

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This brief review of the literature provides an overview of the research focused on the study if faculty workload obligations impact faculty job satisfaction and retention in higher education. The ideas and concepts pertaining to faculty retention, faculty satisfaction, and faculty workload and modes of instruction were mainly searched and synthesized for this study. The literature reviewed primarily includes peer-reviewed articles and studies centered in the field of higher education. A review of the literature was conducted to gain an understanding of relevant topics directly related to faculty workload determination. Additional references such as published report and online sources were identified concerning the mode of direct instruction and how managing faculty's workload can directly influence the retention rate of the faculty.

Faculty Retention

The importance of faculty involvement is widely felt yet often overlooked. The first aspect to consider is how critical their involvement is as they are closest to the students, therefore having the most comprehensive knowledge in teaching and student learning. However, the reluctance or resistance from the faculty has also been key issues in the assessment of the educational community. There are various studies and theories that try to explain the patterns behind these.

The Marcus Theory on faculty involvement in campus innovation hypothesized that faculty involvement is a function of resources, perceived value of innovation, and communication. The resources mentioned in here refer to money, time and administrative support- those essential in the accomplishment of large tasks such as the implementation of institutional assessment. The perceived value of an innovation is defined by the value dictated by institutional culture on the innovation, along with the faculty member's

view of its potential personal value. These also act as an indicator of time commitment for the implementation of the innovation. Relations and communication with other faculty presently involved in innovation is also identified as a key element to bolster motivation for involvement. An extension of the theory introduced the concept of improved communication and trust as being a key to faculty involvement. As administrative leadership focuses on the involvement of faculty and realizing its effects on the culture of the institution, institutional goals are successfully met. This encourages faculty to put greater personal investment in their work, along with increasing organizational commitment, having more creative communication among faculty, and subsequently, better teaching and learning. The adaptation or involvement in an innovation is also driven by the evidence they receive as to how it has an advantage over the current system, its compatibility with existing values, the effort needed to implement (easy rather than complex), and its ability to be experimented with and observed on possible impact (Grunwald & Peterson, 2003).

Faculty involvement could be summarized into three Rs: responsibility, resources and rewards. These are all necessary to overcome the fourth R, faculty resistance. There are plenty of reasons in why this comes about. First, it stems from disincentives for involvement- those values and reward systems of higher education that give higher priority to research and publication activities instead of those related to teaching. There is also a delineation between assessment for accountability and improvement, as those for accountability often results in less likelihood for involvement. The behavior of faculty revolves around using their time to maximize their accomplishments. For them to participate in assessment, it should be linked with their current line of work while showing evidence for sustained impacts.

The excellence of higher education is a function of the kind of people it is able to enlist and retain on its facilities (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). While efforts have been made in the search and hiring process of faculty, each departure has represented a poor return on investment. While other faculty may leave their respective institutions, it is only as part of their professional advancement. Their mobility is widely accepted in the field as the loyalty to discipline transcends the loyalty to school as teaching and research skills are readily transferable among schools. Their personal ability and educational attainment is also believed to translate into returns in the marketplace- with greater job opportunities that could also be from outside the academe. This could be triggered by higher income from other jobs or the under-appreciation of research work and publications. Others opt to pursue a different field if tenure is not attained or their research/teaching productivity is subpar. This tenure acts as their form of job security, obtaining academic freedom along the process.

Faculty turnover may represent potentially serious institutional problems such as faculty dissatisfaction, loss of talent, non-competitive salaries and a negative organizational climate. The costs of turnover are felt in individual, departmental and institutional levels as recruiting for replacements would entail additional effort and resources, course offerings may be disrupted, departmental and student planning may be discontinued, and graduate student advisors would be lost (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

A variety of reasons have been found on why faculty have volunteered for termination, including department discord, outside offers, drifting away and other personal reasons. The intent to stay within the organization or exit it is considered as the final stage of the psychological decision-making process of a person. Thus, intent has been regarded as the

strongest predictor of actual turnover. The careful consideration of the individual on the benefits and losses of a career move such as this is usually followed (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

