Perceptions of Teaching, Research, and Service Expertise, Workload, Organizational Support, and Satisfaction among U.S. Faculty Members’ Intent to Stay in Tier 1 or Tier 2 Organizations: A Structural Equation Model

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Abstract. All faculties in higher education are expected to be effective in their teaching and service activities. However, faculty in Tier 1 and Tier 2 academic organizations are further pressed to demonstrate productivity as researchers. The diverse demands of these faculty call attention to how they really view their work lives. Thus, we investigated the influence of perceptions of organizational processes and organizational support on work related factors among a national sample of faculty from different disciplines in Tier 1 and Tier 2 academic organizations. Participants were 539 faculty employees at academic organizations across the U.S. We used structural equation modeling to examine the direct effects of the aforementioned exogenous latent variables on various aspects of the academe and faculty members’ intent to stay in the academic organization. Further, we explored whether characteristics of the organization mediated the structural relations among organizational processes and support and intent to stay. Results revealed organizational support and processes to have direct effects on several of the factors within the academe, including intent to stay. Additionally, research expertise, workload, and satisfaction with work partially mediated the structural relations among organizational processes and support and intent to stay. Implications for organizational behavior and practice are also discussed.

Keywords: Faculty work life; organizational behavior; U.S. Tier1/Tier 2 organizations; structural equation modeling; intent to stay.
Introduction
Universities have a vested interest in recruiting high quality faculty employees and retaining them. Faculties bring students, research dollars, and they build the reputation and visibility of the university. Therefore, when they leave, the university incurs significant cost in new job advertising, interviewing, and new start-up packages (O’Meara, Lounder & Campbell, 2014). Other significant costs include lost productivity, disruptions to university priorities, such as research, and overuse of existing faculty to orient and mentor (Gardner, 2012). A fresh look in the work life of faculty is important as a first step to recruitment and retention. Nowhere is this more pressing than in Tier 1 and Tier 2 universities. Faculty in Tier 1 (i.e., research university/very high research activity) and Tier 2 (i.e., research university/high research activity) institutions are routinely expected to be very good or, even better, especially in research productivity. The public uses those tier rankings to make choices about top-notch colleges where they can learn and work with professors on the cutting edge of research (Webster, 2001). The status of the university ranking can positively affect relationships and collaborative potential with groups and communities well beyond the walls of the university.

Faculty work life is conceptualized as any activities, situations, or events that faculty members experience in their academic work roles. At the core of work life, they are the daily activities carried out by a faculty member, including teaching, research and service, all of which are expected activities of a well-rounded faculty member by organizational administrators (Kuntz, 2012; Ellis, 2013). However, a work life consisting of research, teaching and service is a balancing act for all faculties, and the nature of the workplace can make a difference. For example, situations within the workplace that arise between faculty peers can be perceived as positive or negative and can affect the work life of an individual faculty member based on his or her perception of relationships with peers (Monk-Turner & Fogerty, 2010). Events that faculty members may experience, such as workload assignment, can also have an effect on the work life of a faculty member. Because the assignment of workload is often delegated by an administrator (Candela, Gutierrez, & Keating, 2015), increased support from administration to a faculty member can have a positive effect on work life (Carver, Candela, & Gutierrez, 2011; Kukla-Acevado, 2009). These aspects of work life are experienced by virtually all faculties in higher education. The term “work life” is suitable because it entails just that, life while working. It is misleading to use the phrase “life at work” because, as Kuntz (2012) asserts, some faculty work is often done outside the confines of a faculty members’ academic organization. Because this term spans the working life of an individual, it would be prudent to investigate how this work life co-exists with life outside work. Thus, it is important to understand what factors create a positive perception of work life and what factors create a negative outlook.

Juggling work demands and personal life can be very difficult for faculty (Noor, 2011). Extant research shows that balance between work and personal life is important among nursing faculty (Tourangeau et al., 2014), and lack of balance can lead to dissatisfaction with work, and a perceived inability to achieve a
work-life balance among nursing faculty (Yedidia et al., 2014). Interestingly, Lindfelt et al. (2015) found that members of the pharmacy school faculty reported a satisfaction with their position within their organization but were simultaneously dissatisfied with their work-life balance due to perceived overly long workweeks and lack of sleep. Ninety-five percent of pharmacy faculty reported working 40 or more hours a week and 51% reported working 50 hours or more, which is like Kaufman’s (2007) finding that nursing faculty worked an average of 53.3 hours per week. The juxtaposition of these interdisciplinary findings suggests that faculty members’ value of work-life may be similar between disciplines.

Faculties who are on tenure-track are subject to evaluations in which they must abide by more stringent work and research schedules to meet expectations of tenured faculty and administration. As previously mentioned, rigorous work schedules can lead to increased negative perception about work life when compared to work schedules that are agreed mutually upon between faculty members and the organization.

Theoretical Framework

The Expectancy Theory of Motivation, developed by Vroom in 1964, was used to guide the study. According to Vroom, motivation has three main components: valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. Valence refers to the emotional response individuals attribute to outcomes such as importance, satisfaction, and desirability; it can be positive, negative, or neutral. Instrumentality is described as the relation between outcomes and the odds-ratio of achieving desired outcomes. Expectancy is defined as one’s subjective likelihood that an outcome can be achieved through the exertion of effort towards performance. Previous empirical investigations invoking this theory have focused on several outcomes including organizational behavior (e.g., Candela et al., 2015; Judge & Illies, 2002; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989; Scholl, 1981), leadership (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Fry, 2003; Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001), compensation (e.g., Igalens & Roussel, 1999; Liccione, 2007; Williams & Karau, 1991), and intent to stay in the academic organization (Candela, Gutierrez, and Keating, 2013; Candela et al., 2015). A meta-analysis conducted by Van Eerde and Thierry (1996) found that research using Vroom’s Expectancy Theory was the strongest for outcomes related to intention and preference. This is particularly crucial for the present investigation because intent to stay in the academic organization was the ultimate dependent variable in our proposed structural equation model. Interestingly, a more recent meta-analysis by Colquitt, LePine, and Noe (2000) using training outcomes found that valence in Vroom’s theory partially mediates the relations between personality, work climate, and age and training outcomes such as work performance.

