predictor of resilience, and as such I posit that one must be *efficacious* (in the context of leadership or otherwise) prior to being resilient. Essentially, if you believe you can do something, you are more likely to think you can rebound from a setback. For example, when babies are learning to walk, they must first believe they can walk, stand up, and take a step and tumble, only to get back up again and again. This anecdote supports the argument that efficacy precedes resilience, and links them as vital student development processes.

Age. The finding of age as a significant predictor of resilience speaks to the potential impact that maturity may have as students become resilient individuals. In this dataset, the younger students are more likely to have responded to the survey during their first year of college, during a time of great transition. First-year students are more likely than older peers to experience stress, anxiety and uncertainty in the context of the first-year student experience, particularly related to the establishment of social supports and overall adjustment to college (Dawson & Pooley, 2013). Further, social support is significantly correlated with increased resilience, and first-year students simply have less time to establish such networks than peers who are older (Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, & Pancer, 2000). This finding supports the notion that the older a respondent is, the higher their resilience score, reflecting the potential impact that experience, time and adjustment may have in an individual’s ability to overcome adversity and positively adjust to a situation or situations in the context of college.

Gender. Acknowledging the deeply gendered nature of this discussion, it should be noted that gender differences in responses to stressful events cannot be understated (Hirani, Lasiuk, & Hegadoren, 2016). Gender is often explored as a correlate of resilience, particularly as a protective factor for women as a result of social supports and resource utilization (Perez et al., 2009; Werner, 1989). The initial cross-tabulation conducted in Chapter Four explored resilience and gender and showed that in the MSL Big Ten Coalition dataset, college women tend to have lower self-rated resilience as compared to men. As such, this finding that identifying as women is a negative predictor of resilience is particularly interesting, though not unexpected as women have demonstrated lower resilience and increased levels of stress than their peers who identify as men (Stratta et al., 2013).

Dependent Variable: Hope

After controlling for demographic characteristics, the following predictors were significant, positive predictors of hope: (a) gender, (b) the pre-test for hope, (c) resilience (d) leadership efficacy, and (e) mentorship by another student. The following predictors emerged as significant, negative predictors of hope: (a) identifying as an Asian-American student, and (b) being a first-generation student.

Gender. In this analysis, students responding that they identified as men emerged as a significant predictor of hope. The earlier cross-tabulation analysis indicating that students who identify as men have higher hope than students who identify as women supports this finding. Conversely, women were more likely to indicate they had lower levels of hope as compared to men. Specifically relating to the construct of hope, it may be possible that gender (male) has emerged as a positive predictor of hope based on

existing societal gender stereotypes and the influence it has over men's and women's perceptions of career and goal attainment. As the construct of hope is related to how individuals identify pathways and agency towards goals, gender stereotype could explain why college student men feel less limited than college student women who have pre-conceived notions of male-dominated fields or traditionally female domestic roles (Heaven & Ciarrochi, 2008).

Pre-test for hope. Similar to the analysis of resilience, students who indicated they had higher levels of hope prior to coming to college were more likely to have higher levels of hope in college.

Resilience. The finding of resilience as a significant, positive predictor of hope continues to support the connection between resilience and hope. The analysis does not show a causal relationship indicating that one must be resilient to have hope, rather it continues to support the assertion that the ability to adapt positively after a setback is undoubtedly linked to the elements of hope (pathways and agency).

Leadership efficacy. The positive relationship between leadership efficacy and hope is a fascinating finding. Efficacy and hope are undoubtedly connected as motivation-based concepts. For example, a student must believe they are capable of winning an election among their peers before identifying the pathways and agency necessary to achieve the goal of becoming Student Government President. Without the self-efficacy to believe they are capable of leading others or working successfully on a team, they are unable to engage and develop their goal-attainment or hope.

Mentorship by another student. Notably, this is the only variable relating to mentorship that emerged as a significant predictor of either hope or resilience. Given that

the construct of hope is largely related to goal-orientation and goal-attainment, the finding that mentorship by another individual is a significant predictor speaks the important role that peer relationships play in setting an example of possibilities for students. Peer coaching has been shown to enhance individual's knowledge frameworks and broaden perspectives both of which are likely instrumental in developing hope pathways and agency (Spence & Grant, 2007). Within the college context, students may experience mentorship by another student in formal and informal ways. Mentorship by another student likely most often occurs in an informal setting, through student organizations, classes, residence hall settings and other similar, non-formalized experiences. Informal mentoring is based on the relationship that is built in which "insight, knowledge, wisdom, friendship and support" is gained (Inzer & Crawford, 2005, p. 5). Both formal and informal mentoring opportunities provide context for students to reflect on their own hope (pathways and agency) in the context of the experience of their peers. Undoubtedly, this meaningful peer interaction stands to inspire and encourage students to consider and develop agency towards their own personal, professional, and academic goals.

