RESIDENT ASSISTANT WORKPLACE MOTIVATION:

A MID-ATLANTIC REGIONAL STUDY

By

Katherine B. Boone

Dissertation Submitted

in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

College of Education
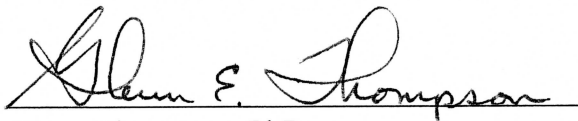
Frostburg State University

May 2016

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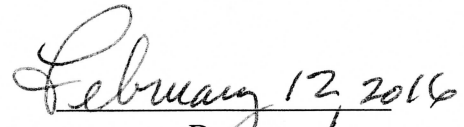A MID-ATLANTIC REGIONAL STUDY

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The undersigned, appointed by the Dean of the College of Education, have examined and approved this dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.
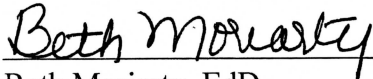
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Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge those who were critical to the completion of this paper. Thank you to Marymount, Rowan and Bloomsburg Universities. I would like to thank the MACUHO leadership. I am grateful to Dr. Ann Ho Becks for her assistance. Thanks to Dana Severance for his support, guidance, and insight. Cohort (13) you are amazing professionals, and I learned so much from you. I would like to thank Kate and Carol in particular for their constant support and friendship. Thank you to my committee for your knowledge, expertise, time, and commitment. Dr. Childs, thank you for your keen observations. Dr. Moriarty, thanks for your challenging insights and knowledge of the field of housing. Dr. Davidson, thank you for your APA expertise, editing and methodology wisdom. I would like to highlight Dr. Glenn Thompson, not only my chair, but also an incredible professor and leader to emulate. I am forever indebted to you for the knowledge I have gained through your instruction and friendship.

I would also like to acknowledge my friends, colleagues and family for their support and patience with me through this process. Thank you for being so supportive and understanding during this process. Most important, I want to acknowledge my husband, Charlie Boone, my editor, sounding board, devil's advocate, cheerleader, and all-around amazing person. Your patience and assistance have been tremendous.

This work is dedicated to my family. My parents, Peter and Judy Davis, for their amazing love and support. My children, Nicholas and Hannah Boone, who inspire and motivate me. My husband, Charlie Boone, I could not have done this without you, and I am in awe of your insight, intellect, work ethic, and most of all your love. I love you all.

Abstract

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Minimal research has been conducted relative to the sources of work motivation for resident assistants (RAs) over the last decade. As more challenges and responsibilities are added to the expectations of the RA position, determining what current factors motivate students to apply for the RA position is essential. By examining the motivational factors of students who accept the RA role, housing professionals may focus their energies more appropriately to staff the position with highly qualified individuals.

The literature review traces the evolution of the RA position and cites relevant research on motivation. The study included 231 respondents from 46 different institutions in the Mid-Atlantic region. The research found that helping behaviors was the most prominent factor for seeking the RA position. The desire to meet financial obligations was also a significant consideration. RA cohesiveness also was a factor of prominence. There were no significant differences in motivational factors when comparing work characteristics (type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, class standing of population RA was serving, number of students the RA served on floor/wing, and type of institution) or demographic characteristics (gender, race/ethnicity). In addition, there were no work or demographic characteristics that could predict high levels of motivation for current RAs. This finding can allow housing professionals to focus more clearly on one recruitment strategy.

Keywords: Resident Assistant Motivation, RA, RA role, RA job

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

Resident Assistants (RAs) have played a critical role in the management of residence halls since the 1960s (Upcraft & Pilato, 1982). Bailey and Granpre (1997) indicated the importance of the resident assistant position, noting that "for decades, the resident assistant position has been regarded as the cornerstone in the operation of housing departments and the enhancement of student learning and development" (p. 40). This role has evolved over time and grown in complexity, just as the landscape of all of higher education has. "Colleges and universities are complex organizations operating in a diverse and ever-changing environment with shifting values, varying states of economic prosperity, and obscure permutations of political power" (Bess & Dee, 2012, p. 2).

RAs are expected to serve as role models, problem solvers, counselors, mediators, campus resources, community builders, and administrators as a part-time job while in pursuit of their undergraduate degree (Blimling, 2010). The current role of the RA has not changed tremendously in terms of the specific outlined job description. However, the demands, breadth and depth of the job responsibilities, as they play out in contemporary residence halls across the United States, have been enormously expanded. Papandrea recently reported in 2015 that the role of the RA is an evolving and complex one. As our society has become more challenging, with drug usage, mental health issues, and increased diversity among college students, RAs are asked to do more and different tasks efficiently within the housing and residence life operations (Papandrea, 2015). Additionally, there are greater expectations for deeper learning. Zumeta, Breneman, Callan, and Finney (2012) shared, "Citizenship itself now calls for higher levels of critical thinking, problem solving, and social and political interaction skills in a

multicultural context that higher education, at its best, can cultivate and hone" (p. 5).

Further, students today enter higher education institutions with an increasing number of

emotional and personal challenges, and the RA role has become more stressful as a result

(Brandt Brecheisen, 2014). Compensation for the role of RA has remained relatively

unchanged, most commonly consisting of room and board, with some variations (Horvath

& Stack, 2013). The ability of housing professionals to continue to attract high quality

students to apply for the RA position and keep them motivated to remain in the position

is growing increasingly difficult (Crandall, 2004).

Statement of the Problem

Minimal research has been conducted relative to the sources of work motivation

for RAs over the last decade. As more and more challenges and responsibilities are added

to the expectations of RAs, determining what factors motivate students to desire the RA

position is essential. By identifying and better understanding current motivational factors

of students who accept the RA role, housing professionals may create circumstances that

could ease the difficulty in staffing the position with highly qualified individuals.

Attracting and employing such individuals is critical in establishing and maintaining

successful housing programs. Housing professionals want to hire students who are able to

juggle the demands of the position and their schoolwork (Blimling, 2010). A scarcity of

students interested in the RA position who are both academically and socially mature has

necessitated hiring first-year students that may be applying for the RA position after only

one semester or less at the institution (Schaller & Wagner, 2007). While housing

professionals conduct rigorous selection processes, often including multiple interviews,

an application, and a group role-playing component, understanding the rationale for the

students' desire to become an RA is difficult (Upcraft & Pilato, 1982). Several studies have been conducted to examine RA motivation (Bell, 2002; Bierman, 1992; Deluga & Winter, 1991). One quantitative study specifically studied RAs to ask the question, "Why did they apply for the position?" This study was conducted by Deluga & Winter in 1991 and was replicated by Bell in 2002. Bierman conducted a study in 1992 using a different instrument but seeking the answers to the same question. These studies were conducted more than ten years ago, and the complexity of job expectations for RAs has grown dramatically in that time.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine motivational factors of current RAs when they applied for the RA position. The job description of the RA has evolved over time and the complexity of the job requirements have grown tremendously, which raises concerns regarding current housing professionals' ability to continue to attract and retain qualified student staff (Crandall, 2004). The research seeks to discover the most significant motivational factors as well as predictors of motivation. Further, the study aims to understand if those motivational factors change with the influence of time in the position or vary given specific demographic and work environment characteristics (gender, race and ethnicity, type of institution, type of residential community, number of students RA was serving, and class standing of students the RA was serving).

Significance of the Study

The results of this research should prove valuable to higher education housing professionals in their work to recruit qualified students to the RA role. Current prominent motivational factors identified may provide important information for marketing

campaigns and recruitment of RAs. The findings relative to demographic and work environment characteristics may reveal substantive elements helpful for housing professionals' work. Included among these factors could be: identifying the optimal number of students an RA serves (RA to student ratio), understanding if there are gender or race and ethnicity factors that influence motivation to assume the role, and understanding if motivation was affected by the type of residential community or class standing of the students the RAs are serving. Moreover, if the study reveals financial compensation as a significant motivating factor, it may lend creditability to housing professional's requests for additional funding. Finally, the study will apprise housing professionals of motivational factors for RAs currently in their positions, which can provide meaningful guidance for training and recognition for RAs. If the motivational factors that attract students to the position are understood, housing professionals can create recruitment materials highlighting those aspects of their RA positions.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The conceptual framework for the study is rooted in a study conducted by Deluga and Winter in 1991. In this study, the authors developed a questionnaire to understand the motivation of RAs to apply for the position. The instrument is entitled Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire (RAMQ). In developing the RAMQ (1991), the authors created a list of items to examine the motives of students who applied for the RA position. This list of items was developed through a literature review, extensive experience of the authors' work with RAs, actual employment of one of the authors as an RA, and interviews with recently retired senior housing professionals. The authors then pilot-tested the list of items with a small sample of current RAs to develop major content areas

to describe RAs rationale to apply for the position.

The final version of the survey that the authors developed measures six motivational factors from the content areas, helping behaviors, career development, desire for power, personal growth, financial obligations, and RA cohesiveness. The helping behavior factor is used to describe the desire of the RA to help their peers as motivation to apply for the position. The career development factor refers to the RA's motivation to include their work on their resume for seeking employment post-graduation, as well as training and experiences that would be attractive to future employers. The desire for power factor indicates the RA's ability to exercise control over others and achieving the residents respect for them as a reason to apply for the RA position. The motivational factor of personal growth refers to the importance of gaining new skills and growing as a professional influence on their desire to apply for the RA position. The financial obligation factor is used to indicate the need to pay expenses and meet financial commitments as a motivation indicator. Finally, the RA cohesiveness factor refers to the desire of the RA to bond with other RAs, be part of a team, and develop friendships as a motivation to apply for the RA position (Deluga & Winter, 1991). The study sought to examine what attracts students to apply for the RA position in relation to the stress and frustration often associated with the position (Deluga & Winter, 1991).

The theoretical framework that guides this study is rooted in Herzberg's two-factor theory: hygiene factors and motivators (Herzberg, 1959). This theory posits that hygiene factors such as salary, work conditions and possibility for promotion can create dissatisfaction if employees identify the factors as inequitable or unsatisfactory. Herzberg

also states that motivation of employees will not necessarily increase if the employee begins to feel the hygiene factors improve. The intrinsic factors: personal growth, mastery, increased autonomy, do motivate employees and can shape job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). Finally, Herzberg (1959) theorizes that satisfaction does not always correlate to better performance.

There are correlations between the work of Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation (Herzberg, 1959) and the RAMQ (Deluga & Winter, 1991) that help to further understand the theoretical framework for the study. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (2010) postulated two categories of factors that affect motivation: the hygiene or extrinsic factors and the motivators or intrinsic factors. They also suggested that factors leading to job satisfaction were "intrinsic," and factors that lead to job dissatisfaction were "extrinsic" (Caston & Braoto, 1985, p. 271). Herzberg (1959) further indicated that the hygiene factors such as salary, work conditions, and the possibility for promotion can create dissatisfaction of employees identify the factors as unfair or insufficient. However, Herzberg postulated that motivation of employees would not increase if the employee begins to feel the hygiene factors improve. The intrinsic factors; personal growth, mastery, increased autonomy, do motivate employees and can shape job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). Finally, Herzberg, et al (2010) posits that satisfaction does not always correlate to better performance. Herzberg posits intrinsic and extrinsic factors leading to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Herzberg's (1959) extrinsic factors could be directly correlated to Deluga & Winter's (1991) motivational factor categories of financial obligations, career development and desire for power. Herzberg's (1959) intrinsic factors would correlate to Deluga and Winter's (1991) motivational factor categories of helping

behaviors, personal growth and RA cohesiveness. In reviewing Deluga and Winter's (1991) results, the factors of helping behaviors, personal growth and RA cohesiveness are the most prominent factors. This would directly correlate to Herzberg's theory (1959) that intrinsic factors motivate employees and help influence job satisfaction. The least prominent factors in the Deluga and Winter (1991) study fall into Herzberg's extrinsic category: career development, desire for power and financial obligations. There has been little research about RA motivators, and the need to understand these factors since the turn of the century is clear. This is particularly true in light of the challenges of recruitment of students to the RA position, principally at smaller institutions, due to financial compensation (Gfeller & Barnhart, 2015).

Research Questions

- What are the most prominent motivational factors for current mid-Atlantic resident assistants?

- Are there significant differences in motivational factors of current resident assistants based on their demographic characteristics (i.e., gender and race/ethnicity)?

- Are there significant differences in motivational factors of current resident assistants based on characteristics of the work environment (i.e., type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, class standing of population RA was serving, number of students the RA was serving on floor/wing, and type of institution)?

- What demographic and work environment characteristics (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA is

serving on floor/wing) can predict high levels of motivation for current resident assistants?

Research Design Overview

The study was designed to use a quantitative format, employing IBM SPSS Statistics (version 23.0) to analyze data collected from the RAMQ and several demographic and work environment characteristic questions (Deluga & Winter, 1991). The study was conducted at the Mid-Atlantic College and University Housing Officers (MACUHO) Student Staff Live-In (SSLI) conference. Typically, 400-600 people, primarily undergraduate RAs, from the mid-Atlantic region attend this one-day conference held early in the fall semester. The SSLI conference was held on October 24, 2015. All conference participants 18 years of age and over were asked to participate in the study through an online questionnaire.

To answer research question one, the analysis included reporting descriptive statistics for each of the six motivational factors. For research questions two and three, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilized. MANOVA compares means of several groups, specifically the relationship between more than one quantitative dependent variable and one or more independent variables and if changes in independent variables affect dependent variables (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). Thus, each cluster of questions that fit into the factor as developed by Deluga and Winter (1991), will be compared with all the demographic and work characteristics.

Finally, regression statistics, specifically hierarchical block regression, were utilized to answer the fourth research question. Hierarchical block regression examined certain demographic and work environment characteristics' ability to predict high levels

of motivation (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA serves on their floor/wing). Regression is a statistical process for estimating the relationships among variables (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). Regression analysis aids in the understanding of how the value of the dependent variable changes (when any one of the independent variables is varied, while the other independent variables are held fixed). Hierarchical block regression allowed for analysis in blocks of variables determined by the researcher building successive linear regression models by adding more predictors (Lewis, 2007).

There were two regression blocks conducted. The first block was between the motivational factors and the demographic characteristics of gender and race/ethnicity. The second block was between the motivational factors and work environment characteristics (type of residential community, number of semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA was serving on floor/wing).

Assumptions

There are several assumptions in this study. The first relates to the respondents answering openly and honestly to the questionnaire, as well as self-reporting responses to the demographic and work environment characteristics. Given the anonymity of the study and minimal risk to the respondents, one can be moderately assured that responses would accurately depict the respondent's true meaning. Finally, for those RAs that have been in the position for more than one year, the assumption was that the respondents accurately recalled the motivational factors relevant when they applied for the position.

Limitations

The study design was limited to current RAs at mid-Atlantic institutions. The data

gathered may not be generalizable to the entire United States. The sample was limited to those RAs in the MACUHO region that attend the SSLI conference. Therefore, housing professionals must consider this factor when applying the results to their institution. In examining the context of the MACUHO SSLI conference as the setting for data collection, the argument could be made that those RAs who attended the conference may inherently be more motivated than those RAs that chose not to attend.

Another limitation may be the result of the instrumentation used in the study. While the authors of the RAMQ did extensive research to determine the six motivational factors in 1991, it is probable that the RAMQ does not measure all possible motivations for seeking the RA position (Deluga & Winter, 1991). Other limitations to the study included redundant data. There was no way to ensure that respondents did not complete the survey more than once. While it was unlikely that a conference participant wanted to take the survey more than once, it should be noted as a possibility.

A pilot administration was conducted to ascertain the administration of the study in an online format and whether current RAs misinterpreted the individual questions of the RAMQ that was developed in 1991. However, it was still possible that RAs could respond to questions that did not accurately reflect their motivation due to misinterpretation (Deluga & Winter, 1991). Further, while sample criteria were established to indicate similar job responsibilities as well as compensation levels for respondents, both vary for individuals based on their home institution.