Scholarship

Lechuga and Lechuga (2012) note that the literature has provided definitions of scholarship and research as those endeavors leading to some end product, such as an article or grant. Yet, they broaden the definition to include aspects of Boyer's model so that scholarship may be viewed as it "refers to intellectual
activities that utilize any aspect of either the scholarship of discovery or integration deemed appropriate to that individuals' scholarly development or product." (p. 62). Intrinsically motivated faculties are compelled by feeling a sense of achievement while extrinsically motivated faculties see their activity as a way to gain something, such as a better evaluation, tenure or promotion. Faculties may also be influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Considering motivation in light of self-determination theory can provide employers with ideas on how to accommodate both intrinsic and extrinsic needs of their faculty by considering their competence, autonomy, self-esteem and relatedness. The authors consider the importance of self-regulation in maintaining motivation. This very conscious approach by faculty to what they are doing and what they need to achieve the goal clarifies both intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors, as well as how they manifest. This might include the ability to manage expectations, structure how and when work occurs, view setbacks as areas from which to learn, and use self-rewards to acknowledgement effort and outcomes.

The work of Boyer (1990, 1996, 1997) and others in conceptualizing scholarship in its many forms is evident today as more than 400 universities and colleges in the US have adapted the teaching, research and service model as areas of scholarship that should be distinct but may often overlap. Research by Smith, Crookes, Else and Crookes (2012) indicated the view by faculty of a heavy workload, lack of structure on the promotion process and lack of assistance or support for pursuing more non-traditional paths to promotion and tenure, such as emphasis on teaching scholarship. In the present study, we sought to explore the various factors related to scholarship and research that influenced faculty members’ intent to remain in the academe.

Productivity and Workload

Faculty members are typically expected to be productive and effective in all three areas of teaching, research and service. The calls for demonstration of this productivity have increased over the last several years as a part of the larger academic accountability movement. Concurrently, allocation of funds have been shifting resulting in the need to do more with less; possibly less financial, material or personnel support. Breault (2011) wrote about the demands on today's college faculty as the "intensification of the professoriate". This is like the workplace complexity compression phenomenon described by Krichbaum et al. (2007) in which nurses are expected to take on more duties without the benefit of more time.

Faculty productivity involves teaching, research and service. It can be somewhat elusive beyond number of contact hours with students in classrooms (Middaugh, 2011). The topic is frequently debated both within and beyond university organizations (Baskin, 2012). It has gained traction as calls for accountability mount with rising student tuition fees and overall organizational operational costs. Katz (2011) suggests that faculties themselves need to do more to clearly articulate exactly what they do and know exactly how their teaching,
research and service are effective. Calls continue for universities to develop additional metrics for evaluating faculty impact, given the increasing diversity of the activities in which they engage (Shinn, 2014).

Barriers to faculty participation in research were the focus of a study conducted in an international college in Southeast Asia (Vyhmeister & Vyhmeister, 2007). Suggestions to enhance institutional support included setting clear priorities for research, dedicating funds for research, developing a research center and providing faculty training and tools to conduct research as well as to establish a solid mentoring program. Hence, it is necessary to understand more thoroughly faculty members' perceptions and attitudes toward productivity and workload and how their perceptions and attitudes contribute to their intent to remain in the professoriate.

**Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction and faculty turnover have been studied using various factors such as rank, gender, and salary, with little correlation among them (Ryan, Healy, & Sullivan, 2012). However, the work itself, level of engagement and perceived value of it, along with a sense of administrative support appear to affect job satisfaction, which may negatively influence any intention of leaving the organization (Ryan et al., 2012). The lack of satisfaction among associate professors may be greater than that of assistant or full professors for reasons such as lack of direct guidelines that may be more explicit for assistant professors, lack of appreciation and recognition and even some mid-career letdown about what is important as a faculty member and what to do next (Wilson, 2012). Wilson discusses efforts that may be helpful at increasing the satisfaction of associate professors such as informal networks, alternate activities leading to promotion to full professor, and more development for their management and leadership skills.

Michel and Michel (2015) found that job satisfaction had a positive, significant effect on work-family enrichment, work flexibility and organizational commitment. However, the only significant relation was between work-family enrichment and job satisfaction. Work schedule flexibility was considered to have a moderating effect, as it showed a significant effect on work-family enrichment. The researchers concluded that flexibility in work schedules should be considered to achieve a balance between family and work. Thus, we examined to what extent job satisfaction predicted faculty members’ intent to remain in the academic organization.

**Mentorship and Organizational Support**

Faculty mentoring may be beneficial as a recruitment tool and as a way to increase faculty retention and collegiality among the professoriate (Lumpkin, 2011). New faculty members are particularly challenged by academic institutions that are undergoing dramatic priority reexamination and economic shifts that affect direction and resources, increasing diversity within the organization and
the students who pass through it, and societal pressure to show evidence of effectiveness. Cariaga-Lo et al. (2010) wrote about ways to support new faculty, including solid faculty orientation programs, ongoing support for faculty scholarship, development of faculty to teach, attention to balance between working and personal life, mentoring programs and recognition of faculty efforts and contributions.

Research has stressed the need for administrators to value research effort, such as submission of major papers and grants, better alignment between work and performance evaluation, tenure and promotion, additional support for faculty from their departments and clear, open lines of communication. The need to conceive more collaborative ways to work that may even include changes to the traditional notions of the campus and use of individual offices is also important (Hardre et al., 2011; Kuntz, 2012). As contextual/ institutional characteristics have been shown to affect faculty members’ intent to remain or leave the academy, we investigated the role of mentorship and support from various levels of the academic organization on intent to remain or leave the academy.

The Issue of Intent

What influences faculty members’ intentions to stay or leave the academic organization has been the subject of various studies over the years (Rosser & Tabeta, 2010). The authors noted that the faculties that intend to leave are more likely to follow through. A 1998 national survey by Barnes, Agago and Coombs found that the faculties who reported higher stress levels and heavy time commitments have higher intent to leave. More recently, Ryan, Healy and Sullivan (2012) found that the faculties who did not feel able to pursue research interests showed the highest intent to leave. Candela et al. (2015) investigated the degree to which perceived administrative support, perceived teaching expertise, perceptions of equity/fairness with tenure and promotion processes, perceived workload, and levels of job satisfaction influenced intent to stay in the academic organization in a national survey of nursing faculty. Conclusions included the need for administrators to understand what each faculty member values and needs regarding his/her teaching and research to positively affect their job satisfaction and willingness to stay in the organization.

