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A NATIONAL STUDY OF TENURE-TRACK BUSINESS FACULTY:  
JOB SATISFACTION, CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT,  
AND INTENT TO STAY

By

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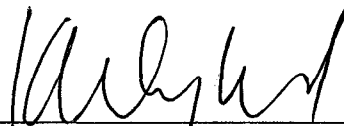
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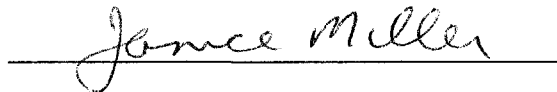
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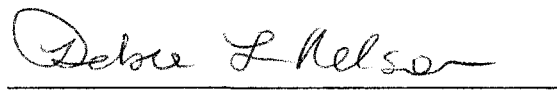
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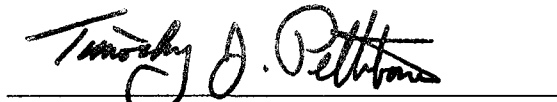
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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **Introduction**

#### **The Research Problem**

In any organization, the most valuable assets are people or human resources (Sikula, 2001). Whether viewed as assets or resources, people are an important factor in organizations successfully achieving their missions. In higher education, faculty are the asset enabling the institution to achieve its mission. Faculty are responsible for the generation and dissemination of knowledge (i.e. research and teaching) and these are two critical components in the missions of many higher education institutions. Hence, understanding the forces acting on faculty attitudes and behavior is a valid topic to examine, because this knowledge will enable an organization to nurture its valuable asset and investment.

Intuitively, faculty job satisfaction is an important variable to study to understand the well being of faculty as an organizational investment. Therefore, the question that merits consideration is what outcomes are expected when a person experiences different levels of job satisfaction? An assumption is that an employee satisfied with her job will be a better performer, but that relationship has not reliably proven to be valid (Lawler, 1994). One outcome that has been found to have a significant relationship with an employee's attitude, is intention to leave an organization (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Lawler, 1994; Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Porter & Steers, 1973). An employee's intention to leave an organization does not automatically result in an employee leaving. However, the effect an employee attitude, like job

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satisfaction, has upon intention to leave raises concern about the well being of the university's valuable faculty resource.

The disparity in the supply and demand of business school faculty may have an effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. According to the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) the demand for business faculty has been greater than the supply of available candidates (AACSB, 1999). As stated by the AACSB Spring 1999 Newline report for 1998-1999, 1,407 or 6.8% of the total business faculty positions were unfilled at 434 AACSB business schools. Further illustrating this conundrum the AACSB Newline Spring 1999 report noted a short fall in the supply of doctoral candidates for these positions. For example, the number of business doctorates granted in 1997-1998 (i.e. potential candidates available for the 1998-1999 year) was 1006 for 1407 openings. Further illustrating the disparity in the supply and demand for business faculty, the AACSB reports that doctoral faculty vacancy rates have steadily risen 48% from 5.4% in 1995 to 8% in 2001. Lastly, the AACSB reports that only 62% of those people receiving doctoral degrees plan to work in academia (AACSB, 2001b).

The disparity between the supply and demand for business faculty continues to grow and is expected to continue rising (AACSB, 1999). The National Center for Education Statistics, a division of the United States Department of Education, released a report titled Projections of Education Statistics to 2011. In this report enrollment at degree granting institutions is expected to increase 20%, growing from 14.8 million in 1999 to 17.7 million by 2011 (Gerald, 2001). This level of growth is also reported in the Occupational Outlook Handbook, produced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the

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United States Department of Labor. They report that college enrollment is expected to grow 10% from 14.6 million in 1998 to 16.1 million in 2008 (US Labor Department, 2000).

Business schools have recognized the issue of increasing student demand for business classes (Mangan, 2001); however, the eligible faculty for tenure or tenure-track positions is declining. In addition, and as reported in the data of the National Study of Post Secondary Faculty (NSOPF) 2001 Data Analysis System (DAS), this population has experienced declining job satisfaction. Between 1988 and 1999 the percentage of tenure-track business faculty reporting that they were very satisfied declined 50%. In 1988, 18% of tenure-track faculty reported being very satisfied with their jobs and in 1999 only 8% of tenure-track faculty reported being very satisfied with their jobs (NSOPF DAS, 2001). Further, Sorcinelli (1994), in a study of higher education faculty, reports a downward turn in job satisfaction. This decline is important to recognize because tenure-track faculty represent the future researchers and teachers in higher education – the most valuable asset in a higher education organization.

### **Background**

In this country, a transformation in higher education has taken place and some view this change as a weakening in colleges' and universities' ability to generate meaningful research and provide effective teaching (Altbach, 1997). The transformation, a period of unprecedented decline, has been apparent in two areas. Area number one, is decreased funding for public higher education, and area number two is the increased interest in faculty accountability by higher education administration and external constituents (e.g. state government). These two important areas affect the higher

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education work environment, and in turn, may be factors influencing faculty job satisfaction and intent to leave their job.

The transformation is apparent in the uncertain and declining funding for public higher education (Altbach, 1997; Gibbs, 2000; Robst, 2001). Uncertain revenue flow combined with an increase in enrollment is a paradox illustrated in Humphrey's (2000) study of the relationship between business cycles, college enrollment, and state higher education appropriations. Humphrey reports that during a recession, local unemployment rose 2%, college enrollment rose 8% and state funding for higher education declined 3.4%. This illustrates how the economic indicator, unemployment, interacts with higher education enrollment and state appropriations for higher education resulting in the greater demand for higher education, but less financial support to provide the education. Certainly successful organizations face the challenge of continuing to increase efficiency, yet the faculty's experience of having increasing responsibilities with fewer available resources may contribute to lower levels of job satisfaction.

Another indicator of the transformation is the increasing interest in faculty accountability (Altbach, 1997; Massy & Zemsky, 1994). The word accountability is understood to represent the change in the faculty work environment. Historically, faculty have experienced much autonomy in determining their work experience, but now are experiencing increasing attention on measurable outcomes by their employing institution and external constituencies (Altbach, 1997; Altbach & Finkelstein, 1997; Massy & Wilger, 1995). The increased attention may be perceived by faculty as an infringement upon their autonomy. As state financial appropriations for public higher education steadily decline (Altbach, 1997; Gibbs, 2000; Robst, 2001), administrators and politicians

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have begun to inquire about the return on their investment. At one time, an attractive quality in the faculty profession was the independence and flexibility to organize his work experience (Altbach & Finkelstein, 1997). The effect of the increasing interest on accountability will dramatically alter the faculty member's perception of her work environment.

### **Importance of Study**

This study seeks to gain a better understanding of factors affecting higher education faculty's intentions to remain employed in academe. Faculty enable the fulfillment of higher education missions. Thus, faculty, the vital resource in higher education, enables institutions to fulfill their missions. The mission for most public universities consists of three common activities: research, teaching, and service. As these missions are of great importance to universities, a prudent management goal is to nurture and support faculty, the valuable human resource (Sikula, 2001) in higher education, for the fulfillment of the generation and dissemination of knowledge. Yet, issues are present that make it difficult for faculty and especially new tenure-track faculty to prosper and prevail in challenging academic environments.

The literature identifies the issues as increasing teaching responsibilities, an urgency to publish, and unclear tenure performance expectations. In spite of the increasing teaching loads (Finkelstein, Seal, & Schuster, 1998), research remains the most important criteria in evaluating tenure candidates (Altbach & Finkelstein, 1997). These consuming responsibilities combined with unclear tenure performance expectations have been identified as stressors for junior faculty (Boice, 1992; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Role conflicts along with ambiguous performance expectations are

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associated with job stressors and low levels of satisfaction (Bedeian, & Armenakis, 1981). A similar finding by Igbaria and Guimaraes (1993), offers that younger employees experiencing high levels of role ambiguity report lower levels of job satisfaction. Lastly, Igbaria & Guimaraes (1993), also noted that role ambiguity and conflict had indirect effects upon a person's intention to leave his organization.

The issue of the seemingly unending nature of academic work confronts faculty (Boice, 1992; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, In Press). In a study of women faculty one respondent stated, "It is not like you have an eight hour shift and when you finish your shift you are done, that's not the way it is done" (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, In Press, p. 15). The ongoing tasks are staying current with literature related to one's discipline, planning research studies, submitting and resubmitting research for publication, seeking funding to finance research projects, and teaching responsibilities (e.g. updating syllabi, grading, and course planning) (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, In Press). Because of the unrelenting nature of academic work, time management or budgeting time for non-work responsibilities may be a lower priority for some. This is mentioned as it may result in stressors arising from family responsibilities competing with a faculty member's work life. This is especially challenging for tenure-track faculty who have a finite period of time to satisfy the performance expectations to become tenured.

The disparity in the supply and demand for faculty is an issue. The Occupational Outlook Handbook (2000) anticipates demand for faculty to increase faster than average through 2008. Further, Bowen and Schuster (1997) estimate faculty attrition to be 4% each year through 2010. This information suggests a growing demand for higher education faculty. In such times, the activities of recruiting, hiring, developing, and

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socializing new faculty requires an investment of financial, human, and time resources.

The process of hiring and patiently waiting for the new faculty to become productive is expensive (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Boice (1992) surveyed several campus administrators and gathered the following estimated costs incurred in the faculty recruiting process.

- Travel budgets range from \$500 to \$6,000.
- Administrative expenses for coordinating the recruitment process ranging from \$200 to \$800.
- Faculty and administrative time used in the process ranging from \$3,000 to \$10,000.

The sum of the 1992 cost estimates for recruiting one faculty member range between \$3,700 and \$16,800. In 2001 dollars the estimated cost range for recruiting a faculty member is between \$4,280 and \$21,889, a 30% increase. The United States inflation rates for 1992 through 2001 were obtained from Economic History Services (McCusker, 2001), and used to calculate the compounded cost increase due to inflation between 1992 through 2001. Table 1 – Annual Inflation Rate, displays the annual rate of inflation in the United States from 1992 through 2001.

**Table 1 – Annual Inflation Rate (McCusker, 2001)**

<b><u>Year</u></b>	<b><u>Inflation Rate</u></b>
	<b><u>%</u></b>
<b>1992</b>	3.01
<b>1993</b>	2.98
<b>1994</b>	2.6
<b>1995</b>	2.76
<b>1996</b>	2.96
<b>1997</b>	2.35
<b>1998</b>	1.51
<b>1999</b>	2.21
<b>2000</b>	3.38
<b>2001</b>	2.86



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As the expense of hiring new faculty grows, one approach to this issue, in times where financial resources continue to be scarce, focuses on retention of new faculty. Boice (1992) and Guthrie (2001), claim that retaining faculty is especially critical given the resources necessary to help new faculty achieve targeted levels of performance. The above-mentioned resources refer to the development and coaching provided by the department to help the faculty member acquire the competencies necessary to be a successful contributing member. However, that investment is endangered when attractive employment opportunities in industry appear or the new faculty member's perception of her current position becomes dissatisfying and she may begin to consciously consider leaving her current employer. In a time when both human and financial resources are scarce in public higher education, the inefficient utilization of valuable human resources is an expensive outcome. Specifically for business education, the issue of retaining faculty and addressing the needs of faculty is a wise human resource strategy.

A number of studies indicate a relationship between job satisfaction and employee intent to leave (Abraham, 1999; Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Igarria & Guimaraes, 1993; Porter & Steers, 1973; Ross & Zander, 1957; Shaw, 1999; Shore, Newton & Thornton, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Therefore, to assist in faculty retention an important understanding of the influence of job satisfaction and non-work factors upon intent to leave an organization is important. Also reported in the literature is the issue of changing faculty roles which result in role conflict and ambiguity (Boice, 1992; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Both of these are associated with low levels of satisfaction (Bedeian, & Armenakis, 1981), while, very importantly, Igarria & Guimaraes (1993), noted that these stressors had indirect effects upon a person's intention to leave her organization.

### **Purpose of This Research Study**

The purpose of this study is to explain factors affecting a faculty member's intention to stay employed with his present institution through the examination of the following research questions.

*Research Question 1:* Do both job satisfaction and non-work factors predict a faculty member's intention to stay employed with his institution?