Delimitations

The study was conducted on October 24, 2015 at the annual MACUHO SSLI conference. The respondents were current RAs from the mid-Atlantic region that attended

the SSLI conference and were over the age of eighteen. Sample criteria were established. The sample criteria are outlined in Chapter Three, and include screening for RAs with similar job responsibilities and compensation levels. Data from respondents that did not meet the sample criteria were excluded from the useable data set for this study.

Definition of Terms

Resident Assistant (RA) is a full-time, undergraduate, peer paraprofessional, typically assigned to a residential community of undergraduate students in some portion of a residence hall, floor, or wing or apartment (Blimling, 2010). This student leader usually performs a variety of functions within the living area that enhance the quality of the living environment. The position is routinely compensated with a single room and a meal plan (Horvath & Stack, 2013).

Housing Professional indicates a person who works at higher education institutions in on-campus housing departments. Their role is to work with on-campus residents who are engaged in the pursuit of academic course work at the institution. At some institutions, the housing professional also works with off campus housing, as well.

Motivation for purposes of this study is defined as the factors that serve as incentive and inspiration to apply for this compensated position.

Organization of the Study

The study is divided into five chapters, a list of references used, and appendixes. The preceding chapter gave an overview of the study. Chapter Two provides a review of the literature related to this study. In particular, the review details the development of the RA position, changes to the complexity of the RA role, motivation theory, RA motivation research, and important additional considerations for the research. Chapter three

describes the comprehensive research methodology of the study. Further, it outlines

measures taken for ethical protection of human participants. Chapter four examines and

describes the analysis of the data and provides a discussion of the findings, and chapter

five contains the conclusions, summary, and recommendations for practice and further

study. The study concludes with a reference list and appendixes.

Chapter 2 – Review of the Literature

Introduction and Context

The study poses to determine what current motivational factors are for the current student workforce in higher education, specifically Resident Assistants. The need to understand the role of the Resident Assistant (RA) and how the role has developed throughout history is important. In addition, it is also necessary to determine the significance of the role in the university setting and understanding how the RA role has changed in complexity is necessary. To examine motivation and the development of the RA role and its complexity, the literature review is divided into three main parts. First, a historical review of the evolution of the position is provided. The second section outlines motivational theory as it relates to the study of RA motivation to fill the position. Finally, additional considerations are exposed when looking at the connection between motivation and students that apply for the RA position.

As American and global societies have changed, and as higher education has advanced through those changes, the job description or responsibilities of the RA have also changed. Papandrea recently reported in the *University Journal of Business* that the role of the Resident Assistant (RA) is an evolving and complex one. There is a significant increase in the depth of the RA's responsibility as well as pressure to perform well (Papandrea, 2015). Crandall (2004) revealed the following:

> As higher education has changed over the years, housing programs have reacted
> to those changes to meet the demands from both the internal and external
> environments. Reacting to those changes has caused a dramatic increase in the
> number of responsibilities added to the resident assistant position without

accompanying thought regarding the consequences for the paraprofessional and

the housing program. Housing professionals discuss the issue of not being able to

recruit the most qualified candidates as they did in the past. They are worried that

the general student population does not see the resident assistant position as a

prestigious leadership position as it did in the past. There is also the concern of

not being able to retain staff, which can be a valuable asset. (p.19)

A discussion of those changes requires tracing the evolution of housing programs in

higher education settings both internationally and in the United States. Not only has the

role of the RA changed dramatically over time, so has the profile of the modern-day

student. An examination of what motivates current college students to become and

remain RAs with the increasing demands of not only their position but also their

academic career is greatly needed. Housing professionals face the challenge of

identifying sources of motivation for resident assistants both to market the RA role to

prospective students and to keep their current resident assistants engaged and productive

in the position (Bierman, 1992).

Evolution of Student Housing

This next section traces the evolution of student housing throughout history and

how that evolution eventually initiated the creation of the RA position. The concept of

student housing emerged during the Middle Ages. Cowley (1934) notes that housing

became a concern in the Middle Ages, when thousands of students came to Bologna,

Paris and Oxford to study. These students were young, some were poor and the need for a

housing plan was critical. As a result, universities established the first hostels:

independently organized group housing, not affiliated with the universities. As this idea

spread to Oxford, it shifted. The university asserted its authority, and hostels became part of the greater university community. These were then called residential colleges (Cowley, 1934). In this model, faculty members lived in residence with the students to continue the learning outside the classroom and "deans, proctors or bedels" (Cowley, 1934, p. 709) provided control and discipline.

In America, Colonial founders followed this same Oxford model, with one major exception. The faculty members also served as proctor, serving both as an educator as well as disciplinarian (Cowley, 1934). According to Cowley (1934), the primary reason that the residential college model failed to take root in America was that "the faculty member living in the dormitory became the student's natural enemy" (p.709). When students revolted against the faculty in the halls, the proctor role was given to younger, more inexperienced faculty. Soon, no faculty members wanted to take on this role. As Cowley (1934) stated, "[T]he dormitory never developed into a meeting place of expanding minds…residence halls became places for students to merely to sleep, to eat and occasionally to study" (p. 710). Further, the conflict between the roles of faculty member and hall monitor laid the groundwork for a lack of interest in continuing the residential college model. As a result, dormitories began to decay, and new facilities were not built. The conflict also led administrators to want to discontinue housing students (Cowley, 1934).

According to Blimling and Miltenberger (1990), this conflict, as well as the Land Grant College Act of 1862 that established 69 state colleges and encouraged the development of secular education in the United States, combined to enable the loosening of control demanded in the dormitory. Several prominent college presidents, including

Woodrow Wilson of Princeton University in 1907, made attempts to bring student housing back but in different formats (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1990). Further, the establishment of the women's colleges in the late 19th century helped to revive residence halls. According to Blimling and Miltenberger (1990), "It is one thing to let men fend for themselves in a community and quite another to permit the same liberty to women" (p. 19). Finally, the disparity of in housing between poorer and wealthier students led universities to renovate existing halls and create new ones to encourage students from different backgrounds to live together (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1990). Determining how to manage the halls in this climate, in addition to other issues facing the management of students on higher education campuses, led to the creation of the student personnel field and subsequently the RA position (Renz, 1994). The next section will outline the early evolution of the RA role in the United States.

Evolution of the Resident Assistant Role

The development of the role of resident assistants can be split into two parts: before and after *in loco parentis*. Further, the need to highlight what predicated changes from 1970 until the modern day is important to consider.

Prior to in loco parentis. Initially, in loco parentis was a construct in which the university assumed the role of parent (Melear, 2003). In the landmark case *Gott v. Berea College* (1913), *s*everal students were expelled for entering a local eatery in violation of rules that prohibited students to go to any place not approved by the college (Melear, 2003). The court found in favor of the college as Melear (2003) disclosed:

> College authorities stand in loco parentis concerning the physical and moral
>
> welfare and mental training of the pupils, and we are unable to see why, to that

end, they may not make any rule or regulation for the government or betterment

of their pupils that a parent could for the same purpose. (p.206)

The courts choose to minimize their involvement in legal cases at academic institutions

from the early 1900's extending through 1950 (Arvidson, 2003). Upcraft and Pilato

(1982) stated that, in lieu of faculty, colleges hired retired military officers, elderly

housemothers and others to enforce policies and maintain control and order. Students

were also hired to help supervise and maintain this control. Upcraft and Pilato (1982)

pointed out that while other institutions used students as long ago as colonial times, this

was the first time that "extensive use of students to supervise residents was initiated" (p.

4).

  The role of hall staff prior to the 1960s was highlighted by Greenleaf (1970), "we

have used housemothers, but have we expected any more of them than to be there to meet

emergencies, to lock doors, to teach social graces and meet parents?" (p. 4). She also

noted, "Most of us have used student proctors, resident assistants, or house

fellows…have we really taken advantage of the knowledge of peer learning and peer

relationships to challenge students?" (p. 4). Greenleaf sets the stage for changes that

began in the 1960's and challenged professionals' thinking on the use of student staff.

This brings the evolution of the RA role to the early 1960s and the next section will

continue to trace the evolution of the RA role through the 1980s.

  The resident assistant role from 1960 to 1980. The 1960s were a time of college

student activism, and institutions began dismissing students for student protesting.

Upcraft and Pilato (1982) noted:

  The 1960s brought real revolution to residence hall living. Students began

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questioning the concept of in loco parentis as a basis for a college-student

relationship and successfully killed off most of the rules and regulations they

considered offensive to their individual freedom. (p. 4)

The idea of the student as a consumer and education as a right similar to property, began

to emerge (Melear, 2003). This idea was introduced in the case of *Dixon v. Alabama*

State Board of Education (1961). In this case, students were expelled for participating in

a civil rights protest. Melear (2003) stated, "…the Dixon ruling established that a

publicly funded institution of higher learning could not condition the educative

experience on a waiver of fundamental constitutional rights to due process, thus

squelching the traditional notions of in loco parentis" (p. 129). Contributing to the end of

in loco parentis was the federal government ruling changing the age of majority to 18, the

age of most college students at the time (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1990).

The philosophical purpose of the residence hall was changing, and as a result, the

role of the staff managing the halls needed to change. At this time, the traditional

housemother role ended and professional, trained residence hall educators emerged

(Upcraft & Pilato, 1982). Additionally, enrollment at American colleges and universities

nearly doubled toward the end of the 1950s and the start of the 1960s. This led to the

building of huge residential complexes. According to Bliming and Mittenberger (1990),

in roughly a 10-year span (1962-1972), policies regulating student behavior in the

residence halls moved from strictly enforcing curfews for men and women, sign-

in and sign-out logs, strictly enforced dress codes, strict rules governing the use of

alcohol, limited visitations privileges for men and women, to no curfews,

abandonment of dress codes, more tolerant attitudes about student drinking, open

visitation, and coed residence halls. (p.32)

The RA role moved from one of mostly a disciplinarian to one of counselor, adviser, and disciplinarian. The word "control" was almost completely eliminated from RA job descriptions (Arvidson, 2003). There was a philosophical shift in what housing professionals required of RAs. Leading educators of the time embraced these changes, and this led to the student development movement that began in the late 1960s and early 1970s. The National Association of Women Deans and Counselors (NAWDAC) in 1967 advocated for five roles for RAs:

- helping establish the environment of the hall;

- assisting groups and individual students;

- advising student activities;

- enforcing rules and regulations;

- assisting with administrative responsibilities (Arvidson, 2003, p.31).

Just three years later, Greenleaf (1970) outlined three functions of all residence hall staff, an academic environment to challenge students, a counseling role, and to provide activities for social and cultural interaction.

Along with the changing philosophy for work in student affairs, there were legislative changes that affected the role of the RA. The most significant legislative change occurred in 1974, when the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) was enacted. This federal law protects the privacy of student education records (Scheuermann, 2013). In essence, the law stated, that with the exception of health and safety emergencies, institutions cannot disclose educational information to third-parties including, importantly for the times, parents. This restriction prohibits faculty, staff and

student staff from giving information regarding a student to anyone without the student's permission (Scheuermann, 2013). This law changed the role of the RA, especially in terms of what they say to students when they are counseling, as well as what they can share with others. It has also greatly impacted how RAs are trained (Palmer, Lowery, Wilson, & Gehring, 2003). This section traced the evolution of the RA role to the 1980s and the next section will take the evolution through to the 2000's.

The resident assistant role from 1980 to 2000. In 1982, Upcraft and Pilato put forth six key job functions of the role of Resident Assistant:

- provide personal help and assistance;

- manage and facilitate groups;

- facilitate social, recreational and educational programs;

- inform students or refer them to appropriate information sources;

- explain and enforce rules and regulations; and

- maintain a safe, orderly and relatively quiet environment (p. 10).

One can see some similarities between the previous references to job descriptions from Greenleaf (1970) and what Arvidson (2003) revealed about job descriptions in the 1960s and 1970's. The job description did not necessarily change dramatically during this period. However, the issues that were emerging were much more severe, and the volume of issues the RA was required to address increased across the years. Dodge (1990) stated, "Student RAs are dealing with such difficult problems as alcoholism, suicide, homophobia, racism, date rape, eating disorders and stress" (p. A39). Dodge also noted the difficulty for the RA to be both role model and friend.

In the late 1970s, the first significant shift occurred pressing for the inclusion of a

focus on the development of community as yet another function of the role (Upcraft & Pilato, 1982). This included the requirement for RAs to understand the dynamics of their floor and try to create a community among them (Upcraft & Pilato, 1982). The role of developing community also included mediating roommate conflicts or conflicts within the floor community. The second shift included defining the RA role to provide duty coverage overnight and on weekends when the institutional offices were closed. This required, on a rotating basis, RAs to be in the hall to serve as a resource as well as to intervene in crisis situations. While the need was already established for the RA to live in the hall where they worked, the role became more clearly defined and included duty shifts (Horvath & Stack, 2013).

In the 1980s, Blimling and Miltenberger published a book to use for training RAs. Many institutions used this as a text for credit-bearing courses that students completed prior to or during their first semester as an RA. In this text, the authors outline the role of the RA: RA as role model, RA as a counselor, RA as a teacher, and RA as student. Blimling and Miltenberger (1990) concluded:

> the RA serves one of the most comprehensive roles …no student problem escapes the RA's involvement. This job is one of the most difficult student positions to hold and to perform well. To be called to do so many tasks, to hold so many responsibilities, and to be accountable for so many people during the time when you are shaping your own education is one of the greatest challenges you my face during early adulthood. (p.11)

There were several legal matters that developed in the late 1980s and early 1990s that affected the RA role. In 1990, Congress passed the Crime Awareness and Campus

Security Act. This act required all schools that received federal financial aid to share campus crime statistics and security information with the public (Scheuermann, 2013). The act was amended several times in the 1990s. Renamed the Clery Act in 1998, the statute required institutions to give timely warnings of crimes that threaten the safety of students or faculty or staff. It required higher education institutions to collect, report and share information with the campus community. Scheuermann (2013) observed, relative to the Clery Act, that housing staff, "have obligations in three main categories: policy disclosure (e.g. procedures for students and others to report criminal actions or other emergencies occurring on campus), records collection and retention, and information dissemination" (p. 244). As a result, RAs now had a legal obligation to report specific types of behavior of other students and their guests. Underage drinking and illegal drug use are the most frequent crimes committed in the residential communities and most RAs document policy violations they observed (Horvath & Stack, 2013). The most recent amendments to the Clery Act included the Violence Against Women Act, regulations that expanded rights afforded to campus survivors of sexual assault, domestic violence, dating violence and stalking (Papandrea, 2015).

Another change that occurred was the need for institutional staff to announce and get permission to enter a room or get a warrant; although for private institutions it is less restrictive (Scheuermann, 2013). Many housing contracts include language that allows staff to conduct an administrative search with notice. Typically, RAs are also asked to conduct announced health and safety checks to ensure that rooms are clean and that no unauthorized items are in plain sight, including weapons, drug paraphernalia and items that pose a fire safety hazard to a residential community. Additionally, RAs now call on

duty professional staff and campus police or safety officers when there are observations of inappropriate behaviors (Scheuermann, 2013).

The Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) (20 U.S.C. § 1232g; 34 CFR Part 99) is a federal law that is intended to protect the privacy of individuals' student education records (United States Department of Education, 2015). This law has been amended over time. Of particular note are changes in 1998, when the law was expanded to allow institutions to notify parents of students under the age of 21 for alcohol and drug violations (Palmer, Lowery, Wilson & Gehring, 2003). This change was largely due to increases in alcohol and drug violations on the campuses. A national study conducted by Palmer et al. (2003) found that parental notification had contributed to a reduction in the number of alcohol violations. As a part of new student orientation, many schools share this law with parents and explain what it means for their student. Because of its many implications, FERPA has become a regular part of training for RAs (Arvidson, 2003).