The Present Study

The purpose of the present investigation was to examine the structural relations among perceived organizational support (POS), perceptions of organizational processes (POP), perceived research expertise (PRE), perceived service expertise (PSE), perceived teaching expertise (PTE), workload (WL), perceptions of performance evaluations (PPEs), satisfaction with work (SW), and intent to stay in the academic organization (IS) among a nationally representative sample of 539 academic faculty member in the US. To this end, we proposed the hypothesized structural equation model (SEM) depicted in Figure 1.

In accordance with this SEM, we posed two research questions and hypotheses; they are as follows:

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1. What are the structural relations between POS, POP, WL, PRE, PSE, PTE, PPE, SW, and IS among a nationally representative sample of U.S. academic faculty?

*H₁*: We predicted, based on theoretical considerations and our knowledge of the constructs under investigation, that both POS and POP would directly positively predict PTE, PRE, PSE, and SW, and negatively predict WL. Moreover, POP was expected to directly positively predict PPE whereas WL was expected to be a negative predictor of PPE. We assumed PTE, PRE, and PSE would directly positively predict SW, and WL to negatively predict SW. Finally, POS, POP, PTE, PRE, PSE, PPE, and SW were hypothesized to directly positively predict IS, and WL to negatively predict IS.

2. Do WL, PTE, PRE, PSE, PPE, and SW mediate the structural relations between POS, POP and IS?

*H₂*: Predicated on theory and our knowledge of the constructs, we hypothesized WL, PTE, PRE, PSE, PPE, and SW to *partially* mediate the structural relations between POS, POP and IS.

Baron and Kenny (1986) posited that *full* mediation is present when the relation between Variables X→Y becomes statistically non-significant when Variable Z is introduced as a mediator, indicating that Z explains a significant proportion of the variability in X and Y. On the other hand, *partial* mediation is present when the initial relation between X→Y decreases when Z is introduced yet remains statistically significant.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 1**: Hypothesized full structural equation model of a nationally representative sample of faculty members in the U.S.

Key: POP = perceptions of organizational processes; POS = perceived organizational support; WL = workload; PTE = perceived teaching expertise; PRE = perceived research/scholarship expertise; PSE = perceived service expertise; PPE = perceptions of performance evaluation; SW = satisfaction with work; IS = intent to stay in the academic organization.
Method

In this section, we describe our participants, the instruments we used to collect our data, our procedures, and our data analysis plan and research design. We remained as detailed and specific as possible to avoid confusion and facilitate replication.

Participants and Sample

Participants were a nationally representative sample of 539 faculty members from academic organizations across the U.S. The sample consisted of 274 females and 265 males whose age ranged from 27 to 76 (M = 48.14, SD = 11.02). Four hundred-eighty-two participants (482) indicated they held a doctorate in the field in which they currently teach. Average reported salary was $106,889.71 (SD = $51,544.34). Further, participants reported having served in a faculty role part time an average of 4.64 years (SD = 1.00) and full time 16.30 years (SD = 11.21), and they indicated having served in an average of 2.30 academic programs (SD = 1.50) during their careers. Finally, participants reported teaching undergraduate students an average of 56.73% of the time (SD = 13.30), master’s students an average of 19.04% of the time (SD = 5.63), and doctoral students an average of 22.71% of the time (SD = 10.88). Table 1 presents pertinent characteristics of the context and participants and Table 2 presents a breakdown of typical assignments for the present sample of faculty.

Table 1. Raw Frequencies of Demographic Characteristics of the Sample and Context of Tier 1 and Tier 2 Academic Organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Raw Frequencies (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic Discipline</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>53 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>45 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>44 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sciences</td>
<td>139 (26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business/ Economics/ Finance/ Accounting</td>
<td>34 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts</td>
<td>52 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>55 (11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>6 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Split Appointments</td>
<td>104 (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>484 (90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>17 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/ Pacific Islander</td>
<td>29 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>6 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/ Alaska Native</td>
<td>2 (&lt; 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Rank</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructor/ Lecturer</td>
<td>30 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
<td>116 (22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>160 (30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>226 (42)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Tenure
- Non-Tenured, Not on a Tenure-Track: 66 (12)
- Non-Tenured, on a Tenure-Track: 97 (19)
- Tenured: 369 (69)

### Full-Time Equivalent
- Full-Time: 511 (95)
- Part-Time: 28 (5)

### Type of University/College
- Public: 421 (78)
- Private: 109 (18)

### Carnegie Classification
- Tier 1 (research university, very high research activity): 374 (69)
- Tier 2 (research university, high research activity): 165 (31)

### Location of University
- Northeast (NH, MA, RI, ME, CT, NJ, DE, MD, VT, NY, PA): 129 (24)
- Southeast (WV, VA, NC, SC, GA, FL, KY, TN, AR, LA, MS, AL): 117 (22)
- Midwest (ND, SD, NE, KS, MN, IA, MO, WI, IL, MI, IN, OH): 127 (24)
- Southwest (AZ, NM, TX, OK): 42 (8)
- West (WA, OR, CA, MT, ID, NV, UT, WY, CO, HI, AK): 119 (22)

### Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Typical Faculty Work Life Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hours Worked/Week</td>
<td>54.23</td>
<td>11.88</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours Teaching/Week</td>
<td>20.52</td>
<td>11.09</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours Research/Week</td>
<td>18.97</td>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours Service/Week</td>
<td>14.77</td>
<td>11.19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours Working at Academic Organization</td>
<td>65.42</td>
<td>22.66</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours Working at Home</td>
<td>27.77</td>
<td>19.21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours Working in Community Settings</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Work Occurring Monday-Friday</td>
<td>66.77</td>
<td>18.48</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Work Occurring at Evening</td>
<td>13.57</td>
<td>10.26</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Work Occurring on Weekends</td>
<td>13.31</td>
<td>8.87</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 539
Materials and Instruments

Data for the present study were collected using the Faculty Work Life Survey (FWLS). The FWLS is a 51-item measure that was adapted, in part, from measures currently in existence in the literature (e.g., Eccles, Vida, & Barber, 2004; Spector, 1985), including the National League of Nursing (NLN) Faculty Satisfaction Survey (DeBasio et al., 2005). Twelve items were intended to collect demographic information from the sample such as age, annual salary, location of academic organization, and the classification of the institution (i.e., Tier 1 or Tier 2) in which faculties work, among others.