*Research Question 2:* Does the relationship between faculty job satisfaction and intent to remain in one's job, vary by institutional type?

*Research Question 3:* Does the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to remain in one's job, vary for different levels of faculty member non-work responsibilities (e.g. size of family and degree of income provider responsibility)?

### **Chapter Summary**

Understanding the influence of job satisfaction and non-work factors upon intent to leave an organization is important to assist in faculty retention. Also important is the issue of changing faculty roles resulting in role conflict and ambiguity (Boice, 1992; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Role conflict and ambiguity are associated with low levels of satisfaction (Bedeian, & Armenakis, 1981). Also, faculty role conflict and ambiguity indirectly affect a person's intention to leave her job (Igbaria & Guimaraes (1993). The purpose of this study is to explain factors affecting a faculty's intention to stay employed with his present institution. The following chapters will review the literature, describe the sample and the method of analysis for each hypothesis, state the results of the statistical analysis, and discuss the relevance of the results.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **Literature Review**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of the literature that consists of a topical overview of relevant issues to the study and a description of the theoretical framework for the constructs analyzed in this study. Specifically, the topical overview highlights environmental factors affecting the higher education faculty work environment. For example, topical issues include the difficulty of recruiting faculty, declining faculty job satisfaction, faculty accountability, vague performance expectations, the contradiction about the importance of teaching and research responsibilities, and the business faculty labor market.

The literature review discusses the theoretical support for the inclusion, in this study, of the following constructs: job satisfaction, intent to stay in the job, and continuance commitment (factors outside of work). Specifically, the focus of this study is on tenure-track business faculty job satisfaction, intent to stay in the job, and family and financial responsibilities that affect the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay.

### **Topical Overview**

#### Higher Education Faculty

A number of studies have noted declining faculty satisfaction over the past fifty years (Finkelstein, Seal & Schuster, 1998; Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Robinson, Athanasiou & Head, 1969; Sorcinelli, 1994; Willie & Stecklein, 1981). Working in academe is losing its appeal (Schuster & Bowen, 1990). In a survey of 5,000 faculty, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (Schuster & Bowen) found the

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following: 41% of four year faculty reported feeling less enthusiastic about their academic career; 27% felt trapped in the faculty profession; 23% were considering another profession; and approximately 40% reported considering leaving their faculty position during the next 5 years. Although it is not known how many of the 40% considering leaving actually left, what is known is that in 2001 in the top 50 business schools more than 400 faculty positions were reported to be vacant (Mangan, 2001).

In 1994, Sorcinelli reported indications of a decline in faculty job satisfaction. Recognizing the diversity of faculty rank, this observed decline brings to mind the question that asks what part of the faculty population experiences this satisfaction (e.g. Full, Associate, and Assistant Professor)? In response to this question, two studies of higher education faculty noted higher levels of reported job satisfaction by experienced faculty (Hagedorn, 2000; Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983). Further, during the tenure-track period, new faculty reported declining job satisfaction (Sorcinelli). The association between new faculty and job dissatisfaction (Locke, et al.), represents an issue that is important for higher education administration to address.

Higher education's request for faculty accountability reflects an important shift in the higher education paradigm and indicates an uncertain future regarding the faculty work experience (Finkelstein, Seal & Schuster, 1998). The uncertainty of state financial support, the demand to serve a growing number of undergraduates with the same or fewer resources, combined with requests to better account for outcomes related to external funding, creates tension within public higher education institutions and a changing faculty work environment (Finkelstein, et al., 1998; Sharpes, 1987).

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For new faculty beginning the tenure-track, a vague awareness exists about an expectation of producing published research in a finite period of time. Part of this vague awareness includes an understanding that to become tenured the criteria are often number research performance first and teaching second (Oshagbemi, 2000). However, Jolson (1974) observed and reported the contradiction between what the universities claim are the performance criteria for faculty tenure and what is actually rewarded. For example, emphasis is given to teaching with increasing requests to report measures of accountability (Miller, 1999), yet tenure decisions are heavily weighted on research performance (Pearce, 1999).

Higher education administration conveys the message that teaching is important, however, they also convey the contradictory message that publishing research is the primary criteria for becoming tenured (Milem, Berger, & Dey, 2000; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Another study illustrating the confusing contradictory messages observed the positive relationship between faculty research productivity and faculty pay (Fairweather, 1993). Further, the confusion is compounded by Fairweather's observation that the level of emphasis given to teaching and research varied dependent upon the Carnegie classification of the institution. Lastly, when enrollments increase and budgets cannot grow to accommodate the corresponding demand for instructors, the teaching responsibility must be absorbed by the present faculty, thus lessening the amount of time faculty have available to invest in research. The significance of the changing workload demands, ambiguity of performance standards, and the contradictory message regarding the importance of the teaching and research responsibilities is their relationship to lower

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levels of satisfaction (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Igarria & Guimaraes, 1993; Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983).

As a rule, new faculties on our campuses are neglected resources whose development proceeds haphazardly. We know too little about them and we do too little for them (Boice, 1992, p. xi).

With growing demands on faculty, Sorcinelli (1994) noted the increasing difficulty recruiting new faculty. Perceptions of the contradictory messages regarding faculty role responsibilities compound the effect of the growing demands (Nyquist, Manning, Wulff, Austin, Sprague, Fraser, Patricia, & Calcagno, 1999). As new faculty strive to manage their growing responsibilities they report minimal support (Olsen, 1993). Across disciplines, doctoral students (assumed new faculty) have become more ambivalent about a future in academe and are considering employment options in industry (Nyquist, et al., 1999). Retaining new faculty and in turn protecting the university's investment in faculty human resources is important as the academic profession appears less attractive and tenured faculty retire.

### Business Faculty

Another topical issue is the population of interest for this study. That population is business faculty. The following is a synopsis of the business faculty labor market between 1993 and 1999, and a discussion about business doctorate career choices. From 1992 through 1999 business faculty labor market went from a depressed state where the supply of business faculty exceeded demand, to a state where demand for business faculty has exceeded supply. The supply and demand of business faculty information in Table 2 – Business Faculty Labor Market illustrates the disparity. According to the AACSB, the number of vacancies for business faculty as a percent of full-time business

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doctorate positions has gradually risen from approximately 5.4% in 1995 to 8% in 2001 (AACSB, 2001a). From 1995 through 2000, the number of business doctoral degrees awarded from AACSB institutions has declined approximately 9% (AACSB, 2001b).

This rise in vacant business faculty positions combined with the decline in the number of awarded business doctorates illustrates the disparity in the demand and supply of business faculty.

**Table 2 –Business Faculty Labor Market**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
<b>U.S. Civilian Year End Unemployment Rate <sup>1</sup></b>	7.4%	6.5%	5.5%	5.6%	5.4%	4.7%	4.4%	4.1%
<b>Doctoral Faculty Vacancy Rates <sup>2</sup></b>		7.5%		5.4%		6.6%		7.4%
<b>Number of Business Doctorates Awarded <sup>3</sup></b>				1,350+	1,270+	1,230+	1,180+	1,100+

<sup>1</sup> (U.S. Economic Indicator Forecast, 2002)

<sup>2</sup> (AACSB, 2001a)

<sup>3</sup> (AACSB, 2001b)

Career choice affects the business faculty labor market and is another topical issue (Mangan, 2001). A survey of 4,114 doctoral students, in disciplines closely related to industry (e.g. business), reported the least interest in faculty careers (Golde & Dore, 2001). Another study of science and engineering doctoral graduates, similar to business doctoral graduates in their marketability to industry, reported that 31.8% were employed with organizations outside of academe (Kannankutty & Kang, 2001). Further, 61% of the 114,800 doctoral graduates surveyed originally indicated an intention of working for a college or university; however, after graduation only 47.8% were employed in academe (Kannankutty & Kang, 2001).

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During the late 1990s when business doctorates were transitioning to their careers, the United States economy and business industry appeared healthy. One indicator of this health was the declining national unemployment rate (See Table 2). The economy appeared to be growing. Hence, business and industry employment opportunities, that were able to offer more attractive compensation, were more plentiful and perhaps more attractive to business doctorates. The economy in 2003 is uncertain. Since the events of September 11, 2001, and the increase in large corporate bankruptcy declarations (e.g. ENRON and WorldCom), the national unemployment rate has grown from 4.8% in 2001 to 6% in November of 2002, resulting in an overall increase of 25% (United States Congress 2002 Economic Indicators). This change in the employment outlook may diminish industry employment opportunities for academicians.

A new faculty person, as does any new employee, begins a job with a vision of herself performing in the new role. Some elements of this vision may include the nature of the work, the characteristics of the work environment, the nature of collegial relationships, and an idea of the performance expectations. Some of these expectations are well founded, while others may result from a combination of what one wants, what one believes was promised by the prospective employer, and simply wishful thinking. Although most doctoral students preparing for an academic career have worked with professors and have direct experience with the demands for publication and classroom accountability, career expectations develop that are not based on these observations. As with any person starting a new job, new faculty experience anxiety and stressors in ongoing attempts to clarify role and performance expectations. Why such disparity exists between the expectation and actual experience is outside the scope of this study. What is



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pertinent to this study is examining the relationships of employee attitudes about job satisfaction and their effect on retention in the academic profession.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework will review the literature for job satisfaction, satisfaction and intent to leave, and organizational commitment. In this section research findings will be presented that define and provide empirical support for the constructs of interest in this study.

#### Job Satisfaction

In the organizational behavior literature, job satisfaction is a popular construct. According to Locke (1969), "Job satisfaction is the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (p. 316). Further, job satisfaction is an emotional state that reflects one's appraisal of the degree to which his job values are reached (Locke). It is also a broad and complex construct, and according to Lawler (1994) represents one way of understanding the quality of a person's life. Lawler suggests that to understand the quality of a person's life, a person's job satisfaction has to be considered. Further, because time spent at work consumes a large portion of a person's waking hours and potentially determines one's overall life satisfaction, job satisfaction is important.

Using information obtained from over 300 tenure-track faculty interviews about faculty member socialization, Tierney (1997) learned of the intense work pace and pressure present during the tenure-track years. Many of those interviewed explained the intense pace of their work and recounted working nights, weekends, and during the summer months to perform at the level necessary for becoming tenured (Tierney, 1997; Tierney & Bensimon. 1996). This report is significant because, as mentioned previously,

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during the tenure-track period, new faculty reported declining job satisfaction (Sorcinelli, 1994). The intense pace and volume of work combined with ambiguous expectations for tenure, may be stressors that result in low job satisfaction.

A frequently studied question is what contributes to the formation of the job satisfaction attitude. Locke (1969) noted that confusion exists about the determinants of job satisfaction. Is job satisfaction a consequence of the person or the job, or the interaction between the person and the job environment (Locke)? Specific studies of higher education faculty have considered different conceptualizations of job satisfaction and the outcomes resulting from job satisfaction.

Discussed next are studies that specifically addresses faculty satisfaction. The studies are summarized in Table 3 – Studies of Faculty Job Satisfaction.

Pollicino (1996) found three factors important to faculty satisfaction. They are collegiality with other faculty and the administration, workload, and autonomy. This study focused on institutional support; therefore, the factors only addressed characteristics of the faculty work environment. Similar to Locke (1969), Pollicino (1996) also reiterated the complexity of satisfaction. The observation from Pollicino's study of the complexity of job satisfaction and the observation of the numerous facets or factors of faculty job satisfaction are noted in Table 3 at the end of this chapter.

In a 1983 study of college and university faculty job satisfaction Locke, Fitzpatrick, and White provided another conceptualization. They assessed the effect of a number of job factors on faculty job satisfaction. Those factors were work achievement, work role clarity, chair (role and influence of department manager), administration, pay, promotions, facilities, and co-workers. In their study of 427 universities and 71

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community college faculty, they found that all of these factors were related to faculty job satisfaction. They used factor analysis to identify the principal components work achievement, work role clarity, chair (role and influence of department manager), administration, pay, and promotions that were present in the questionnaire. In addition, the factor analysis was performed on the criterion, overall job satisfaction. The principal factors found were overall feelings about job, intended tenure (thoughts about changing jobs), and non-involvement (dissatisfied feelings about work).