An event in 2000 forever changed what is asked of RAs in crisis situations. That year, students set a fire in a residence hall at Seton Hall University. Three residents died and more than 50 others were injured (Campus Fire Watch, 2006). One RA, Dana Christmas, sustained burns over 85% of her body. Christmas went back into the hall 4 times to ensure all her residents had left the building (Campus Fire Watch, 2006). While there have been other fires on campuses, this one altered not only how halls were built/renovated but also what was asked of student staff during a fire and penalties for false alarms.

As a result of this fire, the state of New Jersey enacted legislation that many other

states adopted requiring sprinklers to be installed in residence halls (Allen, Sewalish & Siron, 2008). Stricter penalties were put in place for students activating false alarms, making it a crime to perform such action. Many schools implemented fines for student violators. Further, examinations of the role of RAs in such situations occurred. As a consequence, RAs were no longer expected to ensure that all students evacuated. Their role was redefined to be located outside of the halls and to gather residents in a central location. It also provided an opportunity to reassess placing RA staff in potentially dangerous situations. Training for the RA's role in crises situations also changed dramatically during this time frame (Allen et al., 2008). Koch (2012) surveyed 338 RA-training developers and found the safety aspects of the curricula had intensified. In the 1990s, fire safety training was offered to RAs at 11 percent of campuses surveyed compared to 85 percent of RAs surveyed by Koch. The next section will trace the continued evolution of the RA role to the most current research and information.

Current resident assistant role. In the last decade, the RA role has changed only in terms of the more defined community development role (Blimling, 2010). However, the execution and complexity of those job responsibilities and expectations for RA staff have dramatically changed. These changes are due in large part to legal issues, health and safety considerations, advances in technology, increased need for conflict resolution, the rise of social media and the influence of parental involvement (Arvidson, 2003). Further, the number of mental health issues and the complexity and severity of those issues has increased dramatically (Ritger, 2013).

The fatal shooting of students and staff in 2007 at Virginia Tech University also dramatically changed how institutions of higher education address risk assessment.

Diekow and Dunkel (2013) observed:

> [a]n ever increasing number of institutions of higher education are establishing
> teams of campus administrators and practitioners who, as a collective, represent
> the broad, multifaceted roles and responsibilities on campus to respond to
> situations. (p.210)

These different teams are often called crises intervention teams (CRTs) and behavioral
consultation teams (BCTs) and finally an emergency operations center (EOC). The RA
now serves not only as someone who responds to crisis situations but additionally plays a
critical role observing for indications of possible threat or crises situations. Training for
this more intense expectation has become necessary (Diekow & Dunkel, 2013).

Another recent development affecting the role of the RA is the increased use of
technology within the job and social media. With this increase, the role requires new
ways of documenting and storing information about the hall community. RAs must be
able to use databases in which student assignments and student conduct records are stored
and documented. Social media has broadened the RA's ability to connect with residents
and promote programs. There are less positive consequences of social media as well.
First, students tend to spend more time on their electronic devices, and it is difficult for
RAs to get students to engage with one another in face-to-face settings. Second, issues
arise with the lack of face to face social interaction, cyber bullying, and the lack of skill
development in building relationships, to name a few (Martinez-Alemnan, 2014).

Finally, the impact of regulations and other legal issues continue to affect the role
of the RA. For example, there have been several laws passed protecting the rights of
students with disabilities. The increased reporting requirements, attention needed for and

complexity of student issues has dramatically increased in the last five years, and these issues are not limited to physical mobility, sight and hearing but also learning (Heiman & Precel, 2003). Other concerns including learning disabilities, medical and mental health issues have emerged (Bauman, Davidson, Sachs, & Kotarski, 2013). While these laws have not necessarily given additional duties to the role of the RA, they have certainly affected level of involvement and the training provided for the RA. In addition, the issue of service and comfort animals has developed. Bauman et al. (2013) indicated that the new requirements, effective March 2011, now include the use of comfort animals as different from service animals in residence halls. These newer ADA laws and interpretations are multifaceted and offer conflicting guidance from the various federal agencies, including the Department of Justice and Housing and Urban Development (Bauman et al, 2013). For RAs, it means working with students who are both in need of a service or comfort animal as well as students who may be allergic to or fearful of animals.

It is to be noted that the information presented above is generalized. There often are specific differences for the RA role in private versus public institutions. The RA role in private institutions, specifically those that are religiously affiliated, may also include other responsibilities, to include restrictions on programming and inclusion of religious activities and events (Arvidson, 2003). With this understanding how understand how the RA role has evolved, it is important to take a look at what the future holds for the RA role in the next section.

The future of the resident assistant role. The RA role has been transformed dramatically over the years both in breadth and depth. Many changes have been based on

a specific event or legal changes, and others precipitated by societal cultural shifts. These modifications will persist, and the issue of continuing to add to the RA role without shifting responsibilities will likely play a part in the motivation of students to become an RA. McCuskey (2013) asked, "Is housing a business enterprise or a learning endeavor?" (p. 118). How institutions look at this question will have huge implications for the role of the RA. With the many changes that have occurred, it may well be that the combination of responsibility for the learning component and the business enterprise in the RA role has become too much to expect within one job description.

The selection of RAs, as well as their training, has become much more rigorous due to the complexity of the issues that face college students today (Papandrea, 2015). In addition, with huge budgetary restraints placed on higher education institutions, many housing professionals have had to reduce the number of RAs they can hire and ask the RAs to manage more students, particularly at smaller institutions. The conundrum for our future then includes increased number of residents with more complex needs, both academic and social, with fewer front line staff to offer assistance (Gfeller & Barnhart, 2015). In the prior sections, the evolution of student housing and the RA role was presented. Now to provide a context for RA motivation to apply for the RA role, the next section will outline general motivation theories in the workplace.

Motivation Theories

Motivation is best described as a combination of cognitive and emotional processes of the "nonconscious" mind (Maddock & Fulton, 1998, p. 26). Motivation is defined by Bandura (1986) as the internal forces, either pleasant or unpleasant, experienced by an individual that directs behaviors to satisfy the needs or wants of

experiences. The concept of motivation is one that has been well researched. It is suggested by Latham (2012) that the first inklings of research on motivation had roots in behavior theory such as those forwarded by different theorists of behavior including Freud, James, Watson, Thorndike and Taylor and referred to as industrial organizational psychology. The emphasis shifted in the 20th century due to the state of the economy. Psychologists moved their attention from behavior theory to employee attitudes as they attempted to ascertain the internal foundations for motivation (Latham, 2012). Thus, the development of attitude surveys began. Interestingly, the debut of the Likert scale was introduced as a research tool and developed by Renis Likert to measure attitudes towards work in 1932 for a doctoral dissertation (Latham, 2012).

Another early, influential, and widely referenced conceptual framework regarding motivation is Maslow's (1943) *Hierarchy of Needs,* which refers to a type of belief system that determines peoples' decisions including survival and self-actualization. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theorized that man was essentially good and has great potential that will drive people to constantly grow (Maslow, 1943). Maslow postulated that much of human behavior could be explained from the needs that are experienced; as one need is fulfilled there is movement to the next, which shapes behaviors (Hall & Williams, 2000). Therefore, human needs are a source of motivation. Viteles published the book *Motivation and Morale* in 1953 and essentially reviewed all theories concerning motivation to that date. Viteles cited concern with attitude surveys as lacking in depth given the size of the sample and its effect on the development of motivation theory (Viteles, 1953). McGregor shared his theory as an extension of Maslow. In McGregor's theory, it is additionally suggested that opportunities provided at work must satisfy what

Maslow calls "higher needs," or employees will lack motivation (McGregor, 1960).

Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation postulated that certain motivating factors indicate job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). Herzberg suggested that factors leading to job satisfaction were "intrinsic," and factors that lead to job dissatisfaction were "extrinsic" (Herzberg, 1959, p.113). Extrinsic factors include elements such as office location and set up, salary and benefits. The intrinsic factors might include factors such as achievement, the work itself, advancement, or recognition. To enhance one's job, Herzberg (1966) posited that the focus should be on job content along with recognition, responsibility, achievement, and opportunities for advancement. Further, he theorized that "hygiene" factors of the work environment, such as procedures policies, and pay, should have less focus for employers in terms of motivating employees (Herzberg, 1966; Latham, 2012).

Throughout the history of motivation theory, there have been many opposition theorists to the Maslow, Herzberg and McGregor thread; Vroom was one of the most vocal (Latham, 2012). Vroom (1964) criticized Herzberg in particular and felt the same events caused satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction, and that Herzberg's results were replicated in similar contexts and had other methodological weaknesses. Vroom presented expectancy theory to counter Herzberg. Vroom presented a complex theory that divides motivation into four components as follows: effort, intrinsic valence, instrumentality, and valence of reward. This theory proposed that an individual will behave in a certain way due to their motivation to seek certain outcomes (Vroom, 1964). Other opposition theorists to content motivation theories included Hackman and Oldman with their job enrichment theory (Latham, 2012). Classified as process theorists, the

authors developed a job diagnostic survey to measure how the job motivated the individual (Hackman & Oldman, 1976). It was also during this time in the 1960s that well known experimental psychologist B.F. Skinner was sharing behavior modification theory which is based upon the idea that changes in behavior are the result of an individual's response to events that occur in the environment. In addition, reinforcement is a key element in the environment to effect change (Latham, 2012).

In the latter part of the 20th century, theories on motivation shifted paradigms to those that were rooted in cognitive development. Two key theories evolved during this time period: goal setting theory and social cognitive theory (Latham, 2012). Goal setting theory, as shared by Latham and Locke in 1979, postulated that setting specific complex goals will lead to increased performance. Bandura (1986) took goal setting further and developed social cognitive theory, which combined cognitive and behavioral theories. This theory posits that motivation behavior is a constant interaction between three variables: environment, cognition and behavior (Bandura, 1986).

Latham (2012) outlines four critical controversies of 20th century motivation theory and research:

> the importance of money as a motivator, the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, the causal relationship between job satisfaction and job performance or the converse, and the importance of participation in decision making as a motivational technique. (p. 103)

The issue of compensation is one that is well researched and needs to be included in any discussion of RA motivation. Latham (2012) noted that while money is a critical factor when applying for a job, the influence of financial compensation, while important, is only

one of several influences that motivate staff. Lawler (1971) has done extensive research on the effect of pay on employee performance. Lawler (1971) theorized that what a staff person is paid is important to the degree that the staff person perceives that it is important to meet their needs and that pay is relational to a staff person's assessment of their job performance. Correlations from Herzberg can also be drawn from the research of Deci and Ryan (2000) who postulated through their research that money can be a de-motivating factor when juxtaposed with intrinsic motivating factors.

Deci and Ryan developed self-determination theory (SDT), which indicated that giving people the freedom to make their own decisions leads to empowerment, autonomy and higher-level interest in the job. This in turn results in the workforce being innovative, working harder, and achieving higher skill levels (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT examines variances between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, as proposed by Herzberg (Latham, 2012).

At the turn of the 21st century, motivation theorists tended to take motivation research in several directions, to include the following concepts: needs, emotions, values, cognition, and personality traits (Latham, 2012). Further, Latham and Pinder (2005) postulated that "…at least three theories now dominate the motivation literature: goal setting, social cognition, and organizational justice" (p. 275). Finally, Latham (2012) suggests the need to develop "boundaryless psychology," (p. 282) where insights from all areas of psychology, social sciences as well as biological and neurological sciences are utilized in motivation research.

Literature on motivation has extended beyond researchers that study the workplace and employees, to include business managers in the 21st Century. Several of

the more celebrated voices with best-selling publications include Collins (2001),

Goleman (2006), Pink (2009), and Senge (2006). Collins (2001) indicated that spending

time on motivating people is wasteful, believing that if you have good people with a

shared vision, they will be self-motivated. Collins concluded that instead of attempting to

find motivating techniques, time should be spent on how to manage people. Goleman

(2006) forwarded the concept of emotional intelligence and the role of positive

motivation on achievement. In the same work, Goleman examined the power of

optimism, defined as hope for something not seen, as a motivator of people as well. Pink

(2009) presented three critical elements that influence motivation: autonomy, mastery,

and purpose. Autonomy is the need to direct one's own life; mastery is seen as the desire

to enhance skills and to grow personally. In addition, it is motivational to attach oneself

to a greater purpose and see oneself as making a contribution (Pink, 2009). Senge (2006)

described five disciplines working together in unison to create conditions necessary for

employees to link motivation with an organization's success; systems thinking, building a

shared vision, personal mastery, mental models, and team learning. In terms of

motivation, Senge's (2006) disciplines of building a shared vision with your team, rather

than top-down, dictated vision where there is no buy-in from individual employees, and

the ideal of allowing for personal mastery are important to consider. Creating an

organizational culture where autonomous thinking is welcomed fosters an environment of

dialogue and innovation, and an environment where an employee can learn and grow in

their position allows for personal growth (Senge, 2006). Although several of these

publications are centered on organizational success, they all share a view that the work

environment itself can wield motivational forces critical for employee engagement in the

job.

The theoretical foundation that guides this study is rooted in Herzberg's two-factor theory: hygiene factors and motivators (Herzberg, 1959). This theory postulated that hygiene factors such as salary, work conditions and possibility for promotion can create dissatisfaction if employees identify the factors as inequitable or unsatisfactory. Herzberg (1959) also used the words "satisfiers" to refer to the intrinsic or motivating factors and "dissatisfiers" to refer to hygiene or extrinsic factors (p.7). However, Herzberg also stated that motivation of employees will not necessarily increase if the employee begins to feel the hygiene factors improve. The intrinsic factors; personal growth, mastery, increased autonomy, do motivate employees and can shape job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). Finally, Herzberg (1959) posited that satisfaction does not always correlate to better performance. The next section will outline RA motivation and relevant RA position research specifically.

Resident Assistant Motivation Research

Research related to RA motivation. Research specific to RA motivational factors was scarce prior to 1991. This section shares work related to RA motivation or directly relevant to RA motivation. Prior to 1991, the research related to RA motivation and spoke specifically of RA burnout (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989), RA stress (Schuh & Shipton, 1983), attraction to the RA position, (Ketchum, 1988) and benefits associated with being an RA (Ames, Zurich, Schuh, & Benson, 1979; Moneta, 1991).

Burnout is a factor that plays a role in continued motivation of RAs. Maslach (1982) defined burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. Trouble begins for the resident assistant when he or

she only hears about problems and complaints and never receives any positive feedback. A state of burnout occurs when there is a high level of emotional stress, a low chance for change or improvement, trouble with co-workers or supervisors, and little input on job-related policies and decisions (Maslach, 1982).

A 1989 quantitative study was conducted with 107 RAs to examine aspects of burnout (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989). The study examined relationship between status of residence hall staff, health habits, length of time in position, type of residence hall, and burnout in college resident advisors and head residents. The study found health habits and type of residence hall supervised related to burnout but status and time in position did not (Benedict & Mondloch, 1989).

In examining what motivates a student to apply for the RA position, it is wise to consider how the RA position is perceived, in particular the stress of the RA position. Since RAs live in their work environments, they are constantly on call or available to students at any time of the day or night. So, what motivates college students to want to become an RA? Schuh and Shipton (1983) conducted a study of the abusive situations resident assistants can encounter. Accounts of verbal abuse in the forms of obscenity, harassing telephone calls, and racial slurs were the most frequently mentioned. Physical abuse and damage to RA personal property were also reported.

When exploring motivation to apply for the RA position, attraction is an important consideration. Ketchum (1988) in a qualitative study researched the factors that attracted or deterred Caucasian and African American students to apply for the RA position. African American students identified five reasons they desired the RA position. The reasons that were self-reported included (in order of importance): resume builder,

financial, working with people, involvement on campus, seeking more responsibility. The Caucasian students reported: working with people, resume builder, involvement on campus, seeking more responsibility, and community building (Ketchum, 1988).