Perceptions of Teaching, Research, and Service Expertise (PTE)

Perceptions of expertise on the three facets of the faculty role—teaching, research/scholarship, and service—were gathered using Benner’s (1984) Novice to Expert Scale, which ranged from 1 “novice”, 2 “advanced beginner”, 3 “competent”, 4 “proficient”, and 5 “expert”, with 0 indicating “no experience”. Sample items include the following: PTE (11 items), “classroom based learning”, “educational theory”, “learner centered education”; PRE (12 items), “quantitative research design”, “qualitative research design”, and “mixed method research design”; and PSE (9 items), “departmental committee service”, “chairing doctoral/thesis committees”, and “university committee service”. Internal consistency reliability coefficients, Cronbach’s α, for the three scales, were acceptable to high: PTE, α = 0.80; PRE, α = 0.88, and PSE, α = 0.78.

Workload (WL)

Perceptions of WL were collected using 5 items that asked about teaching, research, and service expectations of the academic organization. Sample items included, “how many credits/units are you assigned in a typical semester/quarter?” and “number of credits/units per semester/quarter assigned to teaching”. Rather than using Likert scales, we opted to use a truly ratio scale for these items, and thus, participants were able to input actual numbers such as “9”. Internal consistency reliability for the WL scale was acceptable, α = 0.71.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

POS was measured using a 7-item scale that asked participants regarding their perceptions of support from various units of the academic organization from department chair, to dean, to central administration. Participants responded along a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree”, 2 “disagree”, 3 “neither agree nor disagree”, 4 “agree”, and 5 “strongly agree”. Sample items included, “the person to whom I report (e.g., chair or program director) is supportive of my teaching goals and activities,” and “I get constructive feedback, guidance, and support to help me perform my best from senior administration at my college or university.” Internal consistency reliability for this scale was acceptable, α = 0.75.

Perceptions of Organizational Processes (POP)

Participants’ POP were gathered using a 7-item scale tapping into the various aspects of the academic organization. Participants responded to these items on a
5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree”, 2 “disagree”, 3 “neither agree nor disagree”, 4 “agree”, and 5 “strongly agree”. Sample items for the POP scale were, “I have a high degree of input in how I spend my time as a faculty member.”, “my department or unit has a communication system that allows me to be adequately informed in a timely fashion about major issues and important events.”, and “faculty accomplishments are routinely acknowledged by administrators.” Internal consistency reliability was high, $\alpha = 0.87$.

**Perceptions of Performance Evaluations (PPE)**
Faculty members’ PPE were assessed using 8 items that had the following stem, “What input contributes to your faculty evaluation of performance”. Participants were then given factors such as “dean, director or department chair”, “university or college administration (e.g., Provost or President”, and actual indicators of effectiveness such as “student evaluations of teaching effectiveness” and “research/scholarship productivity”. Participants responded to these items along a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree”, 2 “disagree”, 3 “neither agree nor disagree”, 4 “agree”, and 5 “strongly agree”. Internal consistency reliability for this scale was acceptable, $\alpha = 0.71$.

**Satisfaction with Work (SW)**
Faculty members’ SW was measured using 12 items that addressed their perceived satisfaction with various aspects of the faculty role and the academic organization. Sample items included their perceived satisfaction with factors such as, “being acknowledged”, “trusting administrators”, and “feeling connected to my peers”. Participants responded to these items on a continuous scale ranging from 0 to 100 in which 0 indicated “no satisfaction” and 100 indicated “complete satisfaction”. Participants were instructed that any value from 0 to 100 is valid and that the closer to 0 the less satisfaction is and the closer to 100 the more satisfaction is associated with a given characteristic. Cronbach’s $\alpha$ for this scale was acceptable, 0.78.

**Intent to Stay (IS)**
Intent to stay in the academic organization was measured using 13 items with the following stem, “what factors influenced your decision in staying or thinking about leaving the faculty role”. Following this, faculty members were given 13 factors that may contribute to this decision such as “working with students”, “encouragement from peers”, and “salary”. As with SW, participants responded to these factors on a continuous 0 to 100 scale ranging from 0 “influenced me to think about leaving” to 100 “influenced me to stay”. Further, participants were instructed that any value from 0 to 100 is valid and that the closer to 0 the greater the intent to leave and the closer to 100 the greater the intent to stay in the academic organization associated with a given characteristic. Cronbach’s $\alpha$ for this scale was high, 0.89.

**Procedures**
IRB approval was secured prior to any data collection activities. First, the FWLS was inputted into Qualtrics for online delivery. Next, the email addresses of all program directors or department chairs in all academic programs within Tier 1
and Tier 2 institutions were collected and aggregated. A total of 1,324 email addresses were located and transferred to the Qualtrics survey for administration. We subsequently prepared an introductory email to all program directors and department chairs with a brief explanation as to the purpose of the study and with a request to distribute to their respective faculty for voluntary participation. The introductory email contained the link to the Qualtrics survey as well as IRB approval attached. For those faculty members who volunteered to participate, the Qualtrics link immediately led them to the electronic informed consent form, which underscored that participation was voluntary and that they could cease participation at any point without negative consequences to them.

Interested faculty members were then taken to the FWLS in Qualtrics once they clicked on the “I agree to participate” button (faculty who opted not to participate were explicitly instructed to close their web browser). The FWLS was structured such that demographic items were completed first and IS items were completed last. We further encouraged voluntary participation by giving faculty the option to skip any item (i.e., we did not mark any item as “required”). Fourteen days after initial administration, a follow up email was sent instructing those program directors and department chairs who had already forwarded the email to their respective faculty members to ignore the email and encourage those who did not to please do so. This approach yielded 554 responses (539 complete; 15 partial).