The results from this study reveal that the majority of university faculty reported considerable levels of dissatisfaction. Only 41% of university faculty responded 'yes' to the item, "If you had your life to live over, would you like to end up in the same job as you have now" (Locke, et. al., 1983, p. 353)? Another finding relevant to this study is that for university faculty, work role clarity accounted for a unique amount of variance in the job satisfaction criterion. Also, the nature of a faculty position is that it is autonomous (Locke). With increasing interest in accountability and measuring a return on the government subsidy investment for higher education faculty, these issues highlight an important work environment consideration. This combination of circumstances is compounded by vague performance standards (Locke). Lastly, the analysis from this study indicates a strong relationship between role clarity and job satisfaction and intention to stay employed (Locke).

Another study of faculty job satisfaction proposed a number of factors interacted and resulted in the faculty's job-career satisfaction (Nyquist, Hitchcock, & Teherani, 2000). The factors are organizational (e.g. resources available to faculty and collegial relations), job-related (e.g. intellectual stimulation, autonomy, and gratifying work), and

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personal (e.g. factors outside of work like family). Similarly, Smart (1990) proposed a model of faculty job satisfaction that included individual and institutional characteristics (i.e. career age, marital status) and contextual work environment measures (i.e. governance participation and influence, productivity, and pay). Both models share personal, organizational, and job or work related factors as indicators of faculty job satisfaction.

Hagedorn's (2000) study, using the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) NSOPF 1993, proposes a conceptual framework of faculty job satisfaction. In this study the conceptual framework of satisfaction includes "mediators" and "triggers" (Hagedorn, p.7). The mediators are motivator and hygiene factors from Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation, and the triggers are life events that represent dramatic changes in one's life (Hagedorn). Together the mediators and triggers are proposed to affect faculty job satisfaction on a continuum ranging from disengagement to engagement. The identification of job satisfaction triggers, age and marital status, and their effect on job satisfaction contributes empirical support to Hagedorn's model by identifying constructs that have a probable relationship to faculty job satisfaction. Also, important observations from the Hagedorn study suggest overall job satisfaction is higher for married faculty than it is for single, separated or divorced faculty. Finally, older higher education faculty reported higher levels of global job satisfaction (Hagedorn).

Two concerns regarding Hagedorn's (2000) study on faculty job satisfaction are 1) the use of Herzberg's model of motivation as a basis for the conceptual framework of satisfaction; 2) the claim that satisfied faculty are engaged and productive. Although Hagedorn suggests that a person experiencing job satisfaction is likely engaged in her

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work and productive, this suggestion has not been supported in the job satisfaction literature. Studies of job satisfaction and performance have not consistently reported the causal order where job satisfaction predicts job performance (Lawler, 1994; Locke, 1975). A criticism of Herzberg's model is the question regarding the lack of discriminant validity of motivating and hygiene factors. A motivating factor affects a person's level of satisfaction, and a hygiene factor influences a person's level of dissatisfaction.

According to the model, examples of motivating factors are recognition and achievement, and examples of hygiene factors are work environment along with company policies.

However, a factor like pay or salary does not clearly fit in the prescribed dichotomy of motivating or hygiene factors. For some, pay motivates a person to higher levels of performance; yet for many, pay lowers levels of dissatisfaction. As pay neither fits as a motivator nor a hygiene factor it lacks discriminant validity and weakens Herzberg's model of motivation.

Table 3, identifies the five studies previously discussed and the factors proposed to contribute to faculty job satisfaction. Reviewing these studies of faculty job satisfaction provides a basis for understanding the research conducted thus far. Also, these studies identified numerous antecedents of job satisfaction. As this study will use the complex construct of job satisfaction, observing how it has been defined in other studies of higher education faculty is useful in developing a sense of the breadth and level of interest in this popular construct. In three of the five studies a common theme, the effect of external forces (e.g. family and financial responsibility) upon job satisfaction, appeared (Nyquist, Hitchcock & Teherani, 2000; Smart, 1990; and Hagedorn, 2000).

**Table 3 - Studies of Faculty Job Satisfaction**

<b>Author</b>	<b>Job Satisfaction Factor</b>
<b>Pollicino (1996)</b>	Collegiality
	Workload
	Autonomy
<b>Locke, Fitzpatrick &amp; White (1983)</b>	Work Achievement
	Work Role Clarity
	Chair (role and influence of department manager)
	Administration
	Pay
	Promotions
	Facilities
	Coworkers
<b>Nyquist, Hitchcock &amp; Teherani, (2000)</b>	Organizational factors (i.e. resources available to faculty and collegial relations)
	Job Related factors (i.e. intellectual stimulation, autonomy, and gratifying work)
	Personal factors (i.e. factors outside of work like family)
<b>Smart (1990)</b>	Individual and institutional characteristics (i.e. career age, marital status)
	Contextual, work environment measures (i.e. governance participation and influence, productivity, and pay)
<b>Hagedorn (2000)</b>	“Mediators” (i.e. pay and working conditions, demographic, environmental conditions)
	“Triggers” (i.e. life changing events)

Satisfaction and Intent to Leave

The intuitive assumption that satisfied employees are productive employees is unsupported in the job satisfaction literature (Locke, 1975). Although a strong, significant relationship between job satisfaction and individual performance has been elusive, other studies have been conducted seeking outcomes of satisfaction other than performance. One outcome that has been repeatedly supported is the relationship between employee satisfaction and employee intent to leave (Abraham, 1999; Igbaria &

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Guimaraes, 1993; Porter & Steers, 1973; Ross & Zander, 1957; Shaw, 1999; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Shore, Newton & Thornton, 1990;). Shore et al. (1990) reported a strong link between job attitudes and behavioral job intentions (e.g. intent to leave the organization). Further, they suggested a causal relationship might be present in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee intentions. The suggestion of a causal relationship moves the theory beyond observation of possible antecedents of job satisfaction to the consideration that the attitude job satisfaction is a probable cause upon an employee's intention to stay or leave a job.

The theoretical development of the job satisfaction and intent to leave relationship goes back to Ross and Zander (1957). They studied the satisfaction of personal needs met by the employer as it is related to the employee's intent to stay with his present employer, and found satisfaction to have a significant direct relationship to a person's voluntary ongoing employment. In 1973, Porter and Steers found substantial support for a relationship between employee satisfaction and employee turnover in an organization. Path analyses based on meta-analytical findings of 155 studies observed the unique contribution satisfaction has on employee intentions to leave an organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Results from a study of information center employees also confirmed the central role job satisfaction has in predicting employee's thoughts of leaving a job (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1993). In a study of full and part-time employed MBA students, a negative relationship was reported between employee job satisfaction and employee turnover (Shaw, 1999).

The research findings mentioned above convey a strong message that the employee attitude job satisfaction has demonstrated relationships to an employee's

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cognitive process (e.g. considering resigning) and the behavioral intention to leave a job. Support for this relationship has also been reported specifically for higher education faculty attitudes (morale and job satisfaction) (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Smart, 1990).

Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) studied faculty attitudes about morale and its relationship to faculty intention to leave. They defined morale with three dimensions. The first dimension included engagement, enthusiasm, intellectual stimulation, and satisfaction with one's work. The second dimension tapped faculty member thoughts about her value to the institution, and the third dimension assessed the faculty member's sense of well being in her job. The instruments developed to measure morale and intent to leave have acceptable reliability. The authors report a significant direct effect between faculty morale and intent to leave (Johnsrud & Rosser). The construct, faculty morale, is similar if not synonymous with job satisfaction.

By definition, morale is the emotional condition or psychological well being of an individual (Merriam-Webster, 2002). In the Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) study, an emotional state representing the faculty member's self-reported sense of well being regarding her work, defines morale. According to Locke (1969), an emotional state that reflects one's appraisal of the degree to which his job values are reached defines job satisfaction. Both morale and job satisfaction refer to an emotional state that is the product of one's assessment of her work. Therefore, the Johnsrud and Rosser study of higher education faculty provides theoretical support for this study because of the similarities present in the definitions of the attitudes morale and job satisfaction.



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Smart's (1990) study of the causal relationships between job satisfaction factors and a faculty member's intention to leave his institution observed different effects that multiple measures of satisfaction had on tenured and non-tenured faculty intentions. The data obtained for the study came from a national survey conducted by the Carnegie foundation (Smart), and included 2,648 full-time employed faculty with doctoral degrees. Initial analysis revealed that in order to obtain statistically significant results the sample was grouped by tenure and non-tenure status. The analysis revealed the following job satisfaction factors: organizational satisfaction (satisfaction with work environment), salary satisfaction, and career satisfaction (e.g. attitude toward selecting the same profession) (Smart). This suggests that a higher level of satisfaction in organizational and career satisfaction results in greater faculty retention (Smart). For both tenured and non-tenured faculty, organizational and career satisfactions have a significant effect upon intention to leave.

### Organizational Commitment

Over the years, the definition of organizational commitment has evolved. An early interpretation of organizational commitment included the following three characteristics: 1) an employee's agreement and acceptance of the organizations goals and values; 2) an employee's willingness to expend effort and perform to further the organization's mission; and 3) an employee's desire to remain a part of the organization (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). In 1985, Reichers proposed that organizational commitment has different interpretations depending on a person's focus. Also, Reichers explained that a global definition of commitment might converge with other measures and be difficult to distinguish from job satisfaction or other outcomes. For example, organizational commitment and job satisfaction have a high correlation (Mueller & Price,

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1990), and a relationship is present between organizational commitment and intention to leave (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mueller & Price; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Although these constructs are similar, they have been distinguished by more specific organizational commitment constructs.

Allen and Meyer (1990) presented a multifaceted model of organizational commitment including affective, continuance, and normative types of commitment. Their model added clarity to types of commitment employees have for their organization and job. Affective commitment describes an employee's emotional connection and identification with her organization. Continuance commitment refers to non-work factors that represent an employee's perception of the cost associated with leaving an organization (Allen & Meyer). Normative commitment refers to the feelings of obligation an employee experiences to remain with an organization (Allen & Meyer). Canonical correlation analysis of affective and continuance commitment indicated they were distinct constructs; however, the affective and normative components were not clearly distinguishable (Allen & Meyer).

The component continuance commitment, of the Allen and Meyer (1990) model of organizational commitment, is a force not related to work, but positively influences a person's decision to stay employed with an organization. In other words, factors in an employee's life, independent of his work, increase the likelihood that he will stay in his job. In other words, non-work factors represent a transaction cost that makes the option of leaving appear too expensive. Examples of non-work factors are family dependents and income provider role. In research conducted by Lee and Maurer (1999), they found that an employee having a spouse and children moderated the relationship between

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organizational commitment and an employee's intent to leave. Specifically, an employee's marital status, the employment status of the employee's spouse, or the number of dependents supported by the employee, significantly strengthened or weakened the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to leave (Lee & Maurer).

To illustrate this idea consider the following, if a person has no dependents, she would have a weaker continuance commitment acting as a force to continue employment in the job and organization. Conversely, a person that has dependents and is the sole income provider for her family will have a stronger continuance commitment. The reason for the stronger continuance commitment is that the family and financial responsibilities may prohibit any job withdrawal consideration. The difference in these two representations of continuance commitment is that greater degrees of family responsibility increase the magnitude of the continuance commitment.

Kossek and Ozeki (1998) found that a conflicting interaction between work and non-work role demands affected employee thoughts about leaving. However, another study found that personal characteristics like marital status and number employed in a household had no significant affect upon the perceived cost to leave a job (van den Berg, 1992). This disparity indicates more is to be learned about the effect of non-work role demands upon an employee's intent to leave a job. Also, Cohen (1997) explains that although work conditions explain much of the variance in the relationship between satisfaction and withdrawal cognition relationship, organization policy makers need to heed the influence of non-work factors.

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In a study of junior faculty using the 1993 NSOPF data set, Perna (2001) commented about the scarcity of information known about the relationship faculty have between family and work responsibilities. Flexible and non-traditional work schedules have to some extent characterized the work environment of higher education faculty. In most cases, beyond the fixed schedule obligations, faculty determine their work schedule. Intuitively the flexible work schedule may seem ideal for faculty to integrate work and family responsibilities with few conflicts; however, paradoxically the nature of the high performance expectations for tenure-track faculty results in work – family conflict where work pervades into the family realm (American Association of University Professors (AAUP), 2001; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, In Press). Further complicating this issue, some faculty, in addition to the stressors that come with tenure-track academic positions, also struggle to balance family responsibilities like caring for children and perhaps parents (AAUP).