Identifying as Asian American. While identifying as Asian American student emerged as a positive predictor for resilience, this variable has a converse relationship with the dependent variable hope. Asian American students largely come from collectivistic cultures that are focused on pursuing communal goals that reflect the desires and wishes of those around them (Oishi & Diener, 2009). A potential explanation regarding the negative predictor rests in the fact that the hope scale included in the MSL instrument seeks to measure *individual* goal attainment only. It is likely that students who

identify as Asian American may be deeply connected to family and community, and this is reflected in their perspective of goal-attainment. Beyond familial or cultural implications related to Asian American students and hope, the role that mental health may play in relation to goal attainment cannot be ignored. This will be more fully explored in the section exploring the variable of interest, long-lasting condition.

First-Generation college student. This finding is concerning, though admittedly not unexpected. First-generation college students stand to be one of the most vulnerable student populations attending college today. Nearly 33% of students nationally indicate that they are the first in their families to attend college, and yet 27% of these students will not complete their degrees within four years (Whitley, Benson, & Wesaw, 2018). While there are many protective factors available for first-generation college students such as intentionally designed interventions and supports, perhaps the inverse relationship with goal-attainment is a reflection of relying on individuals outside of their immediate family. As a result, it is possible that first-generation college students are exposed to fewer individuals with high levels of goal-attainment or hope. Ramos (2019) argued that student affairs professionals should mentor and empower first-generation students to advocate for themselves, which may ultimately promote the development of hope among this student population.

Discussion of the Variable of Interest

Long-lasting condition. A full exploration of both resilience and hope in the context of the variable of interest, long-lasting condition is necessary, given the discussion surrounding college student mental health explored in Chapter 1. The presence of a long-lasting condition is not so narrowly tailored as to include only mental health

related issues such as major depression, anxiety, suicidal ideation or other similar psychological challenges a student may experience. Instead, as explored by the MSL, long-lasting condition includes any physical, visual, auditory, mental, emotional or other condition that “substantially limits one or more major life activities.” (MSL Codebook, 2018). In the Big Ten Coalition dataset, 12.5% of students responded indicating they had any type of long-lasting condition. The MSL instrument asks students to further indicate the type of long-lasting condition and students are able to choose from the following: deaf/hard of hearing, blind/visual impairment, speech/language condition, learning disability, physical or musculoskeletal, attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder, psychiatric/psychological condition, neurological condition, medical or not listed (MSL Codebook, 2018). Of the 12.5% of students in the Big Ten Coalition dataset who indicated they had any sort of long-lasting condition, 57.6% responded that the long-lasting condition was psychological or psychiatric in nature. These data are consistent with the findings of the American College Health Association, which reports that 53.3% of college students have been diagnosed with a long-lasting condition within the last year (American College Health Association, 2019). While the discussion of the variable should not be limited only to mental health, with over half of the respondents indicating a long-lasting condition related to mental health, it is a considerable concern.

A negative relationship with resilience emerged among students who indicated they had a long-lasting condition that substantially limits one or more daily functions. As a variable of interest in the study, particularly considering college student mental health, there is limited scholarship supporting the notion that individuals with higher resilience have significantly lower anxiety and depression than those with lower resilience. There

is, however, an association between resilience and certain psychological or psychiatric conditions, such as anxiety and depression (Bitsikia, Sharpley, & Peters, 2010). The findings of this study support a converse relationship between mental health and resilience, though an exploration of other long-lasting conditions such as physical, visual, auditory challenges and their relationship to resilience should be more deeply explored (Hartley, 2011; 2013).

In this study, the regression analysis did not uncover a statistically significant relationship between hope and long-lasting condition. However, earlier crosstabulation analyses did reveal individuals who had a long-lasting condition (20.2%) had lower hope than their peers who do not (14.1%). As hope is a construct largely related to future events in the context of goal attainment, *hopelessness* is described as “a feeling that the future holds little promise” and is undoubtedly related to mental health as well as the other long-lasting conditions included in the MSL survey (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 296). Even though there was no statistically significant finding related to long-lasting condition and hope, the potential connection between low hope, or hopelessness, and mental health, leaves more to explore.