Students may also consider the benefits associated with the RA position prior to applying. There were several studies that examined the benefits of the RA position, thus providing context to student's motivation to apply for the RA role. Ames et al. (1979), in their study of benefits resulting from holding the position of RA reported the top benefits connected to the RA position. They included: financial, career development, personal growth and development, RA cohesiveness, and the desire to help others. Further, Moneta (1991) conducted research asking why students seek the RA role and lasting effects of the position. This qualitative study of post graduation students who were RAs, disclosed that when RAs discussed the experience and the impact of the position on their development they cited similar findings particularly in relation to their career development. Finally, in a similar qualitative study from Huffman (2014) that interviewed RAs from two different Christian institutions regarding the benefit of being an RA reported the RA position:

>…as having an impact in the development of their understanding of self and others. Additionally, the participants reported a reconceptualization of essential aspects of leadership, which had a long-term effect on their attitudes and behaviors. Specifically, lasting connections emerged between participants' recall of their RA experience and perceptions regarding their personal, relational, and leadership identities. When considering their past involvement as an RA, participants commonly referred to an enduring change in their self-understanding,

relationships with others, and leadership capabilities and philosophies. (p. 69)

RA motivation research. Deluga and Winter, (1991) through a quantitative study, sought to understand the reasons why students would want to apply to be an RA and shared the following:

> In short, RAs must fulfill complex roles and cope with a plethora of severe stressors. Therefore, the need to explore reasons students are motivated to become RAs. That is, what attracts students to the RA position, despite the associated stress and aggravation. (p. 546)

Their study included research on the relationship between motivation to become an RA using the RAMQ Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire (RAMQ), an instrument which they developed; interpersonal stress using the Stress Diagnostic Survey (SDS); and job satisfaction using the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank (JSB). Through a bivariate correlational analysis, they forwarded two major findings. First, the desire for power, financial obligations, career development and personal growth were connected with stress; and, second, helping behaviors and RA cohesiveness were connected to job satisfaction (Deluga & Winter, 1991).

Bierman (1992) in a quantitative study of Southwest RAs sought to answer questions on RA motivation as well. Using Herzberg's work as a guide, Bierman found that resident assistants reported several intrinsic factors of satisfaction in the role: working as a staff team, learning valuable skills, inclusion in a larger department, being asked to be part of the decision making, and participation in conferences. Helping new students transition to college, meeting diverse new people, ability to be creative in programming and the application of learning transferrable skills that complemented what

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they were learning in the classroom also led to higher satisfaction in the position. Further, the benefit of room and board as payment was a motivating factor. However, when such payment was the single most important motivating factor, RA satisfaction with the position was lower. Bierman (1992) described the lack of privacy afforded to RAs who live on the floor with their residents as one of the most dissatisfying parts of their job. Other factors of dissatisfaction included lack of support on disciplinary matters, low pay, conditions of the hall/room, stress and supervision. Bierman (1992) also indicated gender differences, indicating that women tended to emphasize their environment and training as motivating factors to apply for the position, while men emphasized competition for position, pay and promotion as motivating factors.

The question of how financial and other benefits associated with the position can affect motivation for students to stay in the RA position was the focus of research conducted by Bierman and Carpenter (1994). They postulated that financial and other benefits of the position, if changed, might affect an RA's work ethic and job burnout. The study revealed that RA candidates who sought the position strictly for the financial rewards may not understand the full scope of the RA role. Instead, they focus only on the monetary benefits without realizing the demands of the position (Bierman & Carpenter, 1994). A study conducted by Ford, Bosworth, and Wilson (1995) on student workforce development, which included resident assistants, reported inadequate income as the most frequently reported reason students sought student employment. They indicate that the educational benefits of on-campus employment are not the primary reasons students seek such employment.

Bierman's (1992) earlier research, specifically with resident assistants and

motivation, suggested that the RA who seeks the position for room and benefits "…will most likely be very dissatisfied with the job" (p. 112). In a recent mid-Atlantic regional publication highlighting the role of an RA at local Maryland colleges, RAs interviewed shared that they may want to become RAs for financial reasons, but if you do not want to help people then problems will arise (Karas, 2014). In a recent report of small colleges, Gfeller & Barnhart (2015) reported that RAs had dissatisfaction with financial compensation levels. However, it also cited that at one institution, not disclosed, the RA job was a volunteer position without remuneration. The authors reported that the RA position was "…in high demand due to the intrinsic value of the position" (Gfeller & Barnhart, 2015, p. 9). Thus, indicating a correlation to Herzberg's theory of intrinsic motivation.

Bell (2002) conducted a study in 2002 using the RAMQ that Deluga and Winter developed in 1991 (Bell, 2002; Deluga & Winter, 1991). In this study, the author examined Generation X and Generation Y characteristics and used the RAMQ to identify generational differences in motivations of students seeking and holding the position of RA. Using the six factors as identified by Deluga and Winter (1991), her findings included the following motivation factors in order of importance: helping behaviors, career development, financial obligations, RA cohesiveness, personal growth, and desire for power. Other significant findings of this study included gender differences. Females reported helping behaviors more often than males (Bell, 2002). In terms of comparisons between Generation Y and X, there were statistically significant findings and thus the Bell (2002) proposes:

These results suggest Generation Y RAs differ from Generation X RAs.

Moreover, student motivations to seek the RA position seem to be changing. Since Generation Y students will soon replace the Generation X population of students on campus, this could greatly effect affect the number of students seeking the position in the hopes of helping other students. Findings like those revealed in this study suggest professional Residence Life administrators may want to reevaluate what criteria are used to select RA staff members. (p. 62)

Although this research was limited in sample size, it does show the value of research about RA motivation.

Summerlin (2008) conducted research on why students were motivated to apply for the RA position. In this mixed methods study at two private higher education institutions, Summerlin examined two themes related to reasons for becoming RAs, the student's desire to help their peers and financial need. Summerlin (2008) noted that RAs also indicated interest in the leadership role, enhancing their college experience, a desire to help students, and financial compensation as reasons to apply for the RA position (Summerlin, 2008).

Additional research and information on RA position related to RA motivation. There has been significant research conducted through the years that relate directly to RA motivation. Conlogue (1993) used mixed method research that administered a survey as well as conducted interviews of RAs and found that great ambiguity, complexity of the job, time commitment concerns and inherent conflicts in what RAs thought they were hired to do compared to what they actually found themselves doing were of concern. This research includes RA perception of their role and responsibilities. Conlogue (1993) suggested that the pressure from supervisors about the

critical nature of the RA role to the success of the residential community led to RAs

focusing only on parts of the role. The inability to focus on all components of the position

led to feelings of inadequacy and derailed motivation (Conlogue, 1993).

Further, in a qualitative study conducted with 17 state institutions across the

United States on the future role of RAs, Crandall (2004) indicated that housing

professionals have layered so many responsibilities onto the RA role that it is difficult to

imagine how it can remain a job to which college students are motivated to apply. The

results from this study indicate that the role of the resident assistant is constantly evolving

into a more complex and demanding role in response to the issues that exist in our current

society.

Papandrea (2015) also shared how the expectations, from students and parents, for

RAs have grown increasingly complex:

> Parents and students expect RAs to solve roommate problems and ensure dorms
>
> are conducive to study time and sleep. But with an amplified national discourse
>
> on sexual assault, gun violence and mental illness—not to mention some high-
>
> profile campus tragedies in recent years—today's resident assistants are on the
>
> front lines of a whole host of issues related to safety and overall wellness. (p. 1)

It is clear that the future of the RA position will evolve and grow with societal and

culture changes and that perhaps the continued practice of adding more complexity to an

already multifaceted role is not the most appropriate direction (Crandall, 2004).

The RA job is peer-to-peer, and research has indicated RAs have positive feelings

for the job despite the stress and demands. A qualitative study at a Christian institution,

conducted with former resident assistants 10 years after their graduation from college,

indicated that the respondents felt that being an RA was the most important learning experience they encountered during their college years (Huffman, 2014). Further, Blimling (2010) indicated that RAs receive extensive training, many attending a course either prior to the start of the job or during the first semester of work. In addition, they receive additional training prior to the start of each academic year, as well as through and in between semesters. This training has aided RAs in building lifelong skills that include time management, critical thinking, conflict mediation, crises management, diversity awareness, accountability, confidentiality, problem solving, counseling, administrative skills, working on a team and developing a community.

Upcraft and Pilato (1982) revealed that most colleges and universities that employ resident assistants believe that RAs are responsible for developing the educational potential of residence hall living. Studies conducted by Chickering (1974) concerning the academic and social development of college students helped develop this expectation. Results indicated that students who resided on campus earned a higher grade point average than their off-campus counterparts. On-campus students also exceeded predicted learning and personal development skills and were more involved in academic, extracurricular, and social activities. This study has long been used to advocate on-campus housing. Astin (1977) supports these claims finding, "Students who live in residence halls have more contact with faculty, interact more with student peers, do better academically, and are more satisfied with their undergraduate experience than are commuters" (p. 22). These citations further substantiate the critical role of the RA and the pressure that they may feel. The pressures for RAs to perform, be productive and successful are substantial, and as a resident on the floor or wing they may witness

stressors and be less likely to apply for the RA position. This last section shares important additional information to consider when looking at RA motivation.

Important Additional Considerations

It is important to consider generational issues when researching RAs. A generational cohort is defined as a group of individuals that are born around the same time period and share significant historical or social life events growing up (Howe & Strauss, 1991). Students in Generation Y started to enter higher education, for the most part, in the year 2000. Patrick (2013) advances work on motivation and Generation Y college students, sharing that the dramatically different motivating factors between the generations will present conflict in an organization. The presence of multiple generations within an organization that possess different values, attitudes, and work motivation creates unique challenges for organizations (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

Generation Y is entering the workforce, and will make up the majority of current RAs on college campuses. Howe and Strauss (2000) studied the characteristics of the students of the new millennium, also known as Generation Y and characterized them by the protective nature of their parents. These students have been protected, nurtured, and highly disciplined by their families (Howe & Strauss, 2000). This generation is also described as academically disengaged, yet they have higher goals for financial success than the previous generation (Bell, 2002). Organizations are starting to experience great difficulty in retaining and motivating Generation Y employees, who exert huge pressure for radical changes (Solomon, 2000). According to Solomon (2000), by understanding the perceived motivational factors for Generation Y preparing to enter the workforce, organizations will be able to develop ways to increase workplace commitment and reduce

employee turnover. These generational issues may indicate why motivation of RAs has changed.

Lastly, a comment on student leadership is necessary. There is extensive research on college student leadership abilities and characteristics. The RA position is widely viewed by student affairs professionals as a leadership position on a college campus. The connection specifically applies to the relational leadership model (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998) that defines leadership as "a relational process of people together attempting to accomplish change or make a difference to benefit the common good" (p. 21). This definition is specifically applicable to the RA role as described by Blimling (2010); the RA serves as a leader for the wing or floor providing advice, guidance, discipline and resources for residents. However, the RA position is also often a paid position whereas many student leadership positions are not paid. Therefore, this research has focused on workplace motivation and the evolution of the RA role and not on motivation of student leaders and leadership.

Conclusion

There is considerable research on RA motivation. However very little concerns resident assistants in more recent years. The importance of the RA as an institutional resource as well the impact of participation on the student's development is of significance. Huffman (2014) noted:

> Over time, the [RA] experience led to the emergence of a more refined and understood personal, relational, and leadership identity… The RA role served as pivotal point to their current identity as professionals, friends and family members, and community liaisons. (p. 36)

As the role of the RA has evolved, knowledge on what motivates RAs has not kept pace. There is a gap in understanding the current motivational factors guiding students to apply for the RA position. The answers to the questions of what motivates today's student to seek this role are important to those charged with filling these positions and keeping them filled. Further study to guide the future development of the RA role and to understand how its evolution may affect motivation to seek the position is also necessary. Issues of gender, race and ethnicity, size and type of institution, compensation, generational values, quality of conditions and environment, as well as supervision and training, have all changed. An examination of factors that motivate RAs to seek the position is needed to help housing professionals recruit, keep RAs motivated, and understand the changing dynamics of the position.

Chapter 3 – Research Design and Methodology

This study sought to identify motivational factors for students who selected to seek the resident assistant (RA) position. The job description of the RA has evolved over time, and the complexity of the job requirements have grown tremendously, which raises concerns regarding housing professionals' ability to continue to attract and retain qualified student staff (Crandall, 2004). The review of the literature provided background on both the development of the RA role throughout United States history, as well as identifying research conducted on motivation, specifically RA motivation and compelling tangential factors affecting the success of students in the RA position. The most recent study specifically examining RA motivation, as indicated in the literature review after extensive research, was completed over a decade ago; the RA role has continued to grow in difficulty since that time. The purpose of this study was to establish if motivational factors have changed with the evolution of the RA role. Further, do those motivational factors vary when the RA is in the position for longer than one year.

Research Design

The design of this study is descriptive. Quantitative research methodology was used in this study and data were collected via an established instrument and researcher-constructed questionnaire. For purposes of this study, the independent variables included two demographic and work environment characteristics (gender, race/ethnicity, type of residential community, class standing of population of RA, number of students the RA serves on wing/floor, and type of institution). The dependent variables include the six motivational factors as outlined by Deluga and Winter (1991). First, descriptive statistical analysis was used to share the average value of the most prominent motivational factors.

Next, MANOVA statistical analysis was conducted to compare means of motivational factors and demographic and work environment variables. The final stage of design included regression, specifically hierarchical block regression, to examine predictors of high level of motivation.

Research Questions

1. What are the most prominent motivational factors for current mid-Atlantic resident assistants?

2. Are there significant differences in motivational factors of current resident assistants based on their demographic characteristics (i.e., gender and race/ethnicity)?

3. Are there significant differences in motivational factors of current resident assistants based on characteristics of the work environment (i.e., type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, class standing of population RA is serving, number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing, and type of institution)?

4. What demographic and work environment characteristics (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing) can predict high levels of motivation for current resident assistants?

Population and Setting

The population of the study included current resident assistants at United States higher education institutions. More specifically, it included resident assistants that registered for and attended the annual Mid-Atlantic College and University Housing

Officers (MACUHO) student staff conference. All institutions of higher education in the region, which includes the states of Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia are eligible members of MACUHO. There are no registration fees to be a member of MACUHO and there are 211 higher education institutions with housing programs in MACUHO (Mid Atlantic College and University Housing Officers, 2014). The selection of this setting was one of convenience, given its proximity to the researcher, as well as the logistical opportunity of having a large population of resident assistants from the region in one place.

Sample Selection

The respondents of this study included resident assistants that elected to attend the MACUHO Student Staff Live In (SSLI) conference. The conference was formerly called the Resident Assistant Conference, However, the titles assigned to resident assistant positions vary in the region, (e.g. gryphon or community advisor). MACUHO changed the name to the Student Staff Live In (SSLI) conference to indicate those student staff that live on campus in residence halls to perform their work duties.

Marketing materials inviting participation in the conference are sent out by the SSLI host (Rowan University) committee to those institutions that self-select to be members of MACUHO. Determining RAs who attended the conference was a process conducted by the individual institutions and is unknown to the researcher. This study included a sample of convenience, given the proximity of the participants in one location and ease of access by the researcher (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

The conference location was Rowan University in New Jersey, and it was held on October 24, 2015. Past records show that approximately 400 to 600 RAs attend the SSLI

conference (MACUHO, 2014). The attendance at the opening session at SSLI was approximately 350 participants from 46 different institutions from the MACUHO region. There were several no shows and cancellations and one institution's bus broke down and 55 participants were not able to attend the conference. The total number of people registered for the conference reached 569 with 98 of those people registered being professional staff attending as advisors and not eligible to participate in the study. A total of 471 RAs were invited to participate in the study.

At the time of the conference, 181 participants responded to the online survey as described below and, after screening for inclusion criteria, 152 respondents' data were useable. Thus, the researcher did additional outreach to the institutions that attended SSLI to increase the number of useable responses. At the request of the researcher, the conference organizers sent an email, developed by the researcher, to the students who registered for and attended the SSLI conference. The students were given several days to complete the online survey if they had not done so at the conference. After this added data collection, 142 additional respondents completed the survey. In sum, 323 RAs completed the online survey. After criteria screening, data from 231 RAs were including in the study.