The above-mentioned stressors may explain Perna's (2001) observation that compared to male faculty, more female faculty are single and do not have children. That is, 52% of female faculty reported their marital status as single and 54% of female faculty do not have children (Perna). From the data just mentioned, the majority of single faculty are female, and the majority of faculty without children are female. This may be a choice by the female faculty member to allow her to focus more energy on her career. This important information highlights the difference in family responsibilities between faculty men and women.

In addition to a faculty's family responsibilities, gender also appears to be a relevant factor when considering the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to

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stay. In the past few decades the number of women choosing to become higher education faculty has grown from 25 % to 37% (AAUP,2002). Similarly, from the data reported in the 1993 NSOPF, approximately 40% of new faculty are female, and of all faculty, females account for approximately 33% (Finkelstein, Seal & Schuster, 1998). Although more women are choosing the faculty profession, an important observation is that only 48% of all full-time female faculty are tenured whereas 68% of all full-time male faculty are tenured (AAUP, 2001).

The work – family conflict is thought to be greater for women than it is for men (AAUP, 2001; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, In Press). For many female faculty, the life-stage she passes through the tenure-track process is also the period when traditionally women experience pregnancy and childbirth (AAUP, 2001). Although the number of female faculty as a percent of total faculty is growing (Hamermesh, 2002), women are also more likely to hold non-tenure faculty positions than are men (Perna, 2001). Interestingly, women hold more than 57% of instructor or non-tenure faculty positions (AAUP, 2001). Perna offers an explanation that as a result of the high demands of tenure-track processes and family responsibilities, women may settle for lower status positions. According to Perna, this phenomenon is important to explain. Further, addressing work – family conflicts for tenure-track faculty is important to ensure that higher education faculty opportunities are attractive to both women and men (AAUP, 2001).

An opportunity exists to advance the understanding of the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay by observing the effect non-work factors have on this relationship (Cohen, 1997; Lee & Maurer, 1999). By considering a more comprehensive description of faculty, not just characteristics of the person at work, but including familial

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characteristics, perhaps changes in the strength of the relationship will become apparent. For example, when a faculty member has family responsibilities, this additional responsibility likely influences decisions about employment. More specifically, if a person has dependents (children or older family), these factors are anticipated to strengthen his intent to stay employed. Another variable that helps to define non-work factors influencing a faculty member's choice about employment is the percent the faculty member's income is of the total household income. Again, factors independent of the faculty member's work and work environment, such as how much the faculty member contributes to the household income, may influence the intent to leave.

The above discussion of the definition of the family financial responsibility variable is based on Allen and Meyer's (1990) continuance commitment construct. One recommendation suggests that at this time a study is needed to assess the relationship non-work factors, like family structure, have upon an employee's intent to leave (Lee & Maurer, 1999). A number of studies have been performed assessing the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay, yet a need exists to further explain how factors independent of work interact with the relationship between job satisfaction – intent to stay (Cohen, 1997; Lee & Maurer, 1999).

### **Chapter Summary**

The topical overview outlined the environmental factors affecting higher education faculty. Those factors include increasing demands on faculty, increased interest in faculty accountability combined with ambiguous performance expectations, and decreasing faculty job satisfaction (Finkelstein, Seal & Schuster, 1998; Jolson, 1974; Sorcinelli, 1994; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). The theoretical basis for this research study, outlined in Chapter 3, is the supported relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in a job (Abraham, 1999; Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1993; Porter & Steers, 1973; Ross & Zander, 1957; Shaw, 1999; Shore, Newton & Thornton, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Further, the specific organizational commitment construct, continuance commitment, is relevant to study in the satisfaction – intent to stay relationship because non-work role demands affect a person’s intentions to stay or leave her job (Cohen, 1997).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **Research Methods**

This study seeks to explain factors affecting faculty's intention to stay employed with their present institution. First, this study will examine the relationship between the predictors job satisfaction and non-work factors, on faculty intention to stay with their present institution. Second, this study will examine the relationship between faculty job satisfaction and intent to stay, and how it varies at institutions with different missions. And third, this study will examine the effect of non-work factors on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. This chapter describes the data set, sample selection, variable definitions, hypotheses, and data analyses.

#### **The National Study of Postsecondary Faculty**

For this study a secondary analysis is conducted of faculty survey data collected by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). The data set is the National Study of Postsecondary Faculty for 1999 (NSOPF:99). Since the introduction of the NSOPF, much interest has been expressed in the NSOPF data sets from 1988 (NSOPF:88) and 1993 (NSOPF:93). These data sets provide a national profile of higher education faculty demographics, education and experience, responsibilities, and attitudes (NSOPF:93, 1997).

The data for the NSOPF:99 data set was collected in several stages. The first stage was the selection of 960 postsecondary institutions. From this selection, 819 institutions agreed to participate in the study. The second stage aggregated the lists of faculty provided by the participating institutions. From this list of 28,576 potential faculty respondents, respondents were contacted to verify they actually worked in the



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institution during the 1998 school year. This process resulted in the identification of 19,213 possible faculty respondents. From the original 19,213 respondents, 17,600 questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 92 percent (NSOPF:99, 2002).

#### Validity and Reliability

The NCES reports the following information regarding validity and reliability. NCES defines validity as the association between the measured value and the “true value of a characteristic or attribute” (NCES Methodology Report, 1997, p. 123). The validity of the faculty responses was evaluated by examining the data from a field test of 495 cases. A comparison was made of selected items from the faculty questionnaire to data obtained from the postsecondary institution corresponding to the faculty member. That is, faculty self-report data were compared to the data provided by the institution. These items were gender, race/ethnicity, employment status, principal field of teaching discipline, and tenure status. The conclusions for the validity assessment of the field study indicate that for gender, race/ethnicity, and employment status at least 90% were consistent. For principal discipline the consistency was approximately 70% (NCES Methodology Report, 1997).

The NCES defines reliability as the association between repeated measurements of the same item. In the NSOPF:93 data set, reliability was assessed when 117 respondents were re-interviewed after the initial field study. For 19 continuous variables, the respondents’ original replies were compared to their responses from the second measurement. The reported reliability is at least 70% for nearly all items measured. Several items did not meet the 70% target, however, they are not variables included in this study.

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As the reliability and validity of the NSOPF:93 questionnaire items is sound, this data set was used as a baseline for the questions on the NSOPF:99 data set. Therefore, based on the reliability and validity of the NSOPF:93, the NSOPF:99 questionnaire possesses similarly acceptable validity and reliability qualities.

### The Population and Sample Selection

The defined population for this study is full-time, tenure-track, business faculty, employed at public institutions. The specific categories of institutions are identified using the Carnegie classifications research, doctoral, and comprehensive universities. Table 4 - Carnegie Classification 1994, defines each classification. The reasons for these population criteria are: full-time faculty have a single career focus and are likely to have a stronger attachment to their work and institution versus part-time faculty; tenure-track faculty are chosen for the unique stressors they experience and the greater freedom they have to change career direction away from academe to industry; business faculty are important as they may find more financially rewarding employment in industry, hence, they have lucrative career options in industry; research, doctoral, and comprehensive institutions are chosen for the growing similarity in the emphasis placed on research, teaching, and service.

The respondents were chosen based on the Carnegie classification of their institution. The specific classifications of higher education institutions included in this study are drawn from the Carnegie classification of 1994 and are Research Universities I and II, Doctoral Universities I and II, and Comprehensive Colleges and Universities I and II. The literature discussing the 1994 Carnegie classification states, "The classification scheme groups institutions on the basis of the highest level of degree awarded, number of

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degrees awarded, the level of federal research support, and selectivity of admissions”

(Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 2002).

**Table 4 - Carnegie Classification 1994 (Carnegie Foundation, 2000)**

<b>Classification</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>Research Universities I</b>	Award 50 or more doctorates per year; Annually receive \$40 million in federal support.
<b>Research Universities II</b>	Award 50 or more doctorates per year; Annually receive between \$15.5 and \$40 million in federal support.
<b>Doctoral Universities I</b>	Award 40 or more doctorates per year across at least 5 disciplines
<b>Doctoral Universities II</b>	Award 10 or more doctorates per year across at least 3 disciplines, or 20 or more doctorates per year total
<b>Master's (Comprehensive) Colleges and Universities I</b>	Award 40 or more master's degrees per year across at least 3 disciplines
<b>Master's (Comprehensive) Colleges and Universities II</b>	Award 20 or more master's degrees per year overall

Fairweather (1993) observed that the level of emphasis given to teaching and research responsibilities varied in response to the Carnegie classification of the institution. This observation has been a common perception of the classifications described in Table 4. Furthermore, recent reports have noted the growing similarity of the emphasis placed on the institution mission components (i.e. research, teaching, and service) by comprehensive and doctoral institutions to that of research institutions. For this study, the interest in the institutions mentioned in Table 4, is based on the phenomenon institutional isomorphism (Milem, Berger, & Dey, 2000). Institutional isomorphism describes the growing similarity of the emphasis placed on the mission components by research universities, comprehensive, and doctoral institutions. Another term describing this change in emphasis on the mission components is upward drift. Upward drift refers to the emphasis that comprehensive and doctoral institutions place on

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the mission components and how this is similar to the emphasis that research universities place on these same mission components (Aldersley, 1995). For example, comprehensive institutions are commonly perceived as emphasizing the faculty responsibility of teaching more than the research responsibility. However, according to the idea of upward drift, more emphasis is being placed on the research role at comprehensive and doctoral institutions.

Upward drift is relevant to this study, as an increase in research focus does not result in lower teaching demands. As more responsibility is added to the faculty performance expectations and none is taken away, it is reasonable to anticipate a change in faculty attitude. Hence, considering the presence of upward drift, the question arises: How does this phenomenon affect faculty job satisfaction and intent to stay employed with their current institution?

The population is further defined to include only faculty employed in public higher education institutions. Public institutions were chosen because of the problems they face resulting from uncertain state subsidies, and the growing demand for higher education (Altbach, 1997; Gibbs, 2000; Robst, 2001). These stressors on public higher education affect the faculty work environment. In turn, changes in the work environment also affect the perceptions and attitudes of the faculty. Further, the population is defined as full-time, tenure-track faculty that have identified business as their primary teaching or research discipline. In short, for this study the selection criteria are: Public Institutions; Research, Doctoral, and Comprehensive Carnegie classifications; faculty with a primary research or teaching focus on business; and tenure-track faculty.

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The sample for this study is selected from the 17,600 respondents found in the NSOPF:99 data set using the statistical software SPSS. Specifically, the SPSS command Data – Select Cases sorted the respondents according to the population criterion. Once the variable and selection criteria are named, the Select Cases command retains the matching records and the records not matching the criteria are deleted. What follows is the process used for creating the sample from the NSOPF:99 data set.

1. This process starts by selecting only the faculty responses that have identified their institution as public.
2. The next selection criterion is Carnegie classification: research, doctoral, and comprehensive (Carnegie Classification 1994). See Table 4.
3. Also, faculty respondents were selected that indicated business was either their primary teaching or research responsibility.
4. Lastly, a respondent that identified herself to be in a tenure-track position were selected.

The result of applying this process is a sample of 93 faculty respondents.

### Descriptive and Inferential Statistics

The statistical results will consist of descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics will identify the variables and provide a demographic overview of the sample. For example, descriptive statistics will be presented of in the discussion of results, chapter four, for the variables age, gender, marital status, and number of dependents. Inferential statistics are used to test the research hypotheses and are reported in chapter four. The software SPSS is used to perform the statistical analysis.