Recent collegiate mental health statistics indicate that within the last year, over 55.9% of students responded that they felt hopeless, over 65.7% of students felt overwhelming anxiety, and 45.1% said they felt so depressed it was difficult to function (American College Health Association, 2019). These experiences are particularly salient for some of the student identities that emerged as predictors of resilience or hope in this study. Several student identities emerged as either positive or negative predictors, which can be interpreted as protective or vulnerability factors, for both resilience and hope.

Long-lasting condition emerged as a potential vulnerability factor for the development of both resilience and hope, especially in relation to mental health. This section will briefly explore race, gender and first-generation student status through the lens of mental health to more deeply contextualize the findings of this study.

The prevalence of mental health related concerns varies across student demographic groups as well as campus contexts. A 2013 study by Eisenberg, Hunt and Speer examined the correlates between mental health and sex, race and ethnicity to better contextualize mental health problems. This study revealed that students identifying as women are more likely to experience depression, feel hopeless, and have higher anxiety than male-identifying peers (Eisenberg, Hunt, & Speer, 2013). Looking specifically at race, 24.2% of Asian American students and 26.2% of Latino/Hispanic students indicated they experienced anxiety or depression as compared to only 19.9% of their White peers, further conflating race and mental health (Eisenberg, Hunt, & Speer, 2013). There are many reasons that race may be a factor in increased mental health concerns for Asian American and Latino or Hispanic students. Perceived discrimination has been associated with greater risk for psychological distress (Hwang & Goto, 2008). For students from underrepresented groups, the resulting stress from discriminatory experiences directly relates to mental health, especially increased anxiety and depression (Hwang & Goto, 2008). Further complicating the realities surrounding mental health and race is the stigma associated with help-seeking behaviors, especially for Asian American students (Eisenberg, Downs, Golberstein & Zivin, 2009). Possibly contributing to this increased stigma, both Asian American and Latino/Hispanic students report more negative attitudes regarding mental health treatment than their peers in other racial groups (Eisenberg et al.,

2009; Shea & Yeh, 2008). Despite higher levels of depression and an awareness that they may need the services, first-generation students are also less likely than their non-first-generation peers to seek out mental health assistance on campus (Jenkins, Belanger, Connally, Boals, & Durón, 2013; Stebleton, Soria, & Huesman, 2014). This brief exploration of mental health that is contextualized by select demographic characteristics that emerged as predictors in this study demonstrate the discourse that conflates resilience and hope with mental health concerns.

Overall, long-lasting condition remains a variable of interest for all college students, but particularly for women, Asian American students and Latino and Hispanic students.

Discussion & Theoretical Model

I begin this discussion by first acknowledging that the findings of this study did not indicate a statistically significant mean difference in resilience for students who participated in multicultural fraternities or sororities, racial ethnic groups, or religious organization involvement. There was no statistically significant mean difference in hope for students participating in racial/ethnic groups or religious organizations. Further, none of the variables relating to racial/ethnic involvement, religious organizations or multicultural fraternities or sororities emerged as a statistically significant predictor of resilience or hope. Existing scholarship documents the importance that these race-based spaces may offer students: providing space to build community and allowing underrepresented student populations to thrive in an environment where social, cultural and academic capital is largely held by dominant cultures (Lozano, 2010). Further, physical spaces such as cultural centers as well as student involvement in ethnic student

organizations often provide students of color support and belonging, particularly in the context of predominantly white institutions (Bowman, Park & Denson, 2015; Museus, 2008). There exists a potential for this study to be misconstrued resulting in individuals understating the importance of spaces for students of color on campus. Though in this study, the race-related variables did not emerge as statistically significant, the findings do not discount the many ways in which race-related student organizations and spaces may act as protective factors for students in their development of resilience and hope.

In this study, resilience and hope have emerged as deeply interrelated constructs with inextricable links to self-efficacy. As explained in Chapter 2, self-efficacy is an individual's belief in their capacity to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance and is an integral component of resilience and hope (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy specifically relates to hope and goal attainment through similar affective, cognitive, and motivational components of the constructs. Self-efficacious individuals focus on specific tasks, identify what is necessary to achieve, and are devoted to a largely internal motivation process. To further understand the relationship between self-efficacy, resilience, and hope, it is important to first explore the four primary sources of efficacy beliefs: *enactive mastery experience*, *vicarious experience*, *verbal persuasion*, and *physiological and affective states* as potentially interrelated constructs (Bandura, 1997, p. 79).