According to McMillan & Schumacher (2010), "[t]he sample can be selected from a larger group of persons, identified as the population, or can simply refer to the group of subjects from whom data are collected" (p. 129). As noted, the sample size was 460 SSLI attendees. The minimum number of responses required to produce generalizable statistical results from a sample of 460 is 210 respondents, in accordance with the recommendations in Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Therefore, this study exceeded

the recommended number of respondents.

All RAs attending the conference were invited to participate in the study. However, criteria for inclusion were utilized, so not all data collected were useable as mentioned above. The criteria helped insure that the study included participants with similar job descriptions and job compensation. The inclusion criteria included ten questions. These questions outlined the RA job components and brief descriptions as presented by Blimling (2010) in *The Resident Assistant: Applications and Strategies for Working with College Students in Residence Halls.* This book is used nationwide to not only teach many classes for resident assistants (G. Blimling, personal communication, July, 2015) but as a resource to those that employ resident assistants.

According to Blimling (2010), the roles of RAs include the following:

- Student;

- Role Model;

- Problem Solver;

- Conflict Mediator;

- Campus Resource;

- Trained Observer;

- Community Builder;

- Group Facilitator;

- Counselor;

- Administrator (p. 33).

Thus, nine questions asked respondents to indicate (yes or no) if their job included each of the noted roles, with the exception of student, as all RAs are required to be

enrolled at the institution at which they are employed. Only those respondents that answered yes to all nine items met the criteria for inclusion.

A tenth question established similar job compensation. Horvath and Stack (2013) stated that generally RAs are compensated with a single room and a meal plan: "while a single room and meals are the most common compensation package, there are inevitably variations. Some institutions include a stipend" (p. 10). Thus, those RAs that received at least a minimum compensation package of room and meals and responded "yes" to the other nine items met the criteria, and their reported data were including in the study.

Demographic and Work Environment Characteristics

The questionnaire that the researcher utilized included several demographic and work environment characteristic questions. The demographic characteristics included: gender, race/ethnicity. The work environment characteristics included: the type of institution, class standing of students RA is serving, type of residential community, and number of semesters in RA position.

In the United States, higher education institutions are defined in Section 101 and 102 of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Public institutions refer to institutions that are under the guidance of and receive funding from the state. Community colleges are typically public institutions. Private institution refers to an institution that operates as a unique educational organization that has their own governance system and is largely financed by student tuition and fees. There are two-year and four-year private institutions (Higher Education Act of 1965). Additionally, there are for-profit institutions. These are institutions that generate profit for owners and shareholders and offer certificate or degree academic programs to students.

The gender of each resident assistant was requested from respondents. For purposes of the questionnaire, male, female, and transgender were used.

Categories developed in 1997 by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) were used to describe groups to which individuals belong or identify with. The categories do not denote scientific definitions of anthropological origins. Respondents were first asked to designate ethnicity as either Hispanic or Latino or Not Hispanic or Latino. Second, individuals were asked to indicate one or more races that applied to them from among the following:

- American Indian or Alaska Native;

- Asian;

- Black or African American;

- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander;

- White.

Class standing of students served by the RA was another work environment question. On college campuses, resident assistants may be assigned to a community of residents who are first-year students, upper-class residents, or some combination of the two. Respondents reported the predominant class standing of the residents that the RA serves, defined as the simple majority of the residents in the floor/wing.

Residential programs on college campuses have several different types of housing options for students. The three most prevalent types of housing include: standard residence hall with community bath for floor; suite style housing including single, double, triple rooms attached to shared bathroom facility; and apartments, which include multiple single bedrooms with a shared kitchen and bathrooms. There are variations on

the types of housing, but these are the most common. Thus, the questionnaire asked respondents to select the room type that most closely represents the style of housing that the RA manages.

How RA motivation changes over time is an important consideration for the study. Therefore, the number of semesters an RA has been employed must be determined. The researcher wanted to capture those RAs that were newly hired. Thus, the measurement was in term of semesters that the student worked as an RA.

Finally, respondents were asked to report the number of residents on their wing/floor. RA motivation levels may be effected when looking at the number of residents RAs are asked to manage and needs to be included as a work characteristic.

Data Sources

Instrumentation. The instrument, as mentioned above and shown in Appendix A, was the Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire or RAMQ (Deluga & Winter, 1991). The primary author, Ronald Deluga, granted permission to use the RAMQ (see Appendix B). The authors developed the questionnaire through a review of the literature, interviews with RAs and industry experts, as well as their own experience working with RAs. The instrument was pilot tested with 40 RAs in the Spring of 1989. Following the pilot test, the authors compiled a list of 44 items that reflected the variables of the responses. A factor analysis was conducted on the responses using principle components factor solution with varimax rotation. The data were then converted from the original group of variables into nine smaller groups. The nine groups were further analyzed based on the final criterion; items loading .70 or above on a given factor and not loading above .30 on other factors were considered significant and retained. The authors then separated

the items into six motivational factors as the final instrument utilized in the study (Deluga & Winter, 1991, Bell, 2002).

This study was presented in a peer-reviewed article in the *Journal of College Student Development* and was entitled the "Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire (RAMQ)." The RAMQ uses a Likert scale response to 24 questions split into six categories: helping behaviors, career development, desire for power, personal growth, financial obligations, and RA cohesiveness. The RAMQ offers a starting sentence stem for each item ("An important reason why I chose to become an Resident Assistant was to…"), which was followed by the 24 statements (Deluga & Winter, 1991). The RAMQ makes use of a 5-point Likert scale: (a) 5 - very true of me, (b) 4 - somewhat true of me, (c) 3 - neutral, (d) 2 - somewhat not true of me, and (e) 1- not at all true of me.

Pilot study. In order to ensure the viability of the instrument for use in 2015 in an electronic online format, a pilot test was conducted. Deluga and Winter (1991) originally administered RAMQ by paper and pencil; however, this study used an online method. An institution in Virginia, outside the MACUHO region, was used for the pilot. The pilot test was administered at a training session where all RAs were present. Informed consent was reviewed with all possible respondents prior to taking the questionnaire. The questionnaire was conducted online utilizing Qualtrics mobile format. The majority of the RAs used their phones to enter their responses. The researcher also made electronic devices available and 4 RAs utilized this option. Thirty RAs were invited to complete the full RAMQ, the ten criteria for inclusion, and the demographic and work characteristic questions. Twenty-six respondents completed the survey and 23 respondents' data were useable, meaning they completed the survey and met the inclusion criteria.

Directly following the survey administration, the pilot study respondents were asked to participate in a focus group so the researcher could understand and process their thoughts on taking the survey. This focus group was conducted to ask RAs to identify any difficulty with directions, item formats, and response options, time to take the instrument, and clarity and meaning of the questions, particularly the criteria outlined. Further, the focus group was asked questions on ease of use of the online formatting product. Eleven RAs participated in the focus group and were provided with dinner.

The pilot was incredibly helpful in fine-tuning the questionnaire. The participants indicated that the URL was much too long and gave suggestions on how it could be shortened through an online application called "Tiny URL." The researcher asked about each specific section and wording of the RAMQ, inclusion criteria, and demographic/work characteristics questions. Several participants indicated that the RAMQ questions were redundant, while others in the focus groups explained that it was probably intentional to see if the respondents answered in a similar way to similar questions. The focus group disclosed that it was a short questionnaire that was easy to answer. In addition, the group shared that the opening instructions needed to be more specific, in particular concerning the criteria inclusion section. It was not clear that all answers could be selected. No further concerns with any of the wording of questions were expressed. Finally, several focus group members suggested that the researcher give out candy as a thank you to respondents. Based on the comments during the focus group, the URL was changed for easier access, rewording of the opening instructions was completed and candy was handed out to thank respondents.

Participant recruitment and data collection. Permission was received from the

MACUHO leadership council to attend the student staff live in (SSLI) conference and conduct the survey. Formal permission was requested and received to speak at the opening ceremony to announce the research, speak on informed consent, share the age requirements (18 or older) and appeal for participation.

The research team of assistants consisted of MACUHO colleagues, housing professionals who were recruited to help administer the questionnaire. The researcher trained the research team. The key elements of the training included initiating an appropriate request for participation, review of the questionnaire, use of an electronic device, giving the respondent physical space while taking the questionnaire, and presenting no judgment (verbal or non-verbal) if respondents completed the survey quickly or stopped prior to completion.

As participants entered the auditorium for the opening session, they were all given a handout that included informed consent information, as well as the URL for the online survey. The researcher took five minutes to review the research project and informed consent with the participants. Directly following the informed consent information, presentation participants were asked to take out their phones and take the survey at that time. Several research assistants were on hand in the auditorium to offer assistance, answer questions and offer iPAD use if the RAs did not have a phone or they preferred not to use their phones. The participants were given candy as they departed the auditorium, as suggested by the results of the pilot study. Participants were also recruited at lunch to complete the online survey with the assistance of the research assistants. The lunch respondents were primarily those participants that missed the opening session or had technical difficulties with their phone.

As described earlier, additional outreach was required to increase the number of usable responses and the researcher asked the host institution to send an email that the researcher drafted and included a hyperlink to the online survey to all the RAs that attended SSLI. The email requested that they take the online survey if they had not already taken it at the conference. Informed consent was outlined both in the email to the RAs and as the first part of the online survey. A second reminder email was sent out four days later. The online survey was closed at the end of one week.

Data Analysis Procedures

The researcher utilized IBM SPSS Statistics (version 23.0) to analyze the data. For purposes of this study, the independent variables included the demographic and work environment characteristics (gender, race/ethnicity, type of residential community, class standing of population of RA, semesters in the position, number of students the RA serves on wing/floor, and type of institution). The dependent variables included the six motivational factors as outlined by Deluga and Winter (1991): helping behaviors, financial obligations, personal growth, career development, desire for power and RA cohesiveness.

The first layer of analysis included data screening after coding, to check if the data was entered correctly, look for missing values and outliers, and check for normality (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). The next step included descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics are used to "…summarized organize, and reduce large numbers of observations…derived from mathematical formulas to represent all observations in each group of interest" (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010, p. 149).

In order to answer the first research question, "what are the most prominent

motivational factors for mid-Atlantic resident assistants?", the number, mean, and standard deviation for each motivation factor category and the average value were generated. In addition, Cronbach's alpha was used to estimate internal consistency and reliability of the instrument. For the RAMQ, a coefficient of .70 or higher was the level needed (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). Cronbach's alpha (a= .832), indicates a high level of internal consistency.

To answer the second and third research questions, significant differences in motivational factors as compared to certain demographic and work environment categories, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was utilized. MANOVA compares means of several groups, specifically the relationship between more than one quantitative dependent variable, and one or more independent variables and if changes in independent variables affect dependent variables (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012):

> Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is simply an ANOVA with several dependent variables. That is to say, ANOVA tests for the difference in means between two or more groups, while MANOVA tests for the difference in two or more vectors of means. (p. 134)

The benefit of using MANOVA is that, by measuring several dependent variables (motivational factors) in a single experiment, there is a better chance of discovering which factor is most impacted by dependent variables (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010), in this case, demographic and work environment characteristics.

Finally, regression procedures were utilized to examine certain demographic and work environment characteristics as predictors of high levels of motivation (i.e., gender, race and ethnicity, type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, and

number of students the RA serves on floor/wing). Regression is a statistical process for estimating the relationships among variables; regression analysis aids in the understanding of how the value of the dependent variable changes when any one of the independent variables is varied while the other independent variables are held fixed. Hierarchical block regression was used to examine a specific fixed order of entry for variables (blocks), in order to control for the effects of covariates and to test the effects of certain predictors independent of the influence of others (Lewis, 2007). Hierarchical block regression allows for analysis in blocks of variables that the researcher determines, building successive linear regression models and adding more predictors. Lewis (2007) indicted,

> Hierarchical regression is an appropriate tool for analysis when variance on a criterion variable is being explained by predictor variables that are correlated with each other. Since correlated variables are commonly seen in social sciences research and are especially prevalent in education research, this makes hierarchical regression quite useful. (p. 10)

There were two regression blocks conducted. The first block was between the motivational factors and the demographic characteristics of gender and race/ethnicity. The second block was between the motivational factors and work environment characteristics: type of residential community, number of semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing (Lewis, 2007).

Validity and Reliability

In terms of reliability, the RAMQ was found by the authors to have an inter-correlation of $r = .21$ for the six factors. This indicated there was a limited relationship

among the factors and that each factor was distinct (Deluga & Winter, 1991). Deluga and

Winter (1991) also indicated that the factors were also internally rich, because all six

alpha coefficient estimates exceeded the recommended level of .70 for Cronbach's alpha

(Bell, 2002). This indicates the degree to which the RAMQ would yield the same results

if the instrument were utilized again. For this study the Cronbach's alpha for this research

indicated a high level of internal consistency (a=.832).

In terms of the validity of the RAMQ, Deluga and Winter (1991) found "…the six

factorial dimensions seem to make good psychological sense and provide insight into

what prompts students to become RAs" (p. 547). Thus, the instrument with the final six-

factor framework supplied accurate and sound explanations why students pursued the

position.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher's role "… establishes the position of the investigator and his or her

relationships with others in the situation" (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010, p. 348). The

role of this researcher was detached from the study to avoid bias. The researcher attended

the SSLI conference, shared the information on the study, and interacted with potential

respondents throughout the day to request that they complete the survey. The researcher

has attended the SSLI conference many years prior and is a practitioner in the field of

higher education campus housing. It is to be noted that the researcher has not participated

in the MACUHO organization and this particular conference in more than ten years.

Measures of Ethical Protection

The risk to participating resident assistants was minimal. The respondents were

not asked to identify themselves by name or institution. The demographic identifiers did

not indicate any single respondent. The actual number of respondents was 323 with an

n=231. The researcher provided advance information to respondents regarding the use of

the data collected and how the information would be shared with others.

Informed consent. Informed consent was indicated verbally to all possible

participants at the opening session and also in an online format at the beginning of the

online survey. All participants were over the age of 18. Potential participants were told

that only those over the age of 18 could participate in the study. All those helping to

administer the instrument on site were fully trained and were instructed to ask each

potential participant their age prior to taking the instrumentation. Any potential

participant that was not 18 did not take the questionnaire. The respondents could stop

taking the survey or ask that their responses not be included at any time without fear of

repercussion. Written informed consent instructions were included in the email to all RAs

that attended SSLI when additional outreach was required. Further, the online survey's

first page outlined informed consent fully before consent to participate.

Chapter 4 - Findings

The purpose of this research was to determine motivational factors of Resident Assistants (RAs). The RA position has grown in complexity given evolving societal changes that affect higher education. Papandrea (2015) indicated that as our society has become more challenging, with drug usage, mental health issues, and increased diversity among college students, the RA role has become much more complex. This raises concerns regarding housing professionals' ability to draw interest in applying for the position as well as retain qualified student staff (Crandall, 2014). The most recent study examining RA motivation specifically was completed over a decade ago, which explains the need for more recent research on motivational factors of RAs.

Participants

The sample set was 469 possible respondents from 46 institutions in the MACUHO region. Three hundred twenty three RAs completed the online survey using Qualtrics software. Data from respondents that did not meet the inclusion criteria based on role of the RA as defined by Blimling (2010) and compensation of at least room and board (meal plan) were eliminated as non-useable data. It is to be noted that due to only one respondent indicating transgender as their gender, this data had to be eliminated. Ninety-two records were removed from the data set due to the above listed concerns. Thus, for the purpose of this study, there were 231 useable response sets, which is a 49.25% response rate. Several respondents did not answer all the other questions of the RAMQ, and thus the *n* will vary in the reported findings. All respondents answered all of the work and demographic characteristics questions.