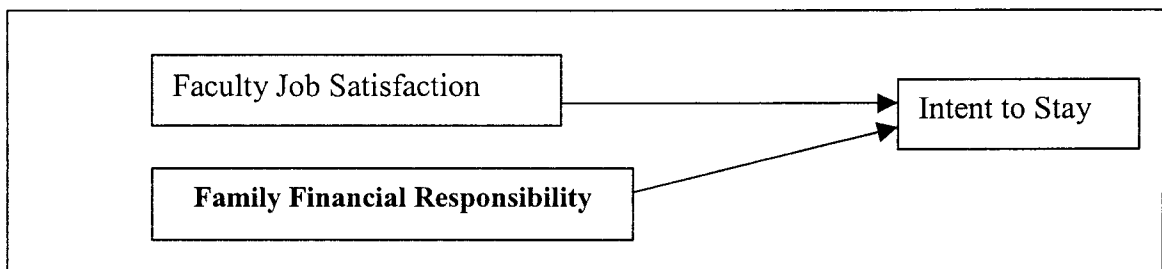
### **Research Question One:**

Do both job satisfaction and non-work factors predict a faculty member's intention to stay employed with her present institution?

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*Hypothesis One:* The null hypothesis is that the predictors, faculty job satisfaction and family financial responsibility, will not predict intent to stay employed with the same higher education institution. Alternatively, the predictors, faculty job satisfaction and family financial responsibility, will predict intent to stay employed with the same institution.

**Figure 1 - Hypothesis One**



### Hypothesis One Data Analysis

Hypothesis one will be tested using ordinary least squares multiple regression to estimate the predictive power of job satisfaction and family financial responsibility on the criterion intent to stay. The alpha level, the probability of claiming statistical significance when none exists, is 5%.

### Hypothesis One Variable Definition

The NSOPF:99 survey question that measures the criterion variable intent to stay is, “During the next three years, how likely is it that you will leave this job to accept a full-time position at a different postsecondary institution?” The scaled items reflecting the likelihood of the respondent leaving are:

1. Not Likely
2. Somewhat Likely
3. Very Likely

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An important distinction is that the criterion variable in this study is intent to stay and not intent to leave. The choice to focus on staying versus leaving is based on the institution's desired outcome of faculty retention. In order to accurately represent intent to stay and have the direction of the scale correspond to the predictor scales, a scale transformation is necessary. That is if a respondent chose intent to leave – 1 Not Likely, that response has been transformed to intent to stay - 3 Very Likely. The item response Somewhat Likely remains 2, and intent to leave – 3 Very Likely has been transformed to intent to stay – 1 Not Likely. This transformation was possible using the SPSS Transform – Recode utility.

Intent to Leave		Intent to Stay
1. Not Likely	is now =>	3. Very Likely
2. Somewhat Likely	is now =>	2. Somewhat Likely
3. Very Likely	is now =>	1. Not Likely

The predictor variable chosen to measure faculty attitude is job satisfaction (JS). Job satisfaction was measured on the NSOPF:99 questionnaire with the following item. "How satisfied are you with your job here, overall?" (NSOPF Faculty Codebook, 2002).

The scaled choices are:

1	Very satisfied
2	Somewhat satisfied
3	Somewhat dissatisfied
4	Very dissatisfied

The predictor variable Family Financial Responsibility is a measure of non-work factors that are anticipated to affect a faculty member's intention to stay with her present institution. Table 5 – Scale of Family Financial Responsibility Variable, displays the scale values for the family financial responsibility variable, and the combination of

factors that determine the scale value. The determination of the scale value of the family financial responsibility variable is based on two factors. Those factors are the income provider role and the responsibility for dependents.

**Table 5 – Scale for Family Financial Responsibility Variable**

<b>Scale</b>	<b>Income Provider</b> Sole = 3 Major = 2 Minor = 1	<b>Dependents Y/N</b> Yes = 1 No = 0	<b>Sum of Dependents and Income Provider Factors = Scale</b>
4=	Sole (3)	YES (1)	3 + 1 = 4 Sole Provider
3=	Sole (3)	NO (0)	3 + 0 = 3 Major Provider
3=	Majority (2)	YES (1)	2 + 1 = 3 Major Provider
2=	Majority (2)	NO (0)	2 + 0 = 2 Moderate Provider
2=	Minor (1)	YES (1)	1 + 1 = 2 Moderate Provider
1=	Minor (1)	NO (0)	1 + 0 = 1 Minor Provider

Three levels of income provider exist and they are sole provider, major provider, and minor provider. These levels are derived from the faculty member’s response to NSOPF variables total respondent income and total household income. Specifically, the survey items to determine the financial responsibility element of this variable come from the faculty member’s responses to

“For the 1998 calendar year, what was your total household income before taxes? (Write in number.)”

and

“What was the gross income of your spouse or significant other for the 1998 calendar year? (Write in number. If no income, write in “0”. If no spouse or significant other, mark the "NA" box. If don’t know, mark the “DK” box.)” (NSOPF Faculty Codebook, 2002)

From the responses to these two items the total income is calculated by subtracting the spouse or significant other’s income from the total household income. When the faculty



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member's total income equals his reported total household income the income provider role is coded 3 – sole provider. When the faculty member's total income is the majority of his reported total household income the income provider role is coded 2 – major.

When the faculty member's total income is the minority of her reported total household income the income provider role is coded 1 – minor.

To determine the faculty member's responsibility for dependents, the question is, "For the 1998 calendar year, how many dependents did you have? Do *not* include yourself." The faculty response is a continuous value, however the desired information is the presence or absence of dependents. Therefore, family responsibility is coded 1 – Yes when the response is greater than zero, and coded 0 – No when the response is zero.

For each respondent the corresponding values for income provider role and responsibility for dependents are summed to calculate the scale value for family financial responsibility. As the sum of the two factors becomes larger, the magnitude of the scaled value family financial responsibility also increases. Table 5, displays the assigned values for each factor and the sum of the two factors.

The derived variable family financial responsibility is a scaled variable (e.g. 1,2,3, or 4) determined by the faculty responses described above. To illustrate how this scale is interpreted consider the following, if a faculty member had no dependents and shared the financial responsibility for the household income with her spouse / partner, she would have a lower or weaker family financial responsibility acting as a force to continue employment in the job and organization. Conversely, a person that is the sole income provider and has dependents will have a stronger family financial responsibility. The difference in these two representations of family financial responsibility is that greater

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degrees of family responsibility increase the magnitude of family financial responsibility.

A family financial responsibility value of 4 is the strongest and conversely 1 is the weakest. Further, a family financial responsibility value of 4 represents the combination of non-work factors that increase the likelihood the faculty member will continue in his job. A family financial responsibility value of 1 represents the combination of non-work factors that have little or no effect upon the faculty member's choice to stay in a job.

The following discussion explains the reasoning for the family financial responsibility scale outlined in Table 5. The strongest value in the scale is assigned to the person that has dependents and is the sole income provider. A score of 4 is determined by the fact that the faculty member has financial responsibilities for others and is the sole income provider. In this case, regardless of the marital status (married or single), the family financial responsibility is strongest because of the combined family responsibility and the sole income provider responsibility. Next, a score of 3 is assigned to the person that has no dependents and is 100% solely responsible for generating income. Also, a score of 3 is assigned to the person that provides the majority of the household income and has dependents. The score of 2 is assigned to the person that provides the majority of the household income, but has no dependents, and the other level 2 is for people that provide a minority of the household income and have dependents. The scale value of 1 is for people that provide a minority of the household income and have no dependents.

#### **Research Question Two:**

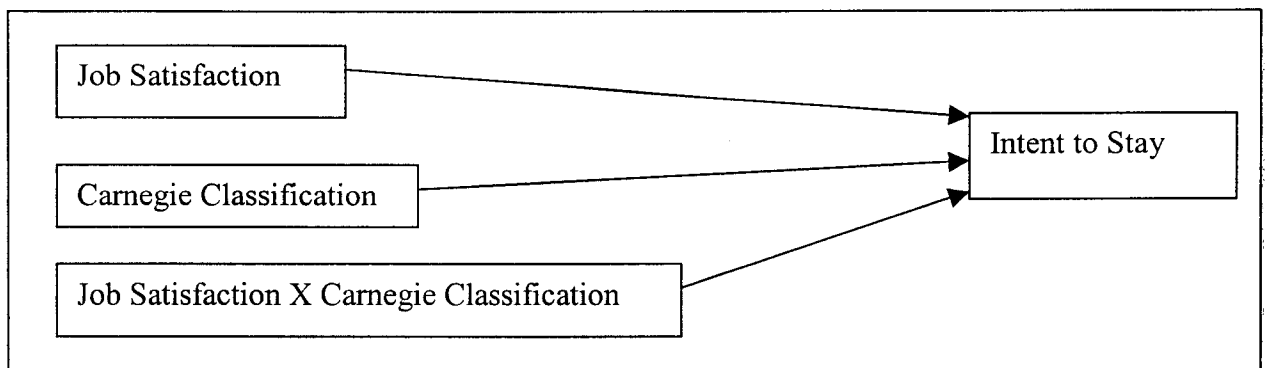
Does the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to remain in one's job, vary by institutional type?

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*Hypothesis Two:* The null hypothesis is faculty member satisfaction affects intent to stay similarly across all Carnegie classifications (research, doctoral, comprehensive).

Alternatively, job satisfaction affects intent to stay differently for those in the three Carnegie classifications.

**Figure 2 – Hypothesis Two**



#### Hypothesis Two Data Analysis

A two-factor between subjects ANOVA is used to test this hypothesis.

Specifically, this hypothesis tests the interaction effect of job satisfaction and Carnegie classification to determine if Carnegie classification moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay. The dependent variable is intent to stay, and the independent variables are job satisfaction and Carnegie classification. The independent variable Carnegie classification is also referred to as the moderator variable. The moderator variable is hypothesized to moderate or affect a change in the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. When using ANOVA to test the effect of a moderating variable, the independent variables are expected to interact. In this study, the interaction effect is present when the effect of the independent variable job satisfaction on the dependent variable, intent to stay, changes for different Carnegie classifications.

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For this hypothesis the interaction between job satisfaction (JS) and Carnegie classification (CC) is symbolized as JS X CC.

Below in Table 6, the specification table identifies the independent variables and the number of levels for each variable. The diagram displays the variable matrix with the cell counts, and the source table identifies each source of variance along with the corresponding degrees of freedom. The last line in the source table S / JS CC, represents the error from within the groups JS and CC. The alpha level, the probability of claiming statistical significance when none exists, is 5%.

**Table 6 – Hypothesis Two Specification, Diagram, and Source Tables**

<u>Specification Table</u>	
<u>Variable</u>	<u># of Levels</u>
Job Satisfaction (JS)	4
Carnegie Classification (CC)	3

<u>Diagram</u>					
(n=)	<u>JS</u>				
		Very Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Very Satisfied
<u>CC</u>	Research	2	3	20	8
	Doctoral	1	2	8	3
	Comprehensive	6	6	22	12
	<b>Total N=93</b>	9	11	50	23

<u>Source Table</u>	
<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>
JS	3
CC	2
JS X CC	6
S / JS CC	

Hypothesis Two Variable Definition

The dependent variable is intent to stay and is defined the same as the criterion variable described in the hypothesis one variable definition. The independent variable, job satisfaction, is also defined in the hypothesis one variable definition. Another

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independent variable is Carnegie classification of the respondent's institution. The Carnegie classifications of higher education institutions included in this study are based on the Carnegie Classification of 1994 and are Research I, Research II, Doctoral I, Doctoral II, Comprehensive I, and Comprehensive II. The classifications are limited to these six categories as they are specific to the phenomenon of upward drift. Further, these items are clustered into three categories, research, doctoral, and comprehensive and coded 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Below, in Table 7 - Variable Level Frequencies of Carnegie Classification, are the cell frequencies for the variable Carnegie classification.