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership explores leadership self-efficacy based on the belief that students increase their leadership skills during college, which results in an increase in their own leadership development and self-efficacy (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). The Leadership Efficacy scale included in

the MSL is based upon Bandura's (1997) work exploring Social Learning Theory and asks students to indicate the level of confidence they have in relation to working on a team or group project and leading others (Dugan & Komives, 2007). There are four main components to leadership efficacy: (a) leadership efficacy for **behaviors**, which are necessary to execute agency; (b) leadership efficacy for **thought**, which relates to the cognition of effective solutions and the visualization of success; (c) leadership efficacy for **motivation**, relating to goal setting and action towards achieving such goals; and (d) leadership efficacy for **means**, involving the ability to draw on external resources to act (Hannah et al., 2008).

These four components can arguably be applied to the central constructs of resilience and hope as the way an individual may lead themselves through the process of becoming resilient or attaining their goals. While the MSL utilizes efficacy specifically related to the context of leadership efficacy, for the purposes of discussion and analysis, I will more broadly utilize and apply the construct of efficacy (or self-efficacy) and use the terms interchangeably.

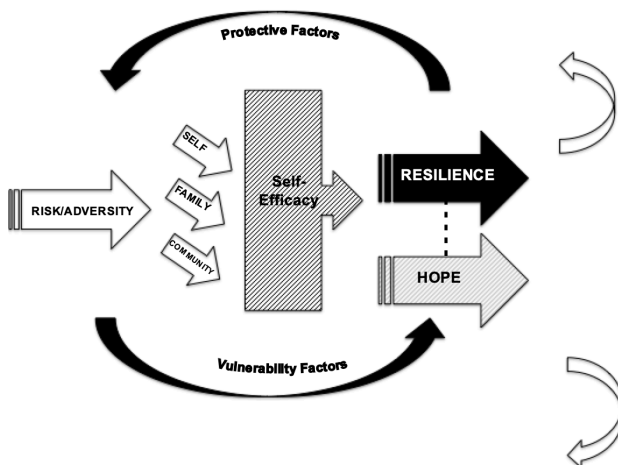
An Emergent Model: Resilience, Hope, & Self-Efficacy

I present this theoretical model to explain the emergent, significant relationship between resilience, hope, and self-efficacy. Similarly to how Dugan and Komives (2007) explained that students develop and hone leadership skills during college, I posit that both resilience and hope are skills that are developed and honed throughout the course of a student's undergraduate experience. On a fundamental level, self-efficacy explains a belief we possess about our own abilities to accomplish something, and beyond that,

whether we believe that the outcome may be favorable (“Four Sources of Efficacy Beliefs,” 2008).

This model is grounded in efficacy as a construct that explores the interdependence between social structures that surround an individual, environmental influences, and personal and collective agency (Kodama, 2014). Further, the self-efficacy an individual possesses can have wide-ranging effects on aspirations and motivation (goals), motivation, efforts and affective reactions (resilience) (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy may actually emerge as an overall protective factor in the development of resilience and hope with broader implications for personal development in the context of college beyond just the leadership setting (Hamill, 2003). Given the emergent role of efficacy as such a significant protective factor, I posit that efficacy precedes the development of resilience and hope by acting as a filter through which both constructs are subsequently developed. In this model, one must develop efficacy before developing resilience and hope, as supported by the findings of my study indicating that efficacy is a positive predictor of both resilience and hope. This is reflected in the model in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1
An Emergent Model of College Student Efficacy, Resilience & Hope



This model builds upon Luthar and Cicchetti's (2000) framework of risk and resilience along with the presence of protective and vulnerability factors. This model demonstrates that resilience and hope may develop as a result of the individual and the context in which they are operating. While the term *risk* seems limiting, the terminology supports the scholarship that resilience may be developed in the context of trauma or predisposed risk. Adversity may be interpreted in a number of ways to allow for flexibility with the model. Adversity could be described as students in the foster care system, or it could be explained as a difficult course, family upheaval, interpersonal relationship conflict, or academic setback that a student is experiencing at any given time. This model challenges the notion that resilience and hope are traits developed in the context of negative circumstances, but instead deeply connected to self-efficacy through an iterative process of developing resilience and hope in the context of risk or adversity, mitigated by protective and vulnerability factors.

In the model, risk or adversity is filtered through self-efficacy, leading to the development of resilience and hope, and then the cycle continues iteratively. Protective and vulnerability factors impact a student's development at any time and may present differently for different students at different points in their development. Aspects of a student's lived-experiences, identity, pre-college characteristics, family structure, and social adaptability are just a few potential factors that can hinder or promote a student's development in this working model. Conversely, more environmental experiences such as mentorship, sense of belonging, self-efficacy, student involvement, and family structure may serve as protective factors influencing the ways a student may develop resilience or

hope. Vulnerability and protective factors should be explored more, examining how they interact with the construct of and development of resilience. This model positions resilience and hope as simultaneous developments, occurring as a result of risk or adversity, placed in the broad context of the college experience, influenced by protective and vulnerability factors, and filtered through self-efficacy.