Data Analysis Plan and Research Design

The present study employed a cross-sectional correlational design using regression-based analytic techniques. All data were screened via the International Business Machine (IBM) Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) statistics 22 software for univariate and multivariate outliers (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Furthermore, data were tested for univariate and multivariate assumptions, including multivariate normality (Mardia’s Normalized Estimate), multicollinearity, and singularity, to proceed with maximum likelihood (ML) estimation. Regarding multivariate normality, the data demonstrated moderate kurtosis (Mardia’s Normalized Estimate = 24.70); hence, the ML robust (MLR) statistics were requested and interpreted in lieu of the ML normal distribution statistics. MLR procedures provide adjusted fit indices (e.g., S-B χ², *CFI, *NNFI, *IFI, and *RMSEA and its *CI90%) that correct for moderate-to-severe violations of multivariate normality. Additionally, MLR procedures adjust/correct standard errors and the statistical significance of the unstandardized structural path coefficients, considering multivariate non-normality (Kline, 2005). All other ML assumptions were met and no extreme outliers that would otherwise undermine the trustworthiness of the data were detected.

Goodness-of-fit indices (*NNFI, *CFI, *IFI) ≥ .90 suggest an adequately fitting model, and those ≥ .95 suggest excellent fit of the model to the observed data. With respect to residuals, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) values ≤ .08 suggest reasonable errors in estimating model parameters and root mean square error of approximation (*RMSEA) values ≤ .08 suggest that the
model parameters approximate those of the population adequately and those < .05 suggest good fit to the data (Byrne, 2006; Kline, 2005). Dillon-Goldstein’s rho (ρ) (Werts, Linn, & Jöreskog, 1974) was also used to assess the overall or composite reliability of the model. Rho measures how well the manifest/indicator variables, as a block, represent the latent variable in which they are hypothesized to load. Like the interpretation of Cronbach’s alpha, higher values for rho indicate greater model reliability, with .70 serving as the lower-bound for adequate model reliability (Werts et al., 1974).

A missing values analysis demonstrated that 15 cases (2.7%) had missing data. Systematic bias in the pattern of missing data could pose a problem to the trustworthiness and accuracy of the data, and hence, the validity of the inferences and conclusions drawn from such data. Thus, Little’s MCAR χ² was requested from the missing values analysis to ascertain if the pattern of missing data were missing at random (Little & Rubin, 1989; Schaeffer & Graham, 2002). A significant χ² (i.e., p < .05) would suggest that the pattern of missing data is not missing at random (MNAR), which poses a problem for interpretation of results because they may be biased due to systematic differences in non-responses. However, the result of this test was non-significant, Little’s MCAR χ² (2,583) = 2,665.10, p = .13, suggesting that the missingness pattern in the data was missing at random. Thus, all final analyses were conducted with 539 complete cases.

Descriptive statistics were computed for all measures utilizing IBM SPSS 22 software. The structural equation modeling (SEM) was utilized to explore the hypothesized relations among the constructs in the present study (see Figure 1). The hypothesized model was evaluated via the EQS 6.3 statistical software package (Bentler, 2005) by specifying the direct and indirect effects in the present data.

First, these data were submitted to a standard confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine whether the specified observed variables (i.e., indicators of the latent constructs) were in fact manifestations of the latent constructs. The overall model fit, the factor loadings, and the explained variance each factor contributed to its indicators were analyzed for this purpose. Next, the hypothesized full SEM model of Figure 1 was evaluated for overall model fit as well as direct structural paths. The aforementioned adjusted goodness-of-fit indices, the SRMR, *RMSEA, and its *CI90% between the hypothesized model and a variance-only model were examined to ascertain if the proposed model fit the data reasonably well.

Finally, post-hoc (exploratory) respecification procedures—more specifically, the Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test for the addition of parameters and the Wald test for the deletion of parameters—were conducted on the model to improve its fit to the data and to more adequately represent the meaningful relations among the constructs. All model respecifications were guided by theoretical considerations as well as the researchers’ knowledge of the constructs.
Results

In this section we outline our findings. We begin by providing overall descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations between all the variables of interest and proceed to reporting the results of our main research objectives. These latter begin with reporting the findings of our measurement model followed by discussion of the direct and indirect effects of the final SEM.

We present descriptive statistics for the nine latent variables under consideration in Table 3 while Table 4 presents the zero-order Pearson’s Product-Moment correlation coefficients for the nine latent variables. Correlations of the composite scores of the nine variables ranged from $r = .26$ to $r = .62$ in absolute value, and all coefficients were statistically significant and in the expected theoretical direction. Of special importance, WL negatively correlated with all but perceived service expertise. Further, IS positively correlated with every characteristic except WL and PPE.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Composite Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Organization Support</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of Organizational Processes</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workload</td>
<td>11.53</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Teaching Expertise</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Research Expertise</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Service Expertise</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Performance Evaluations</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Work</td>
<td>72.28</td>
<td>12.62</td>
<td>32.50</td>
<td>99.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intent to Stay</td>
<td>61.16</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$N = 539$

Table 4. Zero-Order Pearson’s Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients of the Nine Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Perceived Research Expertise</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td>-.52**</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Perceived Service Expertise</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td>.31*</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Perceived Teaching Expertise</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>-.54**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Intent to Stay</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.57**</td>
<td>-.29*</td>
<td>.60**</td>
<td>.62**</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Workload</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.31*</td>
<td>-.49**</td>
<td>-.26*</td>
<td>-.37*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Perceptions of Performance</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.30*</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>.29*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Perceptions of Organizational Process</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>-.31*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Perceived Organizational Support</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Satisfaction with Work</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$N = 539$  ** $p < .01$  * $p < .05$
The Measurement Model

The measurement model was evaluated by conducting a standard CFA. The standard CFA model specified nine latent factors—POP, POS, WL, PTE, PRE, PSE, PPE, SW, and IS—and fit the observed data reasonably well, $S-B \chi^2 (428, N = 539) = 862.06, p < .001$, Bentler-Bonett *NNFI = .92, Bollen’s *IFI = .93, *CFI = .93, SRMR = .05, *RMSEA = .05, and its associated *CI90% = .04, .05. The LM test recommended the addition of several error correlations within the PRE, PSE, and POP factors respectively, as this indicates that they share common residual variance. Because these error correlations made substantive theoretical sense, these residual parameters were included in the respecified measurement model (Kline, 2005).