**Table 7 - Variable Level Frequencies of Carnegie Classification**

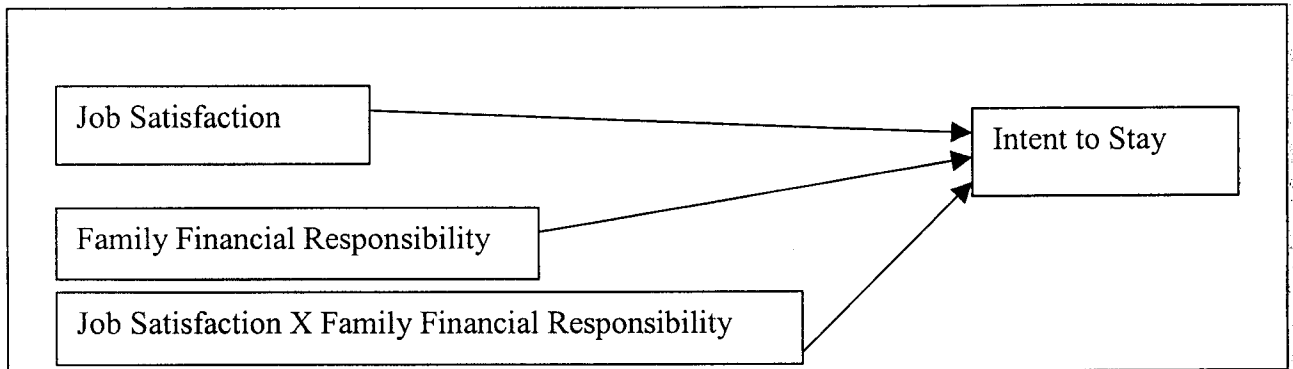
<b>Institutional Classification – 1994 Carnegie Classification</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Frequency %</b>
<b>Research I</b>	24	26
<b>Research II</b>	9	10
<b>Total</b>	33	36
<b>Doctoral I</b>	9	10
<b>Doctoral II</b>	5	5
<b>Total</b>	14	15
<b>Comprehensive I</b>	43	46
<b>Comprehensive II</b>	3	3
<b>Total</b>	46	49

### **Research Question Three:**

Does the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to remain in one's job vary for different levels of non-work responsibilities?

*Hypothesis Three:* The null hypothesis is faculty member satisfaction affects intent to stay similarly across all levels of family financial responsibility (Sole, Major, Moderate, Minor). Alternatively, job satisfaction affects intent to stay differently in response to the different levels of family financial responsibility.

**Figure 3 – Hypothesis Three**



Hypothesis Three Data Analysis

A two-factor between subjects ANOVA will be conducted to test this hypothesis. Specifically, this hypothesis tests the interaction effect of job satisfaction and family financial responsibility to determine if family financial responsibility moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay. The dependent variable is intent to stay, and the independent variables are job satisfaction and family financial responsibility. Family financial responsibility is also referred to as the moderator variable as it is hypothesized to moderate or affect a change in the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave. When using ANOVA to test the effect of a moderating variable, the independent variables are expected to interact. In this study, the interaction effect is present when the effect of the independent variable, job satisfaction, on the dependent variable, intent to stay, changes for different levels of family financial responsibility. For this hypothesis, the interaction between job satisfaction (JS) and family financial responsibility (FFR) is symbolized as JS X FFR. Below in Table 8, the specification table identifies the independent variables and the number of levels for each variable. The diagram displays the variable matrix with the cell counts, and the source

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table identifies each source of variance along with the corresponding degrees of freedom.

The last line in the source table S / JS FFR, represents the error from within the groups JS and FFR. The alpha level, the probability of claiming statistical significance when none exists, is 5%.

**Table 8 – Hypothesis Three Specification, Diagram, and Source Tables**

<u>Specification Table</u>	
<u>Variable</u>	<u># of Levels</u>
Job Satisfaction (JS)	4
Family Financial Responsibility (FFR)	4

<u>Diagram</u>					
(n=)		<u>JS</u>			
		Very Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Very Satisfied
<b>FFR</b>	Minor	1	1	3	1
	Moderate	4	1	15	11
	Major	3	5	28	11
	Sole	1	4	4	*
	<b>Total</b> N=93	9	11	50	23

\* No data for this cell

<u>Source Table</u>	
<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>
JS	3
FFR	3
JS X FFR	12
S / JS FFR	

Hypothesis Three Variable Definition

The variables used to test this hypothesis are defined in hypothesis one.

### **Chapter Summary**

The NSOPF:99 data set is a comprehensive and well regarded data source that is a unique collection of data from postsecondary faculty. The population is full-time, tenure-track, business faculty, employed at public research, doctoral, and comprehensive universities. The primary relationship that will be studied is job satisfaction as a predictor of intent to stay employed. The secondary issue is the influence of family financial responsibility on the job satisfaction – intent to stay relationship. The following chapter presents the results for the hypothesis testing.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### Results

This chapter describes the sample and presents the results from the statistical tests for each hypothesis proposed in this study. The first section reports descriptive statistics that describe the demographic composition of the sample of 93 tenure-track, business faculty. Next, the results from the statistical tests are presented including the outcome for each hypothesis. The statistical methods used in this study include descriptive statistics, frequencies, correlations, multiple regression, and two factor un-weighted means analysis of variance.

### Descriptive Statistics

The following descriptive statistics are presented in order to understand the demographic composition of the sample. The majority of the sample is male (61%, n=57) and has dependents (64%, n=60). The average income of a faculty member is \$72,061, with an average household income of \$150,584. The sample is primarily comprised of faculty that are married or living with someone in a marriage-like relationship (76%, n=71). This indicates that the remaining faculty are single, separated, or divorced (24%, n= 22). Nearly one quarter of the faculty are younger than thirty-five (24%, n=22), and approximately one third of the sample are forty-five or older (34%, n=31). Table 9 displays descriptive statistics for gender, marital status, age, and dependents.

**Table 9 - Descriptive Statistics (N=93)**

Variable	Item	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	57	61
	Female	36	39

Variable	Item	Frequency	%
Marital Status	Single – never married	9	10
	Married	66	71
	Living with someone in a marriage-like relationship	5	5
	Separated, divorced, or widowed	13	14

Variable	Item	Frequency	%
Age	< 35	22	24
	35 – 44	40	43
	45 – 54	24	26
	55 – 64	6	7
	65 – 69	1	1

Variable	Item	Frequency	%
Number of Dependents	0	33	36
	1	22	24
	2	23	25
	3	11	12
	4	4	4

### Hypothesis Testing Results

#### Hypothesis One – Job Satisfaction and Family Financial Responsibilities

Hypothesis one inquires about the ability of faculty job satisfaction and family financial responsibility to predict intent to stay for tenure-track business faculty. Table 10 presents the Pearson product-moment intercorrelations among the three variables of interest; intent to stay, job satisfaction, and family financial responsibility. As noted in the table, only one of the bivariate correlations reached statistical significance. Faculty intent to stay was significantly associated with job satisfaction ( $r = .31$ ;  $p = .003$ ). About 10% of the response variability was shared between these two variables. It should be noted that faculty intent to stay was unrelated to family financial responsibility.

**Table 10 – Hypothesis One Correlation Coefficients**

		Stay	JS	FFR
Pearson Correlation	Stay	1.000	.310	-.117, ns
	JS		1.000	-.103, ns
	FFR			1.000

Job Satisfaction = JS; Family Financial Responsibility = FFR, ns = not significant

The statistical test for hypothesis one is summarized in Table 11. Taken together, the two predictors (satisfaction and financial responsibility) accounted for 10.4% (where  $R = .322$ ) of the variability in faculty intent to stay, a statistically significant amount ( $F(2,90) = 5.198$ ;  $p = .007$ ). However, evidence for the statistical significance of each individual predictor variable was assessed through the partial regression coefficients. The statistical tests for these b-weights indicated that only job satisfaction significantly predicted faculty intent to stay ( $t = 3.003$ ;  $p = .003$ ), therefore satisfaction was a much stronger predictor for intent to stay with this faculty sample. More simply, when predicting faculty intent to stay, it appears that the variable job satisfaction is more important than family financial responsibility. In this study, research hypothesis one is only partially supported. Taken together, the correlations and regression results suggest that job satisfaction may be an important element in retaining employees. The next chapter continues the discussion of this outcome.

**Table 11 – Hypothesis One Regression Results**

	Beta Weight	t	p
JS	.301	3.003	.003
FFR	-.086	-.856	.394

$R^2 = .104$   $F(2, 90) = 5.198$ ;  $p = .007$

Hypothesis Two - Job Satisfaction Interaction with Carnegie Classification

Hypothesis two tested the effect of faculty job satisfaction (JS) on intent to stay across the three Carnegie classifications (CC). The statistical test results for this hypothesis are presented in Table 12 – Hypothesis Two ANOVA Summary. The

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interaction effect (JS X CC) was not statistically significant ( $F=1.171$ ,  $p < .330$ ). The test of the main effect job satisfaction on intent to stay was statistically significant ( $F=4.254$ ,  $p < .008$ ), and, the main effect of Carnegie classification on intent to stay was not statistically significant ( $F=.544$ ,  $p < .583$ ).

**Table 12 – Hypothesis Two ANOVA Summary (Dependent Variable = Stay)**

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	5.496	3	1.832	4.245	.008
<b>Carnegie Classification</b>	.469	2	.235	.544	.583
<b>JS X CC</b>	3.031	6	.505	1.171	.330
<b>S/ JS X CC</b>	34.958	81	.432		
<b>Total</b>	455.000	92			

The non-significant interaction effect suggests that faculty job satisfaction influences intent to stay similarly, regardless of Carnegie classification. Thus null hypothesis two was not rejected. Evidently, institutional type did not moderate the affect of job satisfaction on faculty intent to stay for this faculty sample.

In other words, the Carnegie classification of an institution did not have a statistically significant affect on the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay. This result was unexpected, in that a phenomenon of upward drift has been reported (Aldersley, 1995) and was expected to affect the faculty response in this study. When a person's job description is changed dramatically, placing increased emphasis on the faculty job responsibility of research at doctoral and comprehensive institutions, a change is expected in faculty member's attitude. That is, low job satisfaction is the anticipated attitude resulting in diminished intention to stay. However, this is not what was found in this study. Further discussion of this outcome is discussed in the next chapter.

It should be noted that the main effect of job satisfaction reached statistical significance in this study. This finding suggests that variability in intent to remain in one's job differed across the job satisfaction groups (very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, very dissatisfied). A Tukey post-hoc analysis was conducted to uncover the source of this significant main effect. As shown in Table 13, three of the pair-wise differences tests reached statistical significance. Faculty who reported being very satisfied significantly (Mean = 2.61) differed in their intent to stay from those faculty indicating they were dissatisfied (Mean = 1.89), somewhat dissatisfied (Mean = 1.91), and somewhat satisfied (Mean = 1.94).

**Table 13 – Tukey Test**

<b>Job Satisfaction</b>		<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Very satisfied</b>	<b>Very dissatisfied</b>	.72	.033
	<b>Somewhat dissatisfied</b>	.70	.024
	<b>Somewhat satisfied</b>	.67	.001

Hypothesis Three – Job Satisfaction Interaction with Family Financial Responsibility

Hypothesis three inquired about the effect of job satisfaction on faculty intent to stay for different levels of family and financial responsibility (Minor, Moderate, Major, and Sole). The results for this hypothesis are summarized in Table 14. The interaction effect (JS X FFR) was not significant ( $F=.997, p<.445$ ). The test of the main effects revealed that the main effect of job satisfaction on intent to stay was statistically significant ( $F=3.414, p<.021$ ), and the main effect family financial responsibility on intent to stay was not statistically significant ( $F=.186, p<.905$ ). The null hypothesis for research question three was not supported in this study. The non-significant interaction

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revealed that family and financial responsibility did not serve as a moderating variable in the affect of job satisfaction on faculty intent to stay. However, in this analysis, the main effect for job satisfaction reached statistical significance. Once again, this finding points to the importance of job satisfaction. In other words, the variability in intent to remain on one’s job varied as a function of reported faculty job satisfaction. The pattern of “intent to stay” differences for the faculty job satisfaction groups was consistent across the analyses for hypotheses tow and three. In other words, satisfaction influenced intent similarly regardless of whether Carnegie classification (hypothesis two) or family financial responsibility (hypothesis three) was entered into the analysis. Taken together, these results suggest a strong impact of job satisfaction on reported faculty intent to stay at one’s institution.