The model acknowledges the risk and adversity that is ever-present in a student's college experience as the theoretical beginning point to this cyclical model, recognizing that these dynamic and developmental processes are ongoing, not end-state destinations. Students do not enter college as "leaders," rather they engage in experiences that allow them to hone their leadership skills. Students do not enter college "learned," rather they experience many learning moments which continue to build upon and enhance their knowledge base. As such, this model defies the notion that college students cannot cope or are not resilient or able to identify pathways and agency towards goals. Instead, this model reclaims the narrative and demonstrates resilience and hope as ongoing developmental processes enhanced or inhibited by the undergraduate experience.

The results of this study are reflected in the components of this emergent model as well. Earlier analyses demonstrate that race can emerge as a positive or negative predictor of resilience and hope, acting as both protective and vulnerability factors. Pre-college characteristics demonstrated by the resilience and hope pre-tests serve as protective factors, promoting the development of the constructs. Further, my analysis revealed that long-lasting condition (including psychological or psychiatric conditions which may encompass mental health issues) emerged as a vulnerability factor along with a student's status as first-generation or not. Finally, age emerged as a positive predictor in the

analysis examining predictors of resilience, perhaps indicating that maturity may be a protective factor as well. On a more individual level, this model seeks to explain the personal protective and vulnerability factors experienced while developing resilience and hope. Individual students may experience these factors differently, which is accounted for in the emergent model.

Limitations

I present four limitations of this study: the cross-sectional nature of the data utilized in this study, the correlational design, the self-report nature of the data, and terminology challenges. First, the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership is collected at only one-time point. The MSL dataset is inherently limited because it cannot measure growth among the respondents. This is slightly mitigated by the use of pre-tests in the measure, though these data are not necessarily accurate as the results rely on respondents' ability to think back to a previous time period.

Next, this study is limited by the correlational design of the analysis. While this study does indicate relationships between variables, the relationships are not causal in nature. For example, while there is an inverse (negative) relationship between several independent variables and the dependent variables, they are not causal.

Additionally, as with many instruments utilized in the social sciences, this dataset is self-report. Given the deeply personal nature of the constructs of resilience and hope, the measure only captures how a student responded to the inventory based on their self-perceptions and their experiences and actions. It is possible that students believe themselves to be more resilient or efficacious in relation to goal-attainment and motivation than a staff or faculty member might deem them to be.

Finally, this research has illuminated a growing issue about how these constructs are explained, defined, and operationalized. While I believe the construct of resilience is growing closer to a more consistent definition across interdisciplinary scholarship to explain successful adaptation despite adversity, the same cannot be said about hope. Hope, or goal motivation, or orientation is a much less utilized construct, likely because the name is misleading. As such, I believe the construct is not applied nearly as much as it should be, especially in the context of higher education. In addition, the construct of efficacy has multiple working definitions, but is often rooted in a leadership context, making the applicability slightly more complex.

Implications for Practice

The Little Engine That Could, a children's book by Watty Piper (1930) tells the story of a train carrying toys and gifts to children on the other side of a hill breaks down before reaching the children. The little engine asks other passing trains for help getting over a big hill, and finally a little blue train stops and agrees to help. The little blue train is small and worried that he cannot pull the train over the hill. Then, the little blue engine hitches the train and pulls and pulls:

[illegible]

Alas, the little blue engine made it up and over the hill with the train carrying toys, making the children in the valley so very happy. The story of *The Little Engine That Could* is a reminder that the importance of efficacy cannot be understated in the context of the challenges and adversity experienced throughout our life experience. The little blue

engine was small. He did not think he could pull the train up the hill, and yet, he did, because *he believed that he could*. The allegory of the little blue train helping the other train up the hill stands as a reminder for the ways in which student affairs administrators, faculty and staff on campus can design and implement support systems for students to develop efficacy around their own resilience and hope. Whether our students are the train that cannot make it up the hill unassisted, or the little blue train that is quite efficacious in their “I think I can, I think I can” determination, the role that college student administrators play in helping students over their own proverbial “hill” cannot be understated.

The developing notion that resilience and hope are inextricably linked to self-efficacy provides several important implications for practice. The findings of this study require that scholars and practitioners wrestle with multiple truths which demonstrate implications for practice both theoretical and practical.