The respecified measurement model with the three additional error correlations was exceptionally well fitting to the observed data, $S-B \chi^2 (425, N = 539) = 708.76, p < .001$, Bentler-Bonett *NNFI = .95, Bollen’s *IFI = .95, *CFI = .95, SRMR = .05, *RMSEA = .03, and its associated *CI90% = .03, .04. Dillon-Goldstein’s rho for this final measurement model was reasonable, $\rho = .81$, indicating the manifest variables adequately surveyed the dimensionality of each latent variable. All factor loadings were within range and statistically significant, and ranged from .40 to .99. Factor correlations were weak to moderate and in the theoretically expected direction, and ranged from $r = .33$ to $r = .69$. Correlations among the three error/unique covariances imposed on the final measurement model were moderate-to-strong and statistically significant. The structural relations among the nine latent variables were evaluated in the full SEM presented next.

Full Structural Equation Model

To evaluate the goodness of fit of the hypothesized structural model, the standard CFA model was respecified by imposing the structural relations among the factors (see Figure 1); thus, the full SEM specified nine latent factors. The structural regression paths that represent the direct relations were imposed and replaced the factor correlations among constructs. This approach produced both direct and indirect effects.

The full SEM with nine latent variables was well-fitting to the observed data, $S-B \chi^2 (436, N = 539) = 933.55, p < .001$, Bentler-Bonett *NNFI = .92, Bollen’s *IFI = .93, *CFI = .93, SRMR = .06, *RMSEA = .04, and its associated *CI90% = .04, .05. Inspection of the LM test for adding parameters or the Wald test for deleting parameters indicated that no respecifications were necessary, as none of the suggested trimming and building statistics was warranted based on theoretical considerations. Therefore, this was deemed the final full SEM (see Figure 2).
Figure 2: Final full structural equation model of a nationally representative sample of faculty members in the U.S.

Key: POP = perceptions of organizational processes; POS = perceived organizational support; WL = workload; PTE = perceived teaching expertise; PRE = perceived research/scholarship expertise; PSE = perceived service expertise; PPE = perceptions of performance evaluation; SW = satisfaction with work; IS = intent to stay in the academic organization. * $R^2 = .301$; b $R^2 = .388$; c $R^2 = .215$; d $R^2 = .183$; e $R^2 = .586$; f $R^2 = .284$; g $R^2 = .399$. ns Statistically non-significant path; ** $p < .01$  * $p < .05$.

Direct effects. The final full SEM indicated that all but five structural paths were statistically significant. The statistically non-significant path coefficients ranged from .11 to .23 and were associated with PSE→SW; WL→PPE; PSE→IS; PPE→IS; and PTE→IS. These non-significant direct structural paths necessitate explanation and will be treated in the section of "Discussion". Significant direct structural path coefficients were modest to strong and ranged from .37 to .76 in absolute value. Of special significance, all direct paths from POP and POS were positive and statistically significant, with the exception being POS→WL, which was negative and strong. Also, POS was a far better positive predictor of IS than POP. Interestingly, POP and POS were better predictors of PTE when compared to PRE and PSE. WL negatively predicted all but PPE, although this path coefficient was not significant. It is important to note that of the three types of expertise we measured, PRE was the only significant positive predictor of IS. POP was the only significant positive predictor of PPE whereas all but PSE significantly predicted SW, albeit WL was the only negative predictor. With respect to IS, all but PTE, PPE, and PSE were significant predictors and, as with SW, WL was the only negative significant predictor of IS.

In terms of effect sizes ($R^2$): POP and POS explained 30% of the variance in WL, 39% of the variance in PTE, 22% of the variance in PRE, and 18% of the variance in PSE; POP and WL contributed 59% of the variance in PPE; POP, POS, WL,
PTE, PRE, and PSE accounted for 28% of the variance in SW. Finally, POP, POS, WL, PTE, PRE, PSE, PPE, and SW contributed 40% of the variance in IS.

**Indirect effects.** Tests of mediation results found that PTE, PPE, and PSE did not partially or fully mediate the structural relations among POP and IS and POS and IS (all Sobel Tests p values ≥ .10). Nevertheless, WL was found to partially mediate the structural relations between POP and IS (β = .30, p < .05) and POS and IS (β = .45, p < .05). Further, PRE significantly partially mediated the structural relations among POP and IS (β = .26, p < .01) and among POS and IS (β = .39, p < .01). Finally, SW was found to partially mediate the structural relation among POS and IS (β = .47, p < .05) but not between POP and IS (p = .23).

In sum, with reasonable goodness of fit indices (*NNFI = .92, *IFI = .93, *CFI = .93), and low residuals (SRMR = .06, *RMSEA = .04, and its associated CI90% = .04, .05), combined with the significant parameter estimates for the majority of the structural path coefficients as well as the parsimony of the model, the final SEM was considered a reasonable fit to the present data.

**Discussion**

The present investigation examined the structural relations among: perceived organizational support; perceptions of organizational processes; workload; perceived research expertise; perceived service expertise; perceived teaching expertise; perceptions of performance evaluations; satisfaction with work; and intent to stay using a nationally representative sample of US faculty members employed at Tier 1 (research university/very high research activity) or Tier 2 (research university/high research activity) academic organizations. Our proposed SEM supported our hypothesis in all but five direct structural paths. The direct structural path from WL to PPE was not significant, indicating that perceptions of WL do not predict performance. Workload in Tier 1 and Tier 2 organizations is fundamentally different from institutions with other classifications because faculty in these prestigious institutions are expected to produce more research and engage in additional scholarly activities, such as grant writing. Because of this high WL it could be that the faculties in these institutions do not consider WL as important in determining their performance, as high scholarly activity is already considered an integral and essential part of their WL. Likewise, PSE did not directly predict SW. Again, because faculties in these academic organizations are expected to conduct more research administrators may, whether implicitly or explicitly, place a higher premium on research and scholarly activities and deemphasize service opportunities. On the other hand, administrators and faculties may tailor service activities to more closely align to research and scholarship than is traditionally considered in other academic organizations, like Ochoa’s (2011) notion of teacher scholarship. Neither PTE, PSE, nor PPE significantly predicted IS. Given the significantly lower teaching load and service expectations at these research-intensive organizations, the fact that neither PTE nor PSE significantly predicted IS is not surprising. The lack of a significant predictive effect of PPE on IS is also not
surprising, considering that some of the manifest variables to this construct were related to student evaluation of teaching as well as service responsibilities, and not necessarily research or scholarship per se.