**Table 14 – Test Results for Hypothesis Three (Dependent Variable = Stay)**

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	4.497	3	1.499	3.414	.021
<b>Family Financial Responsibility</b>	.245	3	.082	.186	.905
<b>JS X FFR</b>	3.502	8	.438	.97	.445
<b>S/ Js X FFR</b>	34.254	78	.439		
<b>Total</b>	455.000	92			

Overall, hypotheses one, two, and three, reveal the significance of job satisfaction on intent to stay. Furthermore, the results are clear, in this study, family financial responsibilities were not related to job satisfaction, and did not influence intent to stay. This is surprising because of the solid theoretical support for this hypothesis. In 1999, Lee and Maurer discovered that an employee’s number of dependents and employment status of the employee’s spouse, moderated the relationship between organizational

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commitment and intent to leave. In addition, Kossek and Ozeki (1998), learned that conflict between a person's work and non-work roles affected thoughts of leaving. The anticipated effect was that non-work factors like family financial responsibility would off-set the influence of job satisfaction on intent to stay. For example, when a faculty member reported job dissatisfaction and a high level of family financial responsibility, the faculty member's intent to stay would be high. The reason why this relationship was not evident in this study may be due to the disparate frequency counts (See Tables 15 and 16), and possibly due the operationalization of the family financial responsibility variable. Further discussion of this outcome and these limitations are discussed in the next chapter.

**Table 15 – Frequency Counts for Satisfaction – Carnegie Classifications**

N=93	Carnegie Class					
	Research		Doctoral		Comprehensive	
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Very dissatisfied</b>	2	6%	1	7%	6	13%
<b>Somewhat dissatisfied</b>	3	9%	2	14%	6	13%
<b>Somewhat satisfied</b>	20	61%	8	57%	22	48%
<b>Very satisfied</b>	8	24%	3	21%	12	26%
<b>Total</b>	33	100%	14	100%	46	100%

**Table 16 – Frequency Counts for Satisfaction – Family Financial Responsibility**

N=93	Family Financial Responsibility							
	Sole		Major		Moderate		Minor	
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Very dissatisfied</b>	1	11%	3	6%	4	13%	1	17%
<b>Somewhat dissatisfied</b>	4	44%	5	11%	1	3%	1	17%
<b>Somewhat satisfied</b>	4	44%	28	60%	15	48%	3	50%
<b>Very satisfied</b>	0	0%	11	23%	11	35%	1	17%
<b>Total</b>	9	100%	47	100%	31	100%	6	100%

### Chapter Summary

Faculty job satisfaction appeared to be a statistically significant predictor of intent to stay. Carnegie classification was not a statistically significant moderator, nor was family financial responsibility a statistically significant moderator of the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay. Consequently, in this study, the results for hypothesis two and three are not statistically significant. However, for the population tenure-track business faculty, the association between job satisfaction and intent to stay, previously reported in the literature, has been replicated in this study.

An explanation for the non-significant findings is that the sample was too small resulting in an inadequate distribution of data across the variable items. This is apparent in Tables 13 and 15 that report the cell frequencies for the interaction variables in hypotheses two and three. Another possibility is that the dependent variable, intent to stay, was poorly defined and measured. For hypothesis three the operationalization of the



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family financial responsibility variable may have been a problem. These issues are discussed in the limitations section of the next chapter.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### Discussion

This chapter discusses theoretical implications, recommendations for practice, limitations of this study, and recommendations for future research. The discussion of the theoretical implications is organized into the following areas, the relationship of job satisfaction to intent to stay, Carnegie classification, and family financial responsibility. The reason for this organization is to first discuss the common themes found in the results for each of the hypotheses regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay. Next, the research findings for the second hypothesis are discussed comparing the results with the theoretical support for differences in faculty job satisfaction at research, doctoral, and comprehensive institutions. The discussion next compares the findings from the testing of the of the third hypothesis with the theoretical basis and anticipated differences attributed to varying levels of family financial responsibilities. Finally, recommendations for practice, limitations of this study, and suggestions for future studies are presented.

### Theoretical Implications

#### Relationship of Job Satisfaction to Intent to Stay

In the testing of each of the three hypotheses, the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay was assessed. The result from the test of hypothesis one revealed that for this sample of tenure-track business faculty, the faculty job satisfaction attitude is a likely predictor of faculty intent to stay in their present position. The results from the test of hypotheses two and three, reveal that faculty job satisfaction has a main effect on faculty intent to stay.

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The theoretical implication and the importance of these results is that they strengthen the previously found theoretical support for this relationship (Abraham, 1999; Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Igarria & Guimaraes, 1993; Porter & Steers, 1973; Ross & Zander, 1957; Shaw, 1999; Shore, Newton & Thornton, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Several studies have examined the relationship between a higher education faculty member's attitude (i.e. morale, job satisfaction) and the outcome intent to leave (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Smart, 1990), this study contributes to the theory by identifying the presence of the relationship in tenure-track business faculty. Previously, Smart (1990) suggested that adequate evidence was present to move the job satisfaction theory past the continued observation of antecedents to the establishment of job satisfaction as a probable cause of a behavioral outcome like intent to remain with one's present employer. In this study of tenure-track business faculty, the replication of previous research results of the job satisfaction – intent to stay relationship also encourages the examination of the causal order between faculty attitudes and behavioral outcomes.

Overall, this study contributes not only confirmation of a previously supported relationship (job satisfaction – intent to leave), it also focuses attention on the higher education faculty population. This is relevant because in order to expand the knowledge of the job satisfaction – intent to stay relationship, having a foundation established with a specific population (tenure-track business faculty) facilitates the control of variability whereby new relationships can be isolated. The specific population helps the researcher partition and isolate new factors. This study strengthened the support of the relationship

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and it also provides a starting point for additional studies clarifying moderators and mediators of the job satisfaction – intent to stay relationship.

#### Carnegie Classification

The test of hypothesis two found no statistically significant relationship that Carnegie classification moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay. Although job satisfaction has a main effect on intent to stay, this relationship did not vary by Carnegie classification. This finding parallels Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) who found that institution type does not help to explain a faculty attitude (i.e. morale) and intent to stay. Aldersley (1995) claims that the focus on the mission elements of research and teaching is becoming similar to the focus placed on these responsibilities in research universities; however, the testing of hypothesis two revealed no moderating influence. As no moderating influence is apparent, one conclusion may be that the relationship is insignificant. This is incorrect. Although no statistical significance is apparent with this sample, a test of this hypothesis with a larger sample may reveal different results.

Fairweather (1993) observed that the emphasis given to the teaching and research responsibilities varied based on an institution's Carnegie classification. This is important because in 1995 Aldersley noted that this was changing. Specifically, doctoral and comprehensive institutions had begun to place emphasis on the research responsibility similar to the emphasis research universities place on this responsibility. The phenomenon of upward drift (Aldersley, 1995) of higher education institutions inspired the question to assess differences in the job satisfaction – intent to stay relationship across Carnegie classifications. Although in this study, Carnegie classification was not found to moderate the job satisfaction – intent to stay relationship, the subject of upward drift is important because of its affect on the faculty work environment.

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Although the common phrase people resist change is trite, the phrase in many instances is accurate. Anticipating that faculty may resist or object to the upward drift of their institution and in turn changes to the job description and work environment, in this study the job satisfaction – intent to stay relationship was anticipated to vary in response to the Carnegie classification of the institution. In this study, the hypothesis was unsupported as the Carnegie classification did not appear to moderate the relationship. One explanation for this outcome may be the low cell frequencies displayed in the job satisfaction and Carnegie classification variable matrix (Table 13).

Upward drift is a phenomenon that is likely to affect faculty attitudes. Faculty, to a large degree, are attracted to work for comprehensive or doctoral institutions, to a large degree, because the job description is defined on the basis of the mission's emphasis on research, teaching, and service. That is, some faculties prefer to direct more energy towards teaching, however, upward drift is resulting in comprehensive and doctoral institutions changing their emphasis on the mission components. Upward drift and more specifically the job attitudes of faculty working in institutions that are redefining their missions are worthy of further study.

### Family Financial Responsibility

Cohen (1997) explains that work conditions explain much of the variance in the relationship between satisfaction and thoughts of leaving, and Lee and Maurer (1999) suggested an opportunity exists to advance the understanding of the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay by observing the effect of non-work factors. Family financial responsibility represents non work factors like number of dependents and the level of financial responsibility. Hypothesis three sought to explain the affect non-work factors (family and financial responsibilities) had on the job satisfaction – intent to stay

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relationship. The theoretical support for this hypothesis is strong. This operationalization is based on two studies. One study by Kossek and Ozeki (1998), found that the conflict between work and non-work factors affected a person's thoughts of leaving his job. The other study by Lee and Maurer (1999), noted the influence of family characteristics on a person's behavioral intention regarding the decision to stay or leave a job. Non-work factors that defined the variable family financial responsibility are number of dependents and income provider role. In hypothesis one, the statistically significant combined effect of the predictors job satisfaction and family financial responsibility was encouraging. However, in hypothesis three the absence of a statistically significant interaction was unexpected given the theoretical support.

Better understanding the influence of the non-work variable family financial responsibility is useful for higher education administration. Although changing a faculty's family financial responsibility is outside the range of influence for higher education administration, it is worthwhile information. The value of the information is that it expands the understanding of factors acting on human resources. The information may facilitate better human resource policy and management. This in turn, may positively influence a faculty member's intent to stay, thus, preserving the human resource investment.

### **Recommendations for Practice**

The important findings in this study were that job satisfaction has a likely main effect on intent to stay, and that job satisfaction is a likely predictor of intent to stay. The reason these findings are important is because there are a number of opportunities for institutions to positively influence the faculty attitude job satisfaction and in turn increase

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the likelihood of faculty retention. The following is a discussion of factors that influence faculty job satisfaction.

The stressor role conflict and ambiguity is present in the faculty work experience (Boice, 1992; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996) and is associated with low levels of satisfaction (Bedeian, & Armenakis, 1981). A similar finding by Igbaria and Guimaraes (1993) reports that younger employees experiencing high levels of role ambiguity report lower levels of job satisfaction. This stressor refers to the faculty member's perception that the importance and amount of energy to be invested in research and teaching are incongruent. That is, although research is for many tenure-track faculty the most important determinant for being granted tenure, faculty are asked to take-on additional teaching responsibilities. The question repeatedly resurfaces, what is the foremost faculty responsibility? The stressor not only refers to the conflict of the importance of the job responsibilities, but also represents the confusion regarding the lack of clarity about performance expectations for the research and teaching responsibilities. Lastly and very importantly, Igbaria & Guimaraes (1993), found that role ambiguity and conflict had indirect effects upon a person's intention to leave her organization.

Two environmental circumstances that may be contributing to the existence of this stressor are declining budgets (Altbach, 1997; Gibbs, 2000; Robst, 2001) and increasing enrollment (Gerald, 2001). The responsibility to address this issue lies with the department head or chair. Reconciling budgetary constraints and demand for service is not unique to higher education and at some point confronts all managers. For the department head who must work within the budget outlined by the college, manage the faculty resources to ensure the student demand for courses is met, and address the

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environmental issues affecting faculty job satisfaction, a solution to appease all parties is difficult to conceive.

Further, with the uncertainty of financial resources and the growing enrollment, the department head may find that clarifying role conflict and ambiguity reduces his ability to manage the faculty resource in such a manner to accommodate the changing enrollment. That is, by specifically stating and adhering to faculty teaching requirements, a possible outcome is the inability to offer enough course sections to meet the student demand. Conversely, when the department head asks faculty, specifically tenure-track faculty, to take on additional teaching responsibilities the faculty are unable to invest the same amount of energy in their research endeavors and thereby possibly disrupting the faculty member's progress toward becoming tenured. Also, by changing the faculty emphasis on the teaching and research responsibilities, the result is the perpetuation of the stressor role conflict and ambiguity that in turn affects job satisfaction and intent to leave.

The department head is faced with a challenge to satisfy the expectations of administration and faculty, two groups with different needs. A strategy for helping tenure-track faculty, that addresses the stressors affecting job satisfaction, is establishing lighter teaching responsibilities. However, this may not be widely practiced. In a survey of tenured and tenure-track faculty the results found that assistant professors taught more classes per year and averaged more total students per academic year than professors (Seaberg, 1998). A recommendation for faculty workload policies is to consider lighter teaching loads for tenure-track faculty or a teaching workload that remains constant throughout the tenure-track period. Then to accommodate increasing enrollment the use



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of tenured and adjunct faculty will help the department head to meet the student demand for classes and the administration's interest in accommodating that demand. The practice of this type of policy will also directly address stressors that affect faculty job satisfaction.