Instrumentation

This study utilized an instrument entitled Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire (RAMQ), as used by Deluga and Winter in 1991. The RAMQ asks for a Likert-scale response to 24 questions that are split into six categories: helping behaviors, career development, desire for power, personal growth, financial obligations, and RA cohesiveness. The RAMQ offers a starting sentence stem for each item: "An important reason why I chose to become a Resident Assistant was to…" followed by the 24 statements (Deluga & Winter, 1991). The RAMQ makes use of a 5-point Likert scale. The scale range used was as follows: a) 5 - very true of me, (b) 4 - somewhat true of me, (c) 3 - neutral, (d) 2 - somewhat not true of me, and (e) 1- not at all true of me. Table 3 includes the findings from Deluga and Winter (1991). The full RAMQ instrument can be found in Appendix A.

Respondents were also asked to provide information regarding the inclusion criteria. This included the following overarching questions:

The following questions outline different responsibilities and components of the RA role. Please check all boxes that apply to your current role as an RA; please note that all may apply:

- Role Model: As an RA my residents view me as a person to emulate;

- Problem Solver: As an RA I work with residents in finding solutions to concerns or guidance that they seek;

- Conflict Mediator: In my RA role I work to mediate conflict among residents, in particular roommate concerns;

- Campus Resource: As an RA I provide resources about the institution to assist residents;

- Trained Observer: In my role as an RA I observe behavior of residents and report peculiar or unexpected behavior to supervisors;

- Community Builder: As an RA I work to create a community in my wing or floor as well as in my hall;

- Group Facilitator: My role as an RA includes developing programs, activities and opportunities for resident engagement;

- Counselor: In my role as an RA I spend time listening to my residents and work to provide resources or resolution;

- Administrator: My role as an RA includes paperwork for things such as check in and out, incident reporting, facilities concerns and more.

Then respondents were asked to answer one question on compensation:

The compensation for my role as an RA includes or is the equivalent to a room on campus and meal (board) plan.

The demographic and work environment questions included:

The type of institution that I currently work as an RA is:
1-Public
2-Private
3-For Profit

The number of semesters I have been employed as an RA:
1-Less than one semester
2-2 semesters
3-3 semesters
4-4 semesters or more

The predominant class standing of the residents on my floor/wing that I serve currently as an RA is:
1-First Year residents
2-Upperclass residents

The type of housing that most closely resembles the style of housing that as an RA I currently serve:
1-Standard Room with shared bathroom on floor or wing
2-Suite Style with shared bathroom for suite
3-Apartments with shared bathroom for apartment

The number of residents I currently serve on my wing/floor as an RA:
1-Less than 25
2-26-35
3-36-55
4-More than 56

My gender is:
1-Male
2-Female
3-Transgender

Please designate your ethnicity:
1-Hispanic
2-Latino
3-Non Hispanic or Latino

Please designate your race (select more than one if applicable):
1-American Indian or Alaska Native
2- Asian
3- African American or Black
4-Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
5-White

Data Screening

The data was entered into SPSS, Version 23.0. The data was screened for correct entry by running frequency tables on all the variables. Next, the data was checked for missing values, and those values were coded as missing. Then there were missing values found among responses that were critical to informed consent, age requirement, and the criteria inclusion were eliminated as non-useable.

Demographic and Work Characteristics Variables

The study included a number of demographic and work characteristics as

independent variables. The demographic variables included gender as well as race and ethnicity. The two questions on race and ethnicity were combined for reporting purposes. There were no respondents who shared they were American Indian or Alaska Native. Further, there were three respondents that selected Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander; however these respondents also chose another ethnicity and thus are found in the Multi category. Therefore, the race and ethnicity categories for this study include: Hispanic/Latino, Asian, Black or African American, White, and Multi. The work characteristic questions included the following: type of higher education institution, semesters in the RA position, class standing of the students the RA serves, number of students the RA serves, and type of residential community the RA serves.

The respondents included 87 male (37.7%), 143 female (61.9%) and 1 transgender (.4%) RA. This aligns with data regarding the gender distribution of the population currently attending college. The most current data shared that 56.8% of college students were female (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2013). The respondents were racially diverse with the majority being White (n = 124, 53.7%), and included Black (n = 49, 21.2%), Hispanic (n = 35, 15.2%), Asian (n = 17, 7.4%) and multi-racial (n = 6, 2.6%). The majority of respondents (n = 103, 44.6%) indicated they had worked less than one semester as an RA, followed by three semesters (n = 62, 10.8%), two semesters (n = 25, 10.8%), and four or more semesters (n = 41, 17.7%). Most RAs worked for public institutions (n = 127, 55.9%), followed by private institutions (n = 102, 44.2%) and for-profit institutions (n = 2, 0.9%). The students that the RAs were serving were reported as first year (n = 121, 52.4%) and upper class (n = 110, 47.6%). RAs worked mostly in standard housing (n = 108, 46.8%), followed by suites (n = 64, 27.7%) and apartments (n

= 59, 25.5%). Finally, RAs reported that most were serving 36 to 55 students (n = 95,

14.7%), followed by 26 to 35 students (n = 67, 29.0%), fewer than 25 students (n = 35,

15.2%) and more than 55 students (n = 34, 14.7%). See Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1

Frequencies of Work Characteristics

Variables	F	%
Number of Semesters of Work		
Less than one	103	44.6%
Two	25	10.8%
Three	62	26.8%
4 or more	41	17.7%
Institution type		
Public	127	55.9%
Private	102	44.2%
For-Profit	2	0.9%
Class Standing of Students Serving		
First Year	121	52.4%
Upper Class	110	47.6%
Housing Type		
Standard	108	46.8%
Suite	64	27.7%
Apartments	59	25.5%
Number of Residents Served		
Less than 25	35	15.2%
26-35	67`	29.0%
36-55	95	41.1%
More than 55	34	14.7%

Table 2

Frequencies of Demographic Characteristics

Variables	*F*	%
Gender		
Male	87	37.7%
Female	143	61.9%
Transgender	1	0.4%
Race/Ethnicity		
Hispanic/Latino	35	15.2%
Asian	17	7.4%
Black/African American	49	21.2%
White	124	53.7%
Multi	6	2.6%

Dependent and Independent Variables

The independent variables included the demographic and work environment characteristics (gender, race/ethnicity, type of residential community, class standing of population of RA, number of students the RA serves on wing/floor, and type of institution). The dependent variables included the six motivational factors.

Statistical Assumptions

Several assumptions must be checked when using either a MANOVA or a Hierarchical Block Regression in order to provide a valid result (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

MANOVA assumptions. There were several tests conducted to check that the statistical assumptions were met in MANOVA. One contained the independent variables of gender and race/ethnicity the other contained the independent variables of type of residential community, class standing of population of RA, number of students the RA serves on wing/floor, and type of institution. The dependent variables were the six motivational factors.

Linearity. In one-way MANOVA, there is a need for a linear relationship among each pair of dependent variables for each group of the independent variable (Lared Statistics, 2013). There was a linear relationship between each motivational factor and work and demographic characteristic when the scatterplots were reviewed.

Independence of observations. This assumption checks for independence of residuals. A Durbin-Watson statistic was utilized. A value close to 2 indicates no correlation between residuals (Laerd Statistics, 2015). For this inquiry, there was an independence of residuals for all six factors with statistics ranging from 2.126 to 1.796. A case-wise diagnostics and studentized deleted residuals showed that seven respondents had levels greater than plus or minus 3; thus the data for those respondents were removed from MANOVA analyses.

No univariate or multivariate outliers. This test is to check for outliers in the data. Leverage values were also checked and all were under 0.2. Cook's Distance was used to check for significant outliers. An ordered value inspection was conducted to determine if any cases were influential and no Cook's Distance values were above 1 (Cook & Weisberg, 1982). There were no univariate or multivariate outliers.

Multivariate normality. This test was utilized to determine if the data were normally distributed. A histogram was used. For all six factors, the standardized residuals were normally distributed; the mean had a value of approximately 0 and standard deviation was approximately 1 (Lared Statistics, 2013). The P-P Plot for each of the six factors was close enough to the center to indicate that the residuals were sufficiently close to normal for the analysis to proceed. The Shapiro-Wilk's scores were all non-significant.

Homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. This procedure is completed to

ensure homogeneity of variance and co-variance matrices. Box's M test of equality of covariance tests this assumption (Lared Statistics, 2013). Box's M was significant in the first MANOVA and this violates the assumption, while the assumption was met in the second MANOVA. The correction is to use Pillai's Trace instead of Wilk's Lambda.

Hierarchical block regression. There are several assumptions that were checked prior to using hierarchical regression. When conducting hierarchical regression, all data for questions for a particular factor need to be compiled into one new dependent variable to enable better manipulation of the data.

No multicollinearity. Hierarchical block regression analyses assume there is low multicollinearity between independent variables. The correlation coefficients, Tolerance values, were used to check for multicollinearity. Pearson's correlation was run for all six factors and none of the independent variables had correlations greater than 0.7. The Pearson correlation coefficients were used to detect correlation between the dependent variables, the six motivational factors from the RAMQ (Deluga & Winter, 1991). There was no multicollinearity, as assessed by averaging the six motivational factor scores for Pearson correlation ($r = .393$, $p = .004$). Further, no tolerance level exceeded 0.1 for all six factors.

Outliers. When using hierarchical block regression, there can be no univariate outliers in each group of the independent variable for any of the dependent variables. There were no univariate outliers in the data as assessed by use of boxplots. Multivariate outliers are cases which have an unusual combination of scores on the dependent variables (Lared Statistics, 2013). There were no multivariate outliers in the data, as assessed by Mahalanobis distance ($p > .001$).

Normal distribution. The next assumption involves normality and whether the data collected was normally distributed (Lared Statistics, 2013).The six motivational factors were normally distributed for each demographic and work characteristic as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test (p >.05).

Independence of observations. This is the independence of residuals as checked by the Durbin-Watson statistic (Lared Statistics, 2013). The Durbin-Watson tests for autocorrelation in the residuals and should always be between 0 and 4. The Durbin-Watson value was close to 2.0, so independence of observations was assumed.

Linear relationship. This assumes that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable and each independent variable (Lared Statistics, 2013). There were linear relationships found on scatterplots for each independent variable and the dependent variable.

Homoscedasticity. This is the sequence or a vector of random variables (Lared Statistics, 2013). This assumption is where the variances along the line of best fit remain similar as the line proceeds (Lared Statistics, 2013). In addition, scatterplots and partial regression plots were used to check for linearity; a single scatterplot of the studentized residuals plotted against the unstandardized predicted values was used to check for homoscedasticity (Lared Statistics, 2013). The data was homoscedastic.

Current Motivational Factors

For research question one, "what are the most prominent motivational factors for current mid-Atlantic resident assistants," descriptive statistics were utilized. As indicated in Table 3, the highest overall mean scores were for Factor 1 (helping behaviors) with a score of 4.21. These questions probed the RA's interest in giving advice, serving as a

resource, and improving the life for their residents. Following closely behind factor 1 was factor 5 (financial obligations) with a mean average score of 4.19. These questions probed the RA's need to meet their financial obligations and help pay expenses. The third most prominent current factor why RAs apply for the position is factor 6 (RA cohesiveness) with a mean average score of 3.85. This set of questions included the RA's desire to bond with other RAs and work with the RA team. The three top responses to why a student applies to be an RA included the desire to help other students, to have opportunities to help other students, and the need to help meet financial obligations.

In examining the rest of the factors, factor 3 (career development) with a 3.81 average mean and factor 5 (Personal Growth) with at 3.30 average mean were the next in prominence. The career development factor included questions that contained fortifying the RAs resume, be marketable in the workplace, and help get a better job post-graduation. This factor was just behind RA cohesiveness in average mean score with some responses to certain questions exceeding those of RA cohesiveness. The personal growth factor asked questions about the benefits of the RA job to their growth as individuals and included becoming more assertive or confident and gaining respect of others. The lowest overall mean scores were for Factor 3 (desire for power) at 2.03. This factor included questions like the RAs desire to exert control or power over others or have other students admire the RA. This score was remarkably lower than personal growth at 3.30. The lowest score for a question was in factor 3 (desire for power) and was for ability to exercise power over others as a reason to apply for the RA position.

Thus, the answer research question one is the desire to help others is the most prominent reason why students apply for the RA position. This is closely followed by the

need to meet financial obligations. RA cohesiveness and career development round out

the top four reasons why students apply for the RA position. Finally, the desire for power

is the least prominent reason why students apply for the RA position. The full report is

found in Table 3.

Table 3

Item Descriptive Statistics for the Resident Assistant Questionnaire, 2015

Item Number	Factors and Questions	N	M	SD
Factor 1:	Helping Behaviors			
1	Counsel and advise students	231	3.99	0.932
7	Help students deal with personal problems	231	4.10	0.937
13	Help other students	228	4.47	0.838
19	Help other students who are in distress	230	4.15	1.011
22	Make College Life easier for others	230	4.13	0.936
24	Have opportunities to help other students	230	4.47	0.806
Factor 2:	Career Development			
2	Help fortify my resume	230	3.88	1.031
8	Be able to list employment as RA on resume	230	3.78	1.133
14	Become more marketable in the workplace after graduation	230	3.90	1.029
20	Help me get a better job upon graduation	227	3.62	1.224
23	Aid my career development	230	3.90	1.044
Factor 3:	Desire for Power			
3	Exercise control of over others	231	2.04	1.287
9	Exert control over other students	230	1.82	1.131
15	Have other students admire me	230	2.51	1.261
21	Exercise power over others	230	1.78	1.111
Factor 4:	Personal Growth			
4	Become more assertive	228	2.98	1.287
10	Gain the respect of others	230	3.35	1.253
16	Become more self-confident	230	3.58	1.255
Factor 5:	Financial Obligations			
5	Help meet financial obligations	229	4.26	0.988
11	Help pay expenses	230	4.18	1.253
17	Meet my financial need	230	4.15	1.058
Factor 6:	RA Cohesiveness			
6	Develop a bond with other	230	3.92	0.937
12	Develop friendships with other RAs	228	3.88	1.095
18	Enjoy the satisfaction of working with other RAs	230	3.77	1.098

Note. N differs due to missing values.

Motivational Factors and Demographic Characteristics

Research question two asked, "Are there significant differences in motivational factors of current resident assistants based on their demographic characteristics (i.e., gender and race/ethnicity)?" A MANOVA was generated using the independent variables of gender and race to see if there was an impact on the dependent variables of the six motivational factors. The benefit of using MANOVA is that by measuring several dependent variables (motivational factors) in a single experiment, there is a better chance of discovering which factor is most impacted by independent variables (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010), in this case, demographic characteristics of gender and race.

The standard for interpretation of the F test from Box's M statistic is p,.001. Freedman, Pisani, and Purves (2011) advise using $p < .001$ as the criterion significance to determine that the covariance matrices are unequal. *Box's M* was equal to 283.97 and was significant at $F(147, 4832.501) = 1.538$, $p < 0.0001$ which means that the covariance matrices are unequal and this assumption has been violated. To combat the violation in the data, Pillai's Trace can be reported instead of Wilk's Lambda. The MANOVA was not significant on Gender at Pillai's Trace = .013 ($F(6, 209) = 0.457$, $p = 0.839$), Race at Pillai's Trace = .101 ($F(24, 848) = .911$, $p = 0.588$), and Gender by Race at Pillai's Trace = .072 ($F(18, 633) = .871$, $p = .615$). See Table 4.

Table 4

MANOVA, Motivational Factors and Demographic Characteristics

Effect[a]		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	η_p^2	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[d]
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.932	477.166[b]	6.000	209.000	.000	.932	2862.994	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.068	477.166[c]	6.000	209.000	.000	.932	2862.994	1.000
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.013	.457[b]	6.000	209.000	.839	.013	2.744	.185
	Wilks' Lambda	.987	.457[b]	6.000	209.000	.839	.013	2.744	.185
Race	Pillai's Trace	.101	.911	24.000	848.000	.588	.025	21.855	.733
	Wilks' Lambda	.903	.905	24.000	730.324	.595	.025	18.917	.689
Gender * Race	Pillai's Trace	.072	.871	18.000	633.000	.615	.024	15.675	.648
	Wilks' Lambda	.929	.870	18.000	591.627	.616	.024	14.750	.612

[a]Design: Intercept + Q12 + Q13 + Q12 * Q13.
[b]Exact statistic.
[c]The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.
[d]Computed using alpha = .05.