However, the fact that PRE was such a strong positive predictor of IS suggests that faculties in these academic organizations view themselves as researchers/scholars first and foremost; they invoke expertise in research in their determination to remain in the organization, in spite of the high expectations in research productivity. This is in line with theoretical accounts of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) in the sense that faculties in these research intensive academic organizations perceive a sense of autonomy, intrinsic interest, and relatedness in engaging in research and scholarly activities such as data collection, data analysis, manuscript preparation, and grant writing (Lechuga & Lechuga, 2012; Lester, 2015). The effect of PRE on IS also coincides with research conducted using Vroom’s Valence–Instrumentality–Expectancy (VIE) model (e.g., Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Faculty members in these research intensive academic organizations clearly place a positive valence (i.e., importance, satisfaction, desirability) on research productivity. Consequently, they plan accordingly and perceive their expertise in conducting research and understand the high likelihood of producing a quality research product (instrumentality). These faculties engage in research not simply to be promoted and achieve tenure but because they desire to develop themselves as reputable scholars and experts in their given programs of research (expectancy). This view is also consistent with the strong positive predictive effect of PRE on SW in our SEM, as PRE proved to be the strongest positive predictor of SW, when compared to PTE and PSE.

Workload was a significant moderately strong negative predictor of SW and IS in the academic organization. This suggests that as WL increases, satisfaction and intent to remain in the academe decreases. This is congruent with findings related to WL (Ryan, 2012; Enders et al., 2015; Yedidia et al., 2014), especially accounts detailing the long work hours (e.g., Kaufman, 2007; Lindfeld et al., 2015) and work that is performed outside of the confines of the academic organization (Bentley & Kyvik, 2012; Dennison, 2012; Kuntz, 2012). Although not statistically significant in our model, it is interesting to note that WL was a positive predictor of PPE, suggesting that faculties in these academic organizations perceive higher WL as positively predicting performance evaluations. This is in line with research regarding the inclusion of number of credit hours factoring in to faculty evaluation of performance (Fabris, 2015; Wilborn et al., 2013). Interestingly, POS was a strong negative predictor of WL, indicating that faculties who feel greater support from the academic organization perceive their WL to be less than faculties who feel they are less supportive. Conversely, POP was a moderate positive predictor of WL; faculties perceive that the academic organization contributes to WL assignments, although the absence of a clearly stronger effect of POP on WL suggests that faculties may see themselves as also contributing to their own WL assignment. Research findings of Kohn (2014) reveal that faculties who receive effective mentoring from a more senior colleague have a greater sense of relatedness and
satisfaction, which may attenuate negative perceptions of WL. Cariaga-Lo et al. (2010) argued that offering mechanisms for continued faculty development such as faculty orientation programs, ongoing support for faculty scholarship, development of faculty to teach, and mentoring programs increases faculty members' sense of belongingness, and thus, favorable perceptions of POP and POS, which presumably attenuate negative perceptions of WL.

Perceived organizational support and perceptions of organizational processes proved to be major predictors in our proposed SEM. With the exception of the negative effect of POS on WL, both POS and POP were significant positive predictors of all latent variables in the model. These significant positive structural relations support previous findings that underscore the importance of support from organizational leaders at all levels of the academic organization, including at the local (departmental and school/college) and global levels (central administration) (Carver et al., 2011; Gutierrez et al., 2012; Candela et al., 2013; Candela et al., 2015). Of special significance to the milieu of these academic organizations (i.e., Tier 1 and Tier 2 institutions), POP and POS were both moderately strong positive predictors of PRE, a finding that is echoed by the findings of Kohn (2014) and Cariaga-Lo et al. (2010). More specifically, academic organizations that furnish strong mentorship programs in which senior faculties, who are seasoned scholars and researchers appropriately model behaviors and expectations, provide junior faculties with opportunities to develop their individualized identities as scholar-researchers, and hence, hone their self-efficacy and agency with respect to research expertise. The significant positive structural relations among POP, POS, PRE, and SW further support this inference, as the former three latent variables were significant positive direct predictors of SW.

Overall, our proposed SEM revealed that POP, POS, PRE, and SW were significant positive predictors of IS in the academic organization, with POS serving as the strongest predictor, a finding supported by previous research (e.g., Candela et al., 2015; Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009; Gregory et al., 2007). From a theoretical explanatory perspective, increased favorable perceptions of support from the organization, perceptions of the functioning of the organization, and research expertise lead faculty members to increase their satisfaction with the work they perform in these research intensive academic organizations, which in turn, lead to an increased desire to remain in the organization. On the flip side, as discussed previously, an increased perception of workload leads to greater dissatisfaction with work and, consequently, a greater desire to leave the academic organization, quite possibly due to a severe life-work imbalance, due to increased average work hours as well as work performed on the weekends or outside the confines of the organization, which may lead to burnout. Previous studies concluded that sustained perceptions of burnout lead to faculty attrition, thereby fully realizing the intent to leave the academic organization (Ryan et al., 2006; Shirey, 2006; Tümkaya, 2006).

Our hypothesized SEM only supported some of our mediation predictions. Out of all expected indirect effects, only WL, PRE, and SW were found to partially
mediate the structural relations among POP and IS and POS and IS, albeit SW only partially mediated the relation between POS and IS but not between POP and IS. Conversely, PTE, PSE, and PPE neither partially nor fully mediated the aforementioned structural relations. The heavy emphasis of research and scholarly productivity in Tier 1 and Tier 2 organizations help explain the lack of significance in both the direct and indirect effects of PTE and PSE on IS. It may be that because we included key indicators other than research and scholarly productivity, such as student course evaluations, as manifest variables to the PPE latent variable, it did not yield significant direct or indirect effects on IS. Thus, it is plausible that the way we measured PPE is masking a true observed structural relation (i.e., it may be a methodological artifact).