Another strategy to address the concern of retaining faculty, is to facilitate a faculty member's sense of community with her institution and department. For faculty, a sense of community lessens the likelihood they will leave their jobs (Barnes, Agago, & Coombs, 1998). Although the faculty profession is commonly characterized as autonomous, for tenure-track faculty this autonomy may be unnecessarily distressing. A person beginning a tenure-track position has numerous responsibilities. What makes this position unique is autonomy combined with the stressor to achieve a nebulous performance criteria within a finite period of time. Hence, a need is present to proactively address tenure-track faculty socialization in order to affect job satisfaction and in turn affect the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay.

Tierney and Bensimon (1996) wrote about the need for faculty socialization to be a cultural process in higher education institutions, and the wisdom of this argument is intuitively attractive. Yet, from where does the motivation come to make the investment to initiate and carry on such an endeavor? What is needed is the availability of a social support process throughout the tenure period that meets each faculty member's needs. The incentive to participate in and sustain the socialization process necessary to foster a community atmosphere is largely missing, as this behavior is too often not valued, acknowledged, or rewarded. In turn, the outcome appears to be dissatisfied faculty who leave higher education.

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Also, perhaps the attempts thus far to encourage a sense of community and provide social support have been misguided. Research on social support has reported mixed findings. House (1981) proposed that social support may reduce stressors. Yet, a study found that the availability of social support was only minimally associated with the newcomer behavioral intention to leave (Nelson, & Quick, 1991). The importance of this study is the explanation that rather than focusing on social support activities to benefit newcomers, the focus should be on the helpfulness of the relationships formed between the newcomer and individuals in the organization. This suggests the department head needs to go beyond establishing social support networks and consider the needs of the tenure-track person and the type of social support relationship that will be beneficial. The intent of personalizing the social support is to affect faculty job satisfaction and in turn affect the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay.

Another possible strategy to address retention that has been discussed for some time, is to reevaluate how the tenure process helps higher education fulfill its mission. What makes this an important consideration is the changing environment and the need to have an organization that is able to adapt to accommodate to the changing needs. Yet, the present system is not organized to adapt. Higher education institutions are renowned bureaucracies and the tenure process, as it has been managed thus far, does not encourage and reward faculty to be flexible. Although this study has suggested that the lack of specificity in faculty job descriptions is a stressor, what is being suggested is a reconsideration of the mix of faculty responsibilities and the ranking of tenure promotion criteria. That is, the tenure promotion criteria become congruent with the amount of

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energy the faculty member invests in research, teaching, and service. Again, this suggestion addresses factors influencing job satisfaction and in turn faculty retention.

### **Limitations of this Study**

A number of limitations are present in this study. First, the design of this study is cross-sectional, where the respondents completed the survey at one point in time.

Therefore, measuring an attitude like job satisfaction at one point in time is reason for caution when interpreting the results. Unlike personality traits that are relatively stable over time, attitudes are susceptible to the influence of many factors. For example, a respondent that is usually positive about work, may be influenced to respond uncharacteristically on a day when faced with stressors like deadlines or receiving notification that a research study has not been accepted for publication.

Another cautionary point is the threat of common method variance. In this study common method variance is a danger as the survey instrument is self-report and the construct job satisfaction is difficult to define. One universal definition of job satisfaction is elusive and in this study the data for each variable came from one source. Rather than having multiple methods or data sources for collecting the data, the single method of self-report introduces the possibility that measurement error is compounded.

The tests for hypotheses two and three are not statistically significant. This may be the result of restricted distributions of cell frequencies for the variables family financial responsibility and Carnegie classification. The distributions of the cell frequencies are reported in Tables 15 & 16. The limited distribution may have inhibited the ability to find meaningful relationships between the variables. The reason for the limited cell frequency distributions is sample size, and the size is restricted because the

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population is narrowly defined (tenure-track, business faculty, teaching or researching business, in public institutions), thereby, drastically reducing the number of eligible respondents. Increasing the sample size is likely to resolve this issue.

This explanation is apparent in Table 13 – Hypothesis Two Interaction Variable Cell Frequencies and Table 14 – Hypothesis Three Interaction Variable Cell Frequencies. In this study, cell frequency refers to the number of faculty that responded to a survey item. For example, from Table 13, the cell frequency distribution of the job satisfaction variable for the Carnegie classification research equals two. That is, two respondents from research universities reported their job satisfaction as very dissatisfied. Examples of small cell frequencies are also present in Table 15.

Cells with a frequency of one or two indicate a problem because they do not allow for a meaningful test of differences. The sample size for this study (N=93), and the limited variability created by the categorical variables, inhibits conducting a meaningful test of the hypothesis as the cell frequencies are not large enough to determine if a significant difference is present between the variable item levels. A larger sample size may increase the probability that the variable item has adequate variability and in turn allow for the hypothesis to be found statistically significant.

It is possible that the three-item scale used for the dependent variable intent to stay is inhibiting the measurement of variance. By expanding the scale of the variable more variance is available to measure and in turn relationships between the variables will be easier to detect.

Another area for consideration regards the report of declining faculty job satisfaction (Sorcinelli 1994). It is not possible to measure a change in job satisfaction

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from this data sample; yet, an observation worth discussing is that 78% (N=93) of the sample report they are somewhat or very satisfied with their jobs. Although, evidence is present suggesting that job satisfaction is declining, this sample reveals that a large majority of tenure-track faculty are satisfied. Perhaps satisfaction is declining, but still many faculty report being satisfied. These observations lead to the question, is their enough variability in the report of faculty job satisfaction to allow for the measurement and analysis of meaningful differences?

### **Recommendations for Future Studies**

Another study of tenure-track faculty using the models and variables from this study is necessary to verify the theoretical foundations used in study. The next study would benefit from a larger sample size to address the inadequate cell frequency distributions. Increasing the sample size is possible by including tenure-track faculty from another professional discipline like engineering. The sample size could also be increased by expanding the population to include all faculty levels. In addition to retesting the hypotheses in this study, an additional hypothesis would be needed to assess differences between professors, associate professors, and assistant professors.

Additionally, the next testing of the models in this study needs to look for differences by gender, and age.

In addition, an opportunity is present to identify additional antecedents of intent to leave. The combination of the predictors job satisfaction and family financial responsibility accounted for approximately 10% of the variability in the criterion intent to stay. This leaves approximately 90% of the variability in the criterion to be accounted for by unidentified antecedents and measurement error. One such antecedent of intent to

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leave that is reported is organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mueller & Price; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Smart (1990) identified the variables organizational and career satisfaction as antecedents of intent to leave. In a future study these or similar variables need to be included in the model in order to more accurately account for variance in the criterion intent to stay. This will result in lessening the error variance and allow for a more accurate estimation of predictors of intent to stay.

A study of faculty perceptions of the presence of upward drift and resulting changes in attitudes, like job satisfaction, would be informative to higher education administration. Provided faculty attitudes are negatively affected by the changing institution missions, useful information would be a cost-benefit analysis where the benefits from upward drift were compared to potential costs resulting from faculty dissatisfaction and turnover. Although quantifying the benefits of upward drift will be a challenge, an evaluation of the effects of the upward drift strategy is feedback necessary to evaluate the efficacy of this strategy.

Another future research idea is a longitudinal testing of the models hypothesized in this study using multiple measures for the data collection. This would address the common method variance concern, enable the testing of a causal relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay, and greatly improving the generalizability of this study. A longitudinal study will enable the collection of data from a respondent at different points in his career. Also, the longitudinal data will permit a shift in the definition of the dependent variable from a cognitive intention, a behavior one is considering, to the actual measurement of the respondent leaving or staying.

### **Conclusion**

Understanding the influence of job satisfaction and non-work factors upon intent to leave an organization is supported in the literature and important to understand to assist in faculty retention. Also important is the issue of changing faculty roles resulting in role conflict and ambiguity (Boice, 1992; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Role conflict and ambiguity are associated with low levels of satisfaction (Bedeian, & Armenakis, 1981), and very importantly, have an indirect effect on a person's intention to leave her job (Igarria & Guimaraes (1993). The purpose of this study is to explain factors affecting a faculty's intention to stay employed with his present institution.

The environmental factors affecting higher education faculty are increasing demands on faculty, increased interest in faculty accountability combined with ambiguous performance expectations, and decreasing faculty job satisfaction (Finkelstein, Seal & Schuster, 1998; Jolson, 1974; Sorcinelli, 1994; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). The theoretical basis for this research study is the supported relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay in a job (Abraham, 1999; Igarria & Guimaraes, 1993; Shore, Newton & Thornton, 1990; Porter & Steers, 1973; Ross & Zander, 1957; Shaw, 1999; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Further, the construct continuance commitment (non-work factors leading an employee to stay with current employer) is relevant to study in the satisfaction – intent to stay relationship because non-work role demands affect a person's intentions to stay or leave her job (Cohen, 1997).

The NSOPF:99 data set is a unique collection of data from postsecondary faculty. The population for this study is full-time, tenure-track, business faculty, employed at public research, doctoral, and comprehensive universities. The sample size is 93.

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Research question one is: Do both job satisfaction and non-work factors predict faculty intention to stay employed with their present institution? Research question two is: Does the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to remain in one's job, vary by institutional type. And finally, research question three is: Does the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to remain in one's job, vary for different levels of non-work responsibilities? The methods of statistical analysis used in this study are multiple regression and ANOVA.

The results of this study are:

- Faculty job satisfaction is related and is a statistically significant predictor of intent to stay.
- Carnegie classification and family financial responsibility are not related and not predictors of intent to stay.
- In their relationship to intent to stay, no interaction is present between job satisfaction and Carnegie classification, nor is an interaction present between job satisfaction and family financial responsibility.

Consequently, in this study, no moderating effects were apparent, however, the association between job satisfaction and intent to stay is replicated for the population tenure-track business faculty. This result contributes to the job satisfaction – intent to stay theory by confirming this relationship for tenure-track business faculty. Also, this result offers a practical implication. That is, the results provide empirical support for higher education administration to consider job satisfaction in their strategic planning of human resources as job satisfaction predicts faculty intent to remain employed with his present institution. Retention of faculty is crucial, as ultimately, faculty are in the best position to drive the transformation of higher education in order that higher education continues to meet the needs of our evolving society.



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**Appendix**  
**Oklahoma State University**  
**Institutional Review Board**  
**For Human Subjects Research**



**Oklahoma State University  
Institutional Review Board**

**Protocol Expires: 6/23/03**

Date: Monday, June 24, 2002

IRB Application No ED02128

Proposal Title: A STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION AND RETENTIO OF FULL-TIME, BUSINESS  
COLLEGE, TENURE-TRACK FACULTY

Principal  
Investigator(s):

Hank Ramsey  
213 Windsor  
Stillwater, OK 74074

Kelly Ward  
316 Willard  
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and  
Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Dear PI :

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of the expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Sharon Bacher, the Executive Secretary to

Sincerely,



Carol Olson, Chair  
Institutional Review Board

## VITA<sup>2</sup>

Hank Ramsey

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

**Thesis:** A NATIONAL STUDY OF TENURE-TRACK BUSINESS FACULTY:  
JOB SATISFACTION, CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT, AND  
INTENT TO STAY.

**Major Field:** Higher Education – College Teaching

**Biographical:**

**Education:**

Bachelor of Science in Business Administration,  
The University of Tulsa, May, 1984

Master of Arts,  
Lindenwood College, December, 1993

Completed the Requirements for the Doctor of Education  
Degree at Oklahoma State University, May, 2003

**Experience:**

**Higher Education Experience:**

Oklahoma State University - College of Business  
Courses Taught: Organizational Behavior, Fundamentals of  
Management, Human Resource Management, and Strategic  
Management.

Summer 2002 – Present. College of Business, Lecturer.

Fall 1999 – Spring 2002. College of Business, Instructor

Oklahoma State University – College of Education

Course: World of Work

Fall 1997 – 1999. Instructor

**Professional Affiliation:**

Academy of Management 1999 - Present