Motivation and Work Environment Characteristics

Research question three asked, "Are there significant differences in motivational factors of current resident assistants based on characteristics of the work environment (i.e., type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, class standing of population RA is serving, number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing, and type of institution)?" A MANOVA was generated using the independent variables of type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, class standing of population RA is serving; number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing, and type of institution to see if there was an impact on the dependent variables of the six motivational factors.

The assumption of multivariate normality was met in that the six motivational factors variables did distribute normally across each of the five independent variables based on non-significant Shapiro Wilks scores for all combinations. There was no multicollinearity found among the five independent variables. The F test from *Box's M* statistic uses $p < .001$ as the criterion for testing to see if covariance matrices are equal. *Box's M*. *Box's M* was equal to 73.324 and was not significant at F (42, 1307.027) = 1.065, $p = 0.361$. The assumption was met in that the covariance matrices are equal. The F test from *Box's M* statistic standard for interpretation $p < .001$ as the criterion for testing significance of *Box's M*. *Box's M* was equal to 73.324 and was not significant at F (42, 1307.027) = 1.065, $p = 0.361$. The MANOVA was not significant on Type of Residential Community at Wilk's Lambda = .911 (F (12, 242) = 0.956, $p = 0.491$), Semesters in the RA Position at Wilk's Lambda = .883 (F (18, 342.75) = .858, $p = 0.631$) and Class Standing of Population RA is Serving at Wilk's Lambda = .948, F (6, 121) = 1.099, $p = .367$), Number of Students the RA is Serving on Floor/Wing at Wilk's Lambda

= .875, F (12, 242) = 1.397, p =.168) and Type of Institution at Wilk's Lambda = .910, F

(18, 342.75) = .643, p =.865). See Table 5.

Table 5

MANOVA, Motivational Factors and Work Environment Characteristics

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	η_p^2	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[c]
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.941	321.858[a]	6.000	121.000	.000	.941	1931.147	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.059	321.858[b]	6.000	121.000	.000	.941	1931.147	1.000
Type of Institution	Pillai's Trace	.090	.958	12.000	244.000	.490	.045	11.492	.555
	Wilks' Lambda	.911	.956[a]	12.000	242.000	.491	.045	11.477	.554
Semesters	Pillai's Trace	.120	.853	18.000	369.000	.636	.040	15.357	.627
	Wilks' Lambda	.883	.858	18.000	342.725	.631	.041	14.538	.594
Class	Pillai's Trace	.052	1.099[a]	6.000	121.000	.367	.052	6.596	.420
	Wilks' Lambda	.948	1.099[a]	6.000	121.000	.367	.052	6.596	.420
Type of House	Pillai's Trace	.127	1.381	12.000	244.000	.175	.064	16.575	.755
	Wilks' Lambda	.875	1.397[a]	12.000	242.000	.168	.065	16.768	.761
Number of Residents	Pillai's Trace	.092	.649	18.000	369.000	.860	.031	11.681	.479
	Wilks' Lambda	.910	.643	18.000	342.725	.865	.031	10.900	.443

[a]Exact statistic.
[b]The statistic is an upper bound on *F* that yields a lower bound on the significance level.
[c]Computed using alpha = .05.

Predictors of Motivation

What demographic and work environment characteristics (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing) can predict high levels of motivation for current resident assistants? Regression statistics, specifically hierarchical block regression, were utilized to examine certain demographic and certain work environment characteristics as predictors of high levels of motivation (i.e., gender, race and ethnicity, semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA serves on floor/wing). All the assumptions were met for hierarchical regression.

Hierarchical block regression allows for analysis in blocks of variables that the researcher determines, building successive linear regression models by adding more predictors (Lewis, 2007). There were two regression blocks conducted. The first block was between the six motivational factors and the demographic characteristics of gender and race/ethnicity. The second block was between the motivational factors and certain of the work environment characteristics (number of semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing). The creation of the dependent value was required in SPSS as only a single value can be entered when conducting regression statistics. The single dependent variable of all responses for each factor 1-6 was created by computing the sum of the values from respondents' scores for each factor (Lewis, 2007).

The first block produced a coefficient of determination that was 0.007 (F (2, 220) = .798, p = .451) and the second block produced a coefficient of determination that was 0.021 (F (4, 218) = 1.185, p = .318). Neither model was statistically significant. Neither model explained a significant amount of variance in motivation. See Tables 6 and 7.

The next table, Table 6 provides multiple correlation coefficient (R), R^2, adj.R^2, and standard error for each model. The R^2 change shows how much R^2 changed (first from zero to model 1, then from model 1 to model 2). Then, F statistics with degrees of freedom and associated p-values are given for each change in R^2 to determine if the change was significantly different from zero. The table shows that for this example, the majority of influence is held by the predictors. It is important to realize that because the covariate was entered first in its own model and it was not removed, the second model and subsequent R^2 are cumulative. In other words, it would be incorrect to suggest that model 2 includes just the 3 predictors and accounts for 95.5 % of the variance in the outcome variable (using adj.R^2). It would be appropriate to suggest that Table 6, which includes all 3 predictors and the covariate, accounts for 95.5 % of the variance in the outcome variable (using adj.R^2). It would also be appropriate to suggest there was a significant increase in R^2 from block 1 to block 2 such that the combination of the three predictors and the covariate seem to account for a meaningful share of the variance in the outcome variable.

Table 6

Hierarchical Block Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	$df1$	$df2$	Sig. F Change
					Change Statistics				
1	.085[a]	.007	-.002	11.41964	.007	.798	2	220	.451
2	.146[b]	.021	.003	11.39030	.014	1.567	2	218	.211

[a]Predictors: (Constant), Race/Ethnicity, Gender.
[b]Predictors: (Constant), Race/Ethnicity, Gender, Type House, Semesters, Type Institution, Number Residents, Class.

Table 7

ANOVA Table

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	208.205	2	104.103	.798	.451[a]
	Residual	28689.786	220	130.408		
	Total	28897.991	222			
2	Regression	614.915	4	153.729	1.185	.318[b]
	Residual	28283.076	218	129.739		
	Total	28897.991	222			

[a]Predictors: (Constant), Race/Eth, Gender.
[b]Predictors: (Constant), Race/Eth, Gender, Type House, Sems, Type Inst , Num Res, Class.

Other RAMQ Administrations

There were two other administrations of the RAMQ, the creators Deluga and Winter's in 1991 and Bell in 2002 as indicated in Tables 8 and 9.There were some clear similarities as well as differences.

As reported in Table 8, the *n* for 1991 ranged from 137 to 144 respondents. Table 9 reports that the n for 2002 ranged from 130 to 143 for Generation X and 68 to 69 for Generation Y. The n for 2015 was between 227 and 231 as seen in Table 3. The participants from Deluga and Winter's (1991) administration were from eight different institutions located in the Northeast. The participants from the Bell (2002) administration were from three different institutions; the geographic location was not disclosed. This study included participants from 46 different institutions in the Mid-Atlantic region. There are no raw data available for further investigation. Bell (2002) did not itemize results for each question in the research, so that information is not available to present as a table. Bell (2002) did rank each factor for both Generation X and Generation Y. That information is listed in Table 5. Note that the standard deviation for Generation X in 2002

for Factor 5 (financial obligations) was 2.39. The rankings for Factor 6 (desire for power) were the same in all three administrations of the RAMQ, being the lowest ranked factor each time the survey was administered. Factor 1 (helping behaviors) was ranked highest in all administrations of the survey, with the exception of Generation Y in 2002, where it was ranked second after Factor 5 (financial obligations).

Standard deviation is a measure that is used to quantify the amount of variation of a set of data values. A standard deviation close to 0 indicates that the data points tend to be very close to the mean (also called the expected value) of the set, while a high standard deviation indicates that the data points are spread out over a wider range of values (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). This exceeds the acceptable level of standard deviation at typically plus or minus 2.

Other comparisons include the following: Factor 2 (career development) was ranked fourth and Factor 6 (RA cohesiveness) was ranked third for all three administrations, with the exception of 2002 Generation Y, where Factor 2 was ranked third and Factor 6 was ranked fourth. Factor 5 (financial obligations) showed the greatest differences in the distinct years the RAMQ was administered, with a different ranking for each of the administrations. Factor 5 was ranked fifth in 1991 and with Generation X in 2002. Factor 5 ranked first with Generation Y in 2002 and second in 2015. Factor 4 also showed noteworthy differences. In 1991, and in 2002 for Generation X, Factor 4 was ranked second, in 2002, Generation Y and in 2015 Factor 4 was ranked fifth.

Table 8

Item Descriptive Statistics and Factor Structure for the Resident Assistant Questionnaire, 1991

Item Number	Factors and Questions	N	M	SD
Factor 1:	Helping Behaviors			
1	Counsel and advise students	144	4.06	0.83
7	Help students deal with personal problems	140	4.09	0.82
13	Help other students	143	4.37	0.71
19	Help other students who are in distress	141	4.16	0.75
22	Make College Life easier for others	140	4.12	0.85
24	Have opportunities to help other students	142	4.32	0.76
Factor 2:	Career Development			
2	Help fortify my resume	138	3.02	1.22
8	Be able to list employment as RA on resume	137	3.15	1.25
14	Become more marketable in the workplace after graduation	143	3.46	1.20
20	Help me get a better job upon graduation	141	3.32	1.15
23	Aid my career development	142	3.62	1.15
Factor 3:	Desire for Power			
3	Exercise control of over others	138	1.97	1.00
9	Exert control over other students	144	1.84	0.97
15	Have other students admire me	144	1.83	0.97
21	Exercise power over others	143	1.73	0.91
Factor 4:	Personal Growth			
4	Become more assertive	144	3.76	1.13
10	Gain the respect of others	143	3.20	1.19
16	Become more self-confident	144	3.58	1.22
Factor 5:	Financial Obligations			
5	Help meet financial obligations	139	3.55	1.29
11	Help pay expenses	143	3.27	1.38
17	Meet my financial need	142	3.09	1.37
Factor 6:	RA Cohesiveness			
6	Develop a bond with other	139	3.59	1.04
12	Develop friendships with other RAs	143	3.28	1.10
18	Enjoy the satisfaction of working with other RAs	141	3.43	1.02

Note. N differs due to missing values. Adapted from "Why the Aggravation? Resident Students Become Resident Assistants: Interpersonal Stress and Job Satisfaction," by R. J. Deluga and J. J. Winter, 1991, *Journal of College Student Development, 32,* p. 549. Copyright 1991 by the American College Personnel Association. Adapted with permission.

Table 9

Factor Rankings from 3 Administrations of the RAMQ

Factor & Year of Research	Rank	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Factor 1: Helping Behaviors				
1991	1	140	4.19	0.78
2003 Gen Y	2	68	3.91	0.63
2003 Gen X	1	136	4.18	0.85
2015	1	230	4.21	0.91
Factor 2: Career Development				
1991	4	140	3.31	1.21
2002 Gen Y	3	68	3.67	1.08
2002 Gen X	4	130	3.35	0.92
2015	4	230	3.81	1.09
Factor 3: Desire for Power				
1991	6	140	1.84	0.96
2002 Gen Y	6	69	2.10	1.06
2002 Gen X	6	138	1.84	1.37
2015	6	230	2.03	1.19
Factor 4: Personal Growth				
1991	2	140	3.51	1.18
2002 Gen Y	5	69	3.06	0.99
2002 Gen X	2	143	3.51	0.96
2015	5	230	3.30	1.26
Factor 5: Financial Obligations				
1991	5	140	3.40	1.34
2002 Gen Y	1	69	4.04	1.25
2002 Gen X	5	137	3.28	2.39
2015	2	230	4.19	1.09
Factor 6: RA Cohesiveness				
1991	3	140	3.40	1.05
2002 Gen Y	4	68	3.48	0.91
2002 Gen X	3	137	3.39	1.10
2015	3	230	3.85	1.04

Note. Reporting n=230 for this table. *N* varies due to missing values reported in Bell, 2002. Deluga and Winter, 1991 varied from 137-144 (reporting n=140 for this table). 1991 data from "Why the Aggravation? Resident Students Become Resident Assistants: Interpersonal Stress and Job Satisfaction," by R. J. Deluga and J. J. Winter, 1991, *Journal of College Student Development, 32,* p. 549. Copyright 1991 by the American College Personnel Association. 2002 Gen Y and Gen X data from "Resident assistant motivations to seek the position: A comparison between Generations X and Y," by E. E. Bell, 2002, Retrieved from http://vtechworks.lib.vt.edu/. Copyright 2002 by Erin E. Bell.

Analysis Summary

In terms of the most prominent motivational factors for current Mid-Atlantic resident assistants, helping behaviors still remains at the top of the list. This correlates with research conducted in 1991 (Deluga & Winter) and 2002 (Bell). RA cohesiveness remains among the most prominent factors. The desire for power remains the least prominent factor for seeking the RA position. Personal growth has decreased in prominence and career development has remained constant in order of prominence but increased numerically when mean scores are averaged. There were no significant differences in motivational factors of current RAs based on their demographic characteristics (i.e., gender and race/ethnicity) or characteristics of the work environment (i.e., type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, class standing of population RA is serving, number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing, and type of institution). There were no demographic and work environment characteristics (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, semesters in the RA position, and number of students the RA is serving on floor/wing) that predicted high levels of motivation for current RAs. This result is meaningful in that the models were not able to distinguish between gender, race/ethnicity nor any of the work environment characteristics in terms of what motivated students to apply for the RA position. Further, there were no predictors of motivation for current RAs in blocks of demographic or work environment characteristics.

Chapter 5 – Conclusions and Implications

This study sought to investigate motivational factors of current RAs. The role of the RA has changed over time and the difficulty of the job requirements has grown tremendously as higher education and society in general have changed. The research sought to understand the most significant motivational factors, as well as predictors of motivation, for RAs. In addition, the research aimed to identify if those motivational factors vary with the influence of time in the position or differ given specific demographic and work environment characteristics (gender, race and ethnicity, type of institution, type of residential community, number of students RA was serving, and class standing of students the RA was serving). The importance of this research is its value to higher education housing professionals in their work to recruit qualified students to the RA role. The study will be an asset to housing professionals on what motivated current RAs to apply for the position, which can provide meaningful guidance for training and recognition for RAs. Similarly, with a heightened understanding of those factors that motivated RAs to apply, RA training can be shifted to enhance and develop programs around those factors.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the study is rooted in Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory of motivation. Herzberg hypothesized that there were two categories of factors that affect motivation. The two categories include hygiene, or extrinsic factors, and motivators, or intrinsic factors (Herzberg, 1959). Herzberg suggested that factors leading to job satisfaction were "intrinsic," and factors that lead to job dissatisfaction were "extrinsic" (Caston & Braoto, 1985, p. 271). The intrinsic factors of personal growth,

mastery, increased autonomy, typically motivate employees and can shape job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). The instrument utilized in this study, Deluga & Winter's (1991) Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire (RAMQ), can be directly compared to Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory. The RAMQ is split into six motivation factors; the motivational factors of financial obligations, career development and desire for power tie directly to Herzberg's (1959) extrinsic factors. Herzberg's (1959) intrinsic factors compare to Deluga and Winter's (1991) motivational factor categories of helping behaviors, personal growth and RA cohesiveness.

In reviewing the findings of Deluga and Winter's (1991) RAMQ and the findings of this research, it is clear that the intrinsic factors of Factor One (helping behaviors) and Factor 6 (RA cohesiveness) which ranked 1 and 3 still remain in the top three factors for RA motivation and continue to correlate to Herzberg's two factor theory (1959) where intrinsic factors lead to increased levels of motivation. However, Factor 5 (financial obligations) has increased its rank to number two and Factor 4 (personal growth) has decreased in rank to five. This is where the theoretical framework deviates from the findings in 2015. The need for students to meet their financial obligations also increased in prominence from 1991 (Deluga & Winter, 1991).