Curricular Implications

From a curricular perspective there are several ways to enhance college student resilience, coping and goal attainment. Institutions are beginning to infuse their first-year curricula with elements of these constructs to help students build these non-cognitive skills. Florida State University has instituted a program titled the “Student Resilience Project” in which all incoming first-year students will complete an online training module that originated out of the institution’s College of Social Work. The program at Florida State University marks one of the first intentional resilience-based education initiatives to be rooted in scholarship, and more institutions are planning to follow suit. The University of Washington recently implemented a Resilience Lab, designed to encourage

vulnerability, failure, compassion, coping, resilience, and strength for and among the student body. Additionally, the first-ever Symposium for Academic Resilience in Higher Education held at the University of Pennsylvania in November of 2018. It is clear that institutions are beginning to recognize and act upon the increasing concern with student resilience and coping and providing resources for student affairs and academic affairs staff members to design and implement such initiatives.

Further, as the discourse shifts developing college student resilience and hope from a curricular perspective, much can be learned from exploring how transformative leadership efficacy and leadership education has evolved in the context of higher education. *Leadership Reconsidered* (Astin & Astin, 2000) called for a renewed commitment of the ways in which leadership education was considered across a variety of different stakeholders. The authors argued that strengthening student leadership from a societal perspective requires a shift within higher education, including changes to curricula, teaching practices, institutional practices, values, and beliefs (Astin & Astin, 2000). I assert that the same can be stated about how we build efficacious, goal-oriented, resilient students who are equipped for success beyond the grassy knoll of their college campus. To start, this shift can begin by intentionally infusing the constructs of efficacy, resilience and hope within and across the curricula. Examining the ways that students' co-curricular experiences reflect the importance of these constructs offers further reinforcement. For example, out-of-class experiences such as study abroad, research with a faculty member, participation in learning communities and other high-impact practices are ripe with opportunity to infuse elements of the constructs explored in this study,

which may complement what students are more formally learning within the classroom environment.

Mindset Shift Towards Socio-Emotional Wellness

Today's college students are an ever-changing student population that is undoubtedly facing significantly different challenges than previous generations. Mental health concerns are on the rise, with students presenting serious issues such as anxiety, depression, substance abuse, and family distress (Center for Collegiate Mental Health, 2017). This is reflected within the Big Ten Coalition Dataset as 12.5% of the respondents indicated that they had some sort of condition that impacted one or more life functions, including issues such as depression and anxiety, and reinforced by the finding that 57.6% of the respondents responded that their long-lasting condition was psychological or psychiatric in nature. A focus on mental health and socio-emotional wellness requires that institutions do more than simply hire additional counselors to accommodate the growing demand for clinicians. It is in this space that we must accept the complexity of the constructs explored in this study and consider a mindset shifts towards socio-emotional wellness.

A lack of resilience and coping does not necessarily lead to increased mental health concerns, but the increasing concern surrounding mental health on campus cannot be ignored. While this study is unable to directly indicate causality between mental health concerns and the development of college student resilience and hope, there is most certainly a relationship to be further explored. I assert that engaging in a deep critical reflection and discourse about the growing concern over mental health on campus is

necessary, and the role that efficacy, resilience, and hope as well as protective and vulnerability factors should be featured prominently in the dialogue.

Student Success

The discourse in higher education has shifted to language of promoting *student success*. This is a nebulous concept inclusive of so many integral components of student affairs and higher education work: retention, persistence, graduation rates, high-impact practices, academic achievement, engagement, wellness, and so much more. Astin and Astin (2000) argued that for students to embrace leadership and see themselves as leaders, faculty and staff needed to realize their influence and model the qualities of effective leaders. Faculty and staff can enact values through implicit modeling, which is the foundation of embracing a broader approach to student success, both academically, from a socio-emotional perspective, and through all facets of the student experience. For students to embrace the process of becoming resilient and goal-oriented, faculty and staff must model what it means to be resilient and goal-oriented. It is in this space where the narrative begins to shift from the belief that today's college students cannot cope or are not resilient, to modeling what it means to possess these skills and qualities. This implication requires modeling the shared value that fundamentally, faculty and staff believe students can make it up the proverbial "hill," rather than embracing a discourse of negativity about what students cannot do, further promulgating the deficit narrative surrounding college student resilience and hope. This requires a shift in mindset, which recognizes that college student resilience and hope are transformational, developmental processes, with deep implications for student success within and beyond college.