There have been seven major factors identified in influencing departure decisions of faculty, and these are closely related to the immediate work environment. These are the following: competency of administrators (leadership), research facilities (availability of funds) and opportunities, teaching loads, salary, courses taught, competency of colleagues (reputation of department) and congeniality of colleagues. It has been observed that faculty turnover is higher at institutions facing serious enrollment and financial difficulties and at those whose administrative governance is towards autocratic rather than democratic in nature. The motivation behind faculty intention to leave is also driven by their compatibility between their work ethic and the values the institution upholds. As the gap widens, so does their intention to leave. Both teaching and research productivity have been linked to faculty retention, as teaching responsibilities have been found as negatively related to faculty intentions for departure. Those who valued and engaged in scholarly activities were also most likely to remain in their institutions (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

Tenure and compensation has also been found as important variables. Faculty members who left their institutions to accept an outside offer were found to have been related to the expected salary gain. The pressure of additional compensation is one of the leading factors for faculty to leave their institutions or the academe altogether (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

The academic discipline influences faculty's educational backgrounds, world outlooks and work experience. Within their own fields, some unique subject matters could define the dimensions of knowledge, modes of inquiry, significant reference groups, and the rewards the faculty stands to gain within them. While the rates of publication and commitment to teaching

versus research varies greatly within fields, it becomes a way of segregating faculty into different sub-academic labor markets. Thus, faculty in emerging fields have more job opportunities both inside and outside the academe (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

According to Johnsrud & Rosser (2002), "Faculty members are dedicated to their work and they love what they do, but they often wonder if they would not be happier doing it somewhere else" (p. 518). There is no guarantee that once a faculty is hired, he or she will stay in the organization. This being said, administrator of institutions should make an effort in striving to satisfy the personal and environmental needs of faculty members for the assurance of their retention. A clearer understanding of what motivates faculty in leaving an academic institution would be beneficial for it would allow prevention of the said event.

The perceived quality of an institution somewhat relies on the quality of faculty therefore faculty recruitment and retention should be given much importance. Waggaman (1983) has the same thought because he says that "Each new faculty member plays a significant role in the overall quality and dynamics of an institution" (p.6). Faculty members are key tools in the effectiveness of the performance of an academic institution so the factors that contribute in keeping these people should be addressed and constantly monitored. Xu (2008) stresses that "Is is clear that voluntary turnover is a responsive decision that an individual faculty member undertakes when s/he perceives the work environment as persistently dissatisfactory with respect to one's specific personal and professional needs and expectations" (p. 42). With this, Miller, Jackson, & Pope (2001) states that "Further, the need for a strong, well-trained faculty base, looming faculty shortages, and heightened competition for an educated workforce have precipitated a more comprehensive and strategic understanding of community college recruitment and retention" (p. 10).

There are a lot of other factors, which could be individual or environmental factors that contribute in the faculty retention rate (Xu, 2008). Causes for faculties wanting to leave their jobs are similar for a lot of faculty members and so focus on the said factors should be seriously considered. Some of these are stated by Waggaman (1983) & Christal & Hector (1980) as the retirement policy of the institutions; tenure and promotion policy; contract termination; better opportunities for professional advancement and responsibilities at another institution; better salary and benefits; research support; travel funds; perceived attitudes and procedures of a department administrator; and personal reasons. Johnsrud & Rosser (2002) has the same insight in saying that “Individuals leaving and staying differed most sharply according to their perceptions of quality of life, time pressure, and chair/department relations” (p. 521).

Faculty turnover can be decided upon by a faculty member’s own will but can also be due to an involuntary basis. Xu (2008) mentions that, “From the institutional perspective, voluntary turnovers, most likely unwanted losses, are of more concern. In some cases, faculty turnover may bring positive effects in the institution. Having new faculty members could bring in fresh, new ideas and suggestions into the academic world. Also, more often than not, the salary to be given to these new hires is less than that of senior faculty members. However, the downside to losing an old employee has more negative impact on universities. Undesirable consequences may include lost return on previous investment, disruption of research and teaching programs, discontinuity in student mentoring, and the monetary issues related in replacing the faculty members who left the organization (Xu, 2008).