**Implications and Recommendations for Higher Education Organizations**

Nevertheless, the fact that the structural relations between POP and IS and POS and IS remained statistically significant even after accounting for organizational factors such as PRE, WL, and SW point to the need for administrators to consider systemic processes and mechanisms inherent to these academic organizations classified as “research very high” and “research high”. Suggestions for improvement of faculty work life such as those proffered by Cariaga-Lo et al. (2010), especially strong, effective mentorship programs, additional resources to enhance research productivity and decrease WL, and increased recognition of faculty accomplishments will likely produce a more favorable perception of POP and POS among faculties, and thus, increase perceptions of research expertise, work satisfaction, and, most importantly, organizational behavior and intent to stay in the academic organization. Similarly, Nasurdin and O’Driscoll (2012) encourage academic organizations to specifically address work overload issues and act such as developing departmental policies that explicitly assist faculties to reach a healthier work-life balance (e.g., how to effectively balance work-family demands). Likewise, Carver et al. (2011) and Gutierrez et al. (2012) investigated organizational commitment among a cohort of nursing faculty. They found that POS was the strongest predictor of affective commitment (a notion like intent to stay) to the academic organization, which describes faculties who are in the organization because they want to be there.

There is a wealth of literature regarding the role of mentoring in supporting new faculties to assimilate into the university culture and develop their teaching and research/scholarship. Kohn (2014) described a mentoring program for new pharmacy faculty that featured assignment of a more senior faculty mentor within the discipline and one from another school, regular meetings with the department chair and informational lunches. Mentors were provided with a stipend, as was the director of the mentoring program. Faculty members were largely satisfied with the program, particularly the benefits of having mentor interactions and guidance from the director of the program. Long-term benefits of such mentoring programs should include faculty retention, satisfaction and progression in rank as well as metrics on teaching effectiveness and scholarly production.
Leaders need to understand the time constraints of faculty that are pushed to be ever more productive in research while providing high quality teaching and contributing expertise to the department, university and the profession through service. The notion of a possible sense of academic compression may be felt by some faculties, and it will take administrators willing to work individually within a faculty to determine their perceptions and their specific needs. Academic leaders can demonstrate their commitment to faculty doing research by allotting adequate amounts of monies for research activities, mentor and train faculty to support and develop their research skills and assure adequate research resources (Vyhmeister & Vyhmeister, 2007). In sum, university leaders can begin by informing the public, who have grown weary of escalating college costs and demands more accountability, how funding formula changes and operating costs have affected budgets as well as the value added to local communities and beyond through quality education of students and the generation of new knowledge through faculty research (Schejbal, 2012).

Avenues for Future Research

Our proposed model provides a comprehensive, overall snapshot of how faculty members in Tier 1 and Tier 2 academic organizations perceive factors related to their work life using a sophisticated modeling technique. Through SEM we were able to develop a theoretical model of the relations among these work life factors and evaluate direct and indirect predictive effects. Nevertheless, it does not allow us to deeply understand the reasons behind these perceptions. Thus, future research should explore these perceptions using qualitative approaches. For instance, an effective interview protocol would reveal a rich understanding of the reasons why PTE, PSE and PPE did not predict IS among faculty in Tier 1 and Tier 2 academic organizations from the perspective of faculty. A grounded theory approach would enable researchers to develop a theory inductively to help explain some of these perceptions.

Moreover, additional research is warranted to investigate whether our proposed theoretical model is generalizable to faculties in academic organizations beyond Tier 1 and Tier 2 categories. Refinements are also needed to the operationalization of the PPE construct because it may be that this construct contains nuances that our measurement approach did not capture. Quite possibly, our PPE construct may be multidimensional, and thus, research is necessary to evaluate this assertion. Finally, to develop a more comprehensive understanding of these factors, it would be worthwhile to survey administrators in these academic organizations to examine their perceptions, and whether they truly understand the needs and wants of the faculty members for whom they are responsible.

Methodological Reflections and Limitations

No research involving human participants is ever without limitations. Although our sample was robust and nationally representative, we employed a survey to collect our data, and thus, the perceptions of faculty members in Tier 1 and Tier
2 academic organizations were subjective. The perennial dilemma with survey research is that individuals may not always be the best raters of their own perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs due to phenomena such as the social desirability bias. Moreover, our research design was cross-sectional and correlational in nature, thereby limiting the inferences and conclusions we can draw from these data. A longitudinal design may have permitted us to investigate how enduring these perceptions are among faculty members in the demanding context of these academic organizations. In addition, we acknowledge the common method variance dilemma that may bias correlations and effect sizes due to our single method, single rater approach. Finally, we understand that the data are nested and our SEM does not account for these dependent data structures. However, our purpose was not to conduct a multilevel linear model but to assess the predictive effects of a structural model, and hence, SEM was the most appropriate analytic technique to answer our research questions. In spite of these limitations, our proposed SEM is more comprehensive than previous models, it is theoretically driven, and had many significant direct and indirect effects. Therefore, we believe that this research contributes to our understanding of the work life of faculty members in Tier 1 and Tier 2 academic organizations.

Conclusion

The results of the present study provide vital information about the predictive effects of faculty members’ perceptions of academic organizations and their satisfaction with work on intent to stay in the academy. The strongest of these predictors was faculty perceptions of the support they receive; that is, increases in organizational support, especially in the research-intensive environment that is characteristic of Tier 1 and Tier 2 academic institutions, has strong positive effects on key characteristics of the work life of the faculty members and the context in which they work. Organizational support, along with perceptions of organizational processes, moderately predicted faculty self-perceptions of research expertise, which suggests that when faculties are given sufficient and effective support from administration that places high values on research effort, they can develop their skills as autonomous researchers and capable scholars, which are increasingly essential skills to have in research-intensive institutions. In stark contrast to these positive relations, it was also found that substantial workloads placed on faculty members have negative effects on how they view their work and their organization. This result is due to the lack of adequate support from the organization, evidenced through the observation of the strong negative relation between faculty perception of the organization and workload. Overall, faculty members’ positive perception of their organization can lead to satisfaction at work, which in turn, can lead to an increased desire to remain in their organization. These findings and implications significantly contribute to our understanding of the critical relations among the complex processes that are part and parcel to the modern day academic organization.
References


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