A renewed commitment towards student success requires institutions to re-examine their values and consider resource allocation in order to fully change the narrative. For example, centralizing student success in the context of one office provides a streamlined approach that is likely more easily navigated by students. While few student affairs staff members or faculty members are likely to outright tell a student “you can’t,” institutions may be subliminally messaging students this deficit mindset without realizing it. Instead, viewing student success as a partnership between the student and the institution through decision-making, resource allocation and staffing decisions can only strengthen the supportive messaging.

Directions for Future Research

This exploratory study has uncovered several areas of future research. I have identified the following areas of future research: additional exploration of the interrelatedness of the constructs of efficacy, resilience, and hope; the influence of socio-cultural factors; and long-lasting conditions and the potential conflation with mental health concerns, mentorship, and varied methodological approaches:

Efficacy, Resilience & Hope

There is scant research exploring the relationship between resilience and self-efficacy, particularly in the context of the college student experience. Perhaps since it feels more applicable to practical experiences, efficacy in the college context errs more towards a discourse around leadership efficacy. Given that efficacy presents itself largely about an internal set of beliefs about what an individual can or cannot do, future research might explore how this manifests in relation to more developmental psycho-social constructs such as resilience and hope.

Socio-Cultural Factors

While the results of this analysis indicated both positive and negative relationships to resilience and hope, with regards to race, race-related organizations, racial/ethnic student groups and religious student groups did not. The role that identity may play as a vulnerability or protective factor in the context of college student development is an area that must be explored in depth. Given the political climate on campuses and across the country, the ways in which politics, policies, and current events may impact the resilience and hope of students of color and marginalized student populations cannot be ignored. Additionally, the exploration of culture in context of both resilience and hope should be considered as an area to consider, given the strong influence that culture plays in college student development.

Beyond the exploration of vulnerability or protective factors, a deeper exploration of how underrepresented students make meaning of their own resilience and hope should be considered. It may be possible that cultural and family influences impact how students see themselves as resilient or goal-oriented, or even broadly interpret the constructs. Further understanding the ways students internalize what it may mean to be resilient or goal-oriented will provide scholars another mechanism by which to interpret more quantitative findings exploring these constructs, such as those included in this study.

Long-Lasting Condition (The Conflation of Mental Health)

This study uncovered a negative relationship between resilience and students who indicated they had a long-lasting condition, but no relationship (positive or negative) was found between this variable of interest and the construct of hope. Long-lasting condition includes any physical, visual, auditory, mental, emotional or other condition that

“substantially limits one or more major life activities.” (MSL Codebook, 2018). The MSL dataset disaggregates the data even further by asking students to identify their long-lasting condition as one of the following: deaf/hard of hearing, blind/visual impairment, speech/language condition, learning disability, physical or musculoskeletal, attention deficit disorder/attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, psychiatric/psychological condition, neurological condition, medical and unlisted conditions (MSL Codebook, 2018). Given the rising concern of mental health issues on campus, this is an area of significant future research examining more deeply the relationship between students’ experiences and the presence of a long-lasting condition in the context of learning and development.

Mentorship & Resilience

The analyses of Research Questions 1 and 2 clearly indicated a significant difference in both resilience and hope for students who engaged in the following mentoring relationships: mentorship by a faculty/instructor, academic or student affairs professional staff, employer, community member, parent or guardian, or other student. Though in the regression analyses, mentorship only emerged as a significant predictor of hope, presenting an area of future research. Undoubtedly, higher education scholarship recognizes the role the mentorship can play relating to student success, so a further exploration of mentorship, resilience, and hope is warranted. In particular, the finding that mentorship by another student emerged as a positive predictor of hope provides interesting insight supporting existing scholarship that social support can have a positive impact on student success, particularly for an increasingly diverse college student profile.

Varied Methodological Approaches

As explored in Chapter Two, nearly all the studies discussed were either strictly qualitative or strictly quantitative in nature. Because of the nature of resilience and hope as developmental processes that are ever changing throughout the college student experience (and lifetime), I suggest the exploration of these concepts through mixed methodologies. This type of approach might provide scholars and practitioners with even more insight into the patterns, trends, and experiences related to resilience and hope. Further, I assert that a more longitudinal approach to understanding the constructs of resilience and hope would contribute significantly to meaning making in the context of the college environment. The finding of age as a significant predictor of resilience supports the connection to maturity and growth across a time period. As such, exploring a longitudinal study that could examine changes in resilience and growth throughout the college experience, influenced by vulnerability and protective factors has great future potential.