It is to be noted that while financial obligations have increased as a factor toward RA motivation, it is not the only attribute or the most prominent. Helping behaviors continues to be the highest-ranking factor to RA motivation. This ties to Herzberg's (1959) theory as well. Bierman (1992) noted that while financial obligations may draw students to the position, the desire to help others is what drives RAs success and motivation while in the position. Further, when financial compensation was the single

driving factor toward the RA position, it led to job dissatisfaction. Bierman (1992) indicated that satisfaction within the RA role included working as a staff team, skill building, cohesiveness with a team, and participation in decision making. These findings tie to Deluga and Winter's (1991) and the 2015 RAMQ administration in this study. In particular, Bierman's finding that the desire for working as an RA team and the cohesiveness of the team indicated satisfaction in the RA role. This also extends to Herzberg (1959) theory of the intrinsic attributes of the position leading to job satisfaction. Further, Latham (2012) postulated that, while money was critical when applying for a job, it is only one of several factors that motivate staff.

Contemporary theorists on motivation, Senge (2006) and Pink (2009) share that motivation is rooted in three areas: a sense of purpose for the employee or creation of a shared vision as a team, the need for employees to achieve mastery in their work, and the ability to work with autonomy due to that achieved skill level. This correlates with the findings in this research. An RA's purpose is to help students (Blimling, 2010), and the ability to work as a RA team and attain cohesiveness with their staff team were the prominent factors in their motivation to apply for the RA position. This desired purpose, combined with shared staff vision as well as achieving mastery in their work, is what motivated students to apply.

Discussion

The results of this study show that the most prominent factors that motivate students to apply for the RA position have changed most meaningfully in the desire to meet financial obligations. The original study of RA motivation was conducted in 1991 (Deluga & Winter, 1991) and found financial obligations to be second to last, or fifth, in order of importance, whereas in this inquiry it was ranked second. The current study

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represents important differences from the first administration of the instrument. In 2002, Bell indicated that financial obligations moved up in prominence from the original study. In addition, helping behaviors and RA cohesiveness remain in prominence from the earlier studies. Current RAs first and foremost want to help people, and that desire continues to be their most prominent motivation to seek the RA position. The desire to be part of an RA team, to bond with fellow RAs and create lasting friendships, also continues to have prominence with students seeking the RA position. Societal influence on post-graduation employment has possibly had an effect on the career development factor remaining constant in overall factor placement but having higher overall average mean scores than Delgua and Winters RAMQ administration in 1991. Finally, the desire for power continues to be the least prominent for all RAs that participated in the RAMQ over the years.

The results of this study show that there are no significant differences in environment and demographic characteristics and their impact on motivation to apply for the RA position, i.e., type of residential community, semesters in the RA position, class standing of population RA was serving, number of students the RA was serving on floor/wing, and type of institution, race/ethnicity, and gender. Further, gender, race/ethnicity, how many students an RA serves, and how long the student has been an RA did not predict high levels of motivation. Therefore, this research concludes there is nothing to indicate the need for establishing different methods in recruitment processes based on specific work environment and demographic characteristics. This suggests that housing professionals should focus on the key factors that do motivate RAs, including helping behaviors, financial obligations and RA cohesiveness when establishing

recruitment and selection processes. There is no clear indication that motivation is impacted by work environment and demographic characteristics. Moreover, no work environment or demographic characteristics were predictive of motivation. Differences in gender, race/ethnicity, the class standing an RA serves, the type of housing, number of semesters in the position, number of residents, and type of institution were not significant to students' motivation for the RA position. It is to be noted that the researcher selected certain demographic and work environment characteristics that were not significant predictors of motivational factors. There could be other characteristics or combinations of characteristics that do: age, major, RA class standing, evaluation of their own previous RA, prior leadership experiences, size of institution and also size of RA program.

This study was substantially larger than Deluga & Winter (1991), with 144 participants, and Bell (2002), with 69 Generation Y and 137 Generation X respondents. The current research included 231 respondents. Further, this research included RAs from 46 institutions in the mid-Atlantic region, whereas, respondents in Deluga & Winter's (1991) represented 8 institutions and Bell's (2002) participants represented 3 institutions. Thus, the results of this inquiry include broader participation both in sample size and number of institutions.

Implications for Practice

This research suggests many implications for practice. First, now that a current baseline for what motivated students to apply for the RA position has been determined, the need exists to review how those motivational factors correlate to the recruitment for the RA position and marketing methods. Such strategies will need to include going beyond sharing the job description and hosting information sessions. Providing a deeper understanding of the many facets of the RA position and its compensation package is

required. Given the prominent first-place ranking for helping behaviors, highlighting the pieces of the position that include helping students, and offering testimonials from current or past residents on the impact of their RA on their residential experience, would prove beneficial in recruitment of RAs.

This study only included those RAs who received at least room and board (meal plan) as job compensation. For many RAs, they understand that to be free room and board. However, the student is working as an RA for that room and board and references to job compensation should not include the word free, but rather a positive outline of the financial package that the student will receive for their work as an RA. Also, highlighting the fact that the job compensation increases each year, since room and board costs typically increase each year, is important. Further, if the room is a single room with bathroom facilities or other amenities, then that should be highlighted as well. Often, these type of rooms are much more expensive than the standard room rate. Financial obligations moved up dramatically in importance to RA motivation from 1991 to 2015. While many schools are not in a position to increase compensation, a clearer understanding and outline of job compensation may aid in RA recruitment.

The results of this inquiry can ideally provide a data driven justification to increase job compensation for this critical student staff position. Higher education costs are on the rise and institutions have been cutting budgets to keep increases to a minimum (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015). The ability to increase RA compensation may prove difficult in this climate. Housing professionals may be in a position to utilize this study's research findings to aid in their discussion to increase RA compensation levels.

Factor 6 (RA cohesiveness) was also in the top three ranking of factors that motivated RAs. Sharing this aspect of the RA job is needed in recruitment processes. Again, direct testimonials from current and past RAs that share the impact that being an RA has had on their success will aid in showing potential candidates for the RA position that their roles help people, the number one current motivational factor why students apply for the position. Astin (1984) indicated that retention and successful graduation of students is rooted in three distinct goals: interaction with faculty, setting clear goals or purpose, and campus affinity or engagement with activities. The RA cohort, or staff, is how they engage on campus. As suggested by the results of this study, the staff bond that is developed is essential to RA motivation and therefore needs to be highlighted, not only when recruiting new staff but during the development of the staff team early in the start of their work as RA.

The recruitment process of high quality RAs also extends into the selection process. Like any interview process, the candidate is interviewing the employer as much as the employer is interviewing the candidate. How students interpret information shared in the interview process may affect their continuation in the process. For example, if housing professionals do not share the aspect of helping behaviors as part of the RA role this may change their enthusiasm to apply for the RA position at that institution. If helping others is a current prominent factor for students to apply for the RA position, then this aspect of the RA role needs to be highlighted throughout not only the recruitment but the selection process as well.

Adjustments to RA staff training are another implication for practice. Brandt Breschesien (2014) indicated that RA training becomes additional preparation,

specifically for sophomore students, on how to be successful students as well as RAs. In essence, the RA role becomes a unique living and learning experience similar to other residential programs designed specifically for residents. There could be adjustments made to summer and mid-semester training, as well as year-round professional development for RAs that highlights aspects of the position that motivated students to apply. Housing professionals need to keep in mind what is motivational for them: helping behaviors, RA cohesiveness, and career development. Providing professional development opportunities for RAs to utilize the RA position, as part of the post-graduation job seeking process is important. Highlighting resume and cover letter writing and interview skill building to emphasize transferable skills should be considered by housing professionals. This is particularly valuable in light of the societal emphasis on securing a job after college (Weissman, 2013). Further, as noted previously, it is important to consider a discussion on the compensation package for RAs. Room and board rates typically rise each year (NCES, 2015). Thus, RA compensation packages also increase each year.

Implications for Future Research

This study outlines current motivational factors for RAs to seek the RA position, and there are many considerations for future research. There was no qualitative research specifically on RA motivation found in the extensive literature review. There is a need to more deeply examine the rationale behind RA motivation. This inquiry also collected data from all RAs but eliminated data for respondents that did not meet the inclusion criteria of same job responsibility and similar job compensation. A look at motivation factors of those RAs that have different job responsibilities or lower job compensation may prove valuable. Additionally, research on institutions with higher RA compensation

and its effect on their motivation to apply for the position are warranted. It would also be valuable to examine correlations between motivation factors and work environment characteristics. In other words, are there weak or strong correlations that vary based on the work environment when applying for the RA position? In addition, further research using different demographic and work environment characteristics. Suggested characteristics include age of RA, grade point average of RA, size of institution, size residential community, size of total RA staff, type of residential community (e.g., living learning, honors, thematic) and rigor of institution.

Another path for research is the RA selection process. While this study gives some insight on what motivates a student to apply for the RA position, there is little research on the actual RA selection process (Jaeger & Caison, 2006). The process determines who will serve in this incredibly important role of RA and requires an enormous amount of time from staff. There is a need for additional research in this area and if current prominent motivational factors are considered when developing the RA selection process. In addition, scholars might also look at the workload of the RA. While this study looked at motivation to apply for the RA position, research on what keeps RAs motivated with an ever-increasing workload may prove beneficial. As mentioned in the literature review, while the actual job components for the RA position have not changed, the breadth and depth of that work have grown tremendously. The demands of mental health concerns of today's students, along with ever changing legislation like Title IX, has dramatically changed what housing professionals ask of RAs (Ritger, 2013). There is a need to review the RA role and how to handle the increased complexity of the responsibilities. Moreover, the autonomous nature of the RA role has not been examined

with any depth. Research of successful RAs and their ability to work on their floor or wing with great autonomy, particularly with the evolution of more complexity in the position, would benefit the profession.

Study Limitations

This study measured RA motivation to apply for the position while the RA was currently in the position. It utilized an instrument that was developed by Deluga and Winter (1991) called the Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire. It used a Likert scale with neutral as the middle response. This placement of the neutral response in the middle and not at the end may have led to misinterpretation of the meaning of neutral for respondents. Neutral could mean they have no opinion on the question rather than what was intended: The respondent was neutral between somewhat true and somewhat not true of them.

There were several limitations to the methodology of this study. The first limitation involves the collection of data. The decision was made to collect as much data as possible at one event. The decision was rooted in the desire to collect data from many institutions in the Mid-Atlantic region, leading to a data set that was more representative of what motivates current RAs in that region. The size and type of higher education institutions in the mid-Atlantic regions vary greatly. If requests had been made to institutions, specifically the data collected may have had more respondents from specific institutions. Although more participants in SSLI came from individual institutions, it was still limited by the cap on the number of attendees. For example, if the researcher sent emails to larger public institutions with more than 200 RAs on staff, it could provide a one-sided glimpse of the current motivational factors guiding students to apply for the RA position. However, if an email had been sent to institutions, there may have been

more overall respondents.

The decision was made to attend the SSLI conference due to its higher attendance rates for first year RAs. This was found to be true in the number of respondents with nearly half (44.6%) reporting they were in their first semester of their RA role. This allowed less elapsed time from when the RA applied for the position and when they started their job.

The number of useable respondents did not match the sample size of those that attended SSLI. At SSLI only 181 respondents took the survey on site. The minimum number required in order to use descriptive statistics for generalizability is 210 respondents, in accordance with the sample size recommendations in Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Thus, additional outreach needed to be conducted to increase the number of usable responses. This required the researcher to request that the SSLI conference host send an email to everyone that attended SSLI, invite participation, and share the link to the online survey.

Finally, there were two limitations with the data collected. There was only one respondent who answered transgender as a choice for gender. Given this small number the data for this respondent was eliminated from multivariate analyses. Further, it is to be noted that upon review of the institutions in attendance at SLLI conference, no institutions listed were for-profit. Two respondents claimed to be working at for-profit institutions. Thus, these respondents' responses were eliminated from multivariate analyses as well.

Conclusions

Housing professionals struggle with recruiting quality students into the critical role of RA. The development of recruitment processes for the RA position needs to be

reviewed. If the correlation between the current prominent factors that guide students to apply for the RA position and recruitment practices for the RA position can be made, then perhaps the struggle for recruitment of quality students to the RA position can be diminished. This study shed light on the question of current prominent factors that motivate students to apply for the RA role. Helping behaviors and RA cohesiveness remain very prominent factors towards a student's motivation to apply for the RA position. In addition, the need to meet financial obligations has increased greatly in the 24 years since the survey was first administered. Housing professionals may utilize this data to guide their recruitment and can make necessary adjustments to highlight these factors attracting students to the position. The finding of no significance for both predictors of differences in specific blocks of work environment and demographic characteristics can allow housing professionals to focus their energy and resources when developing their processes. Housing professionals focus on the current motivational factors that lead students to apply for the RA position. This can be done without having to develop different methods to attract different populations of students. Housing professionals do not need to be concerned about the effect of specific demographic (gender and race/ethnicity) and work environment characteristics (how many students on their wing/floor, class standing of residents, type of housing, and number of semesters the RA has worked) on RA motivation.

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Appendix A - Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire (RAMQ)

Please select the response to the statement the most closely applies to your personal assessment of the resident assistant position. The scale: (1) Not at all true of me, (2) Somewhat not true of me, (3) Neutral, (4) Somewhat true of me, (5) Very true of me.

"An important reason why I chose to become a Resident Assistant was to…"

1. Counsel and advise students
2. Help fortify my resume
3. Exercise control over others
4. Become more assertive
5. Help meet financial obligations
6. Develop a bond with other Resident Assistants
7. Help students deal with personal problems
8. Be able to list employment as a Resident Assistant on my Resume
9. Exert control over other students
10. Gain the respect of others
11. Help pay expenses
12. Develop friendships with other Resident Assistants
13. Help other students
14. Become more marketable in the workplace after graduation
15. Have other students admire me
16. Become more self-confident
17. Meet my financial needs
18. Enjoy the satisfaction of working with other Resident Assistants
19. Help other students who are in distress
20. Help me get a better job upon graduation
21. Exercise power over others
22. Make college life easier for others
23. Aid my career development
24. Have an opportunity to help others

Appendix B - Permission to Use RAMQ

March 10, 2015

To Whom it May Concern:

I am writing in reference to the request by Katherine B. Boone to replicate the study I used with resident assistants in 1991 entitles Resident Assistant Motivation Questionnaire (RAMQ) and published in the Journal of College Student Development in November 1991 in collaboration with John J. Winters, Jr. I understand that Ms. Boone plans to use the study for use with resident assistants in the mid Atlantic region.

This letter serves as formal recognition of my full permission for Ms. Boone to utilize the questionnaire. I do understand that she intends to use only the RAMQ with several demographic and open-ended questions added for use in future research.

Regards,

Ronald J. Deluga
Professor of Psychology
Department of Applied Psychology
Bryant University

401-232-6279
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Appendix C – Institutional Review Board Approval

FROSTBURG
STATE UNIVERSITY

One University. A World of Experiences.

To: Katherine Boone
From: Beth Scarloss, IRB Chair
Date: Thursday, August 13, 2015
Subject: Notice of Protocol Review

We have received your human research protocol application and reviewed it.
Thank you for submitting this proposal in compliance with FSU and USM policy.

Title: Resident Assistant Workplace Motivation: A Mid-Atlantic Regional Study

Number Assigned: H2016-001
Received on: 7/15/2015

The Institutional Review Board has determined that the research you describe in your application qualifies as research that is exempt from the Code of Federal Regulations (45 CFR 46) under §46.101(b). As long as you follow the protocol described in your submission, no further action on your part is necessary at this time. You will be reminded annually to submit a statement confirming that this research a) is ongoing or b) has been terminated.

If you make substantial changes to this project or begin another research project involving human participants, the IRB will be required to review that project, as well.

We greatly appreciate your cooperation with the IRB. If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact us at IRB@Frostburg.edu.

Reviewer Comments:
(None)