Conclusion

When I graduated high school, the superintendent spoke at my graduation ceremony and at the end of his remarks shared the following, which I have paraphrased:

In a few moments you'll come up to the stage to receive your diploma. As I shake your hand I'll whisper, "*just keep moving*" in your ear. These words not only serve as a directional command to keep moving off the stage and return to your seat, but advice for life. (Personal Communication, Germiniario, 2002)

These words have remained with me since June of 2002 and are echoed in the findings of this dissertation. *Just. Keep. Moving.* Regardless of the setbacks experienced, it is the job of student affairs professionals to help students keep moving. To keep

pushing up the hill. To become efficacious individuals who are able to rebound from challenge after challenge and look confidently into the future to set and achieve their goals.

I set out to examine a largely understudied aspect of higher education in relation to how student affairs practitioners and scholars understand students' personal characteristics and environmental influences as they relate to their development of resilience and hope. This study serves as an integral first step to reframe and reclaim the narrative. My analysis indicates that the important programs and initiatives being executed on college campuses do significantly impact student resilience and hope, and yet there is so much more to explore. I continue to argue that while the emergent conversations around student resilience and coping are largely from a deficit perspective: the story that has emerged is instead bright and hopeful. As higher education enters a new decade the face of today's college student continues to change, so too must student affairs scholars and practitioners.

Chapter 1 painted a bleak and dreary outlook for college student resilience and coping with a deafening narrative defined by the thoughts and assumptions of college administrators and faculty. Gray's quote and others like it only stand to perpetuate this narrative: "The lack of resilience is interfering with the academic mission of the University and is thwarting the emotional and personal development of students." (Gray, 2015, para. 4). And yet, the finding that (leadership) efficacy is a significant predictor of both resilience and hope boldly challenges this narrative. It is in this place where the narrative shifts. It is no longer about whether administrators, faculty or staff *think* college students cannot cope or are not resilient. It is about whether students *think they can*. The

constructs of resilience and hope emerge as developmental processes deeply embedded and influenced by a variety of protective and vulnerability factors throughout the college experience. Rather than perceiving such student challenges as interference in our mission and thwarting the emotional and personal development of students, we must encourage it, and recognize and embrace the protective and vulnerability factors constantly at play for students. The reality is, developing students' resilience and hope *is* the academic mission of the University. **Our students have changed the narrative for us, now it is up to us to tell their story.**

APPENDIX 1 CORRELATION MATRIX: RESILIENCE

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APPENDIX 2 CORRELATION MATRIX: HOPE

		Correlation																																												
		OUTHOPE: Overall Measure of Disposition of Hope (mean)										INVA: Membership by Faculty/Staff																	INVA: Membership by Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff							INVA: Membership by Other Student			INVA: Membership by Multicultural Social Faculties and Sciences		INVA: Membership by Social Faculties or Sciences		INVA: Religion - Have you been involved in the following kinds of student groups during college?		INVA: Research with a Faculty member	
Person	Combination	DC: Black	DC: Latino	DC: Asian	DC: Multi	DC: Middle East	DC: European	DC: Pacific	DC: Long Lasting Condition	DC: Prevalent Hope (mean)	DC: What is your goal?	DC: Resilience (mean)	DC: Leadership (mean)	DC: Learning/Co	INVA1: Membership by Faculty/Staff	INVA2: Membership by Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff	INVA3: Membership by Faculty/Staff	INVA4: Membership by Community Member	INVA5: Membership by Parent/Guardian	INVA6: Membership by Other Student	INVA7: Membership by Multicultural Social Faculties and Sciences	INVA8: Membership by Social Faculties or Sciences	INVA9: Religion - Have you been involved in the following kinds of student groups during college?	INVA10: Research with a Faculty member	INVA11: Faculty/Staff																					
Person on Person	OUTHOPE: Overall Measure of Disposition of Hope (mean)	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
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	DC: Latino	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
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	DC: Multi	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: Middle East	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: European	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: Pacific	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: Long Lasting Condition	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: Prevalent Hope (mean)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: What is your goal?	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: Resilience (mean)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: Leadership (mean)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	DC: Learning/Co	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
	INVA1: Faculty/Staff	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																				
INVA2: Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																					
INVA3: Faculty/Staff	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																					
INVA4: Community Member	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																					
INVA5: Parent/Guardian	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																					
INVA6: Other Student	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																					
INVA7: Multicultural Social Faculties and Sciences	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																					
INVA8: Social Faculties or Sciences	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000																					
INVA9: Religion - Have you been involved in the following kinds of student groups during college?	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000																					
INVA10: Research with a Faculty member	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000																					
INVA11: Faculty/Staff	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000																					

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