Part of the individual factors in faculty retention is demographics. Gender, race, marital status, and family responsibilities are some of the issues related to faculty turnover (Zhuo & Volkwein, 2004; Xu, 2008). Gender and race discrimination in academic institutions tend to lead

towards wanting of female faculties and minority groups in universities to leave. Family responsibilities also play a major role in the retention of faculty members. Those employees with duties to fulfill have a lot to take into consideration. Though studies have disparate findings when looking for a relationship between demographic issues and faculty retention, it is best to still consider these factors so an organization may be able to give equal and fair opportunities for all faculties' advancement and progress.

Another factor to consider is the professional characteristics faculty members consider when deciding to leave an institution. These include professional training, job experience, years in position, academic rank, tenure status, teaching load, research productivity, and community services (Xu, 2008).

In reviewing the available literatures centered in faculty retention, several themes were presented. The most prevalent of the themes were that of sustainable workplaces and if the faculty possesses a sense of contribution not only to his or her educational professional career but also to the educational organization for which they are employed. A sense of fulfillment is essential for teaching. In line with this, the research presented by Xu (2008) states that "Productivity is another unique and complicated dimension in faculty work life" (p. 44). When faculty members sense that their influence, be it in the institution itself or on student, are declining, they are more likely to feel the need to leave. As presented by Eklund (2009), obstacles to faculty retention are based on the success of and ensuring a positive workplace climate. The goal is to create a climate rich with positive attitudes, clearly delineated performance expectations and collegial relationships. These concepts are prevalent in the literature, as compensation is not a significant contributing factor to faculty retention (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). "As the major form of rewards in academic settings, salary has always attracted

heated discussions, especially salary equity between genders. However, a definitive answer remains elusive as to how important salary is to faculty's turnover behavior" (Xu, 2008, p. 44). Hagedorn (1996); Zhou & Volkwein (2004); & Xu (2008) assert that the basis of faculty retention does not rely on the monetary value of salary but on the perceived equity and level of rewards that salary serves as an index of.

Hurtado & DeAngelo (2009) mirrored this concept when reviewing the impact of academic advancement and retention for senior female faculty. Though the components of retention include compensation, the study identified that the significant factor in job satisfaction was building a sense of community in the workplace and developing a process of shared decision-making. It is these factors that have the highest correlation improving senior female faculty's retention rate. Rosser (2004) also has the same idea that high levels of participation and influence as well as funding and support to professional activities are important to faculty members and these help in their retention decisions in an institution.

The empowerment of the faculty to contribute to his or her profession and allowing the faculty to solve problems greatly contributes to improving his or her retention in the field of higher education instruction. This could be beneficial as effectiveness could be increased when faculty members feel competent and that their importance is recognized (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). A sense of appreciation and value could go a long way. Also, institutions should work toward ensuring that professional development of all their employees is achieved. One way of doing so is to provide adequate funding to support the professional activities of faculty members (Rosser, 2004). This way, members of the faculty would feel a sense of satisfaction and an uplifted morale thus decreasing the chance of their intentions to leave the university. Rosser (2004) states that

Support for such activities often includes travel support to attend research meetings or professional development seminars, release time from teaching and course load responsibilities, sabbatical leaves to pursue new research interests or to enhance existing ones, and provision of funds to participate in those efforts that enable faculty members to maintain a current and relevant research agenda in their area of expertise (p. 287).

These activities have constructive effects for faculty members for they stimulate intellectually in an uncompetitive way through interactions with other faculty members from different institutions. On the other hand, deteriorating working conditions, differential compensation for some disciplines and colleges, and lack of employment mobility are issues that effect in low morale of faculty members and thus risk a higher probability that they would leave. These are unhealthy factors that greatly influence the emotions and decision-making of faculties. Also, these do not symbolize a promising future career.

Environmental factors also affect faculty retention. Institutional culture and conditions such as institutional declination, faculty to student ratio, and departmental size have impact on faculty members. Institutional culture is an important factor because it has a very significant impact on a lot of aspects in the university. Manifestations of the said culture can be seen in numerous activities of an institution including reward system, support for activities, and level of work autonomy (Xu, 2008). These work-life issues are relevant for faculty members for they serve as basis for the decision to leave a certain institution.

Administrative support such as that focused on administrative works and teaching and graduate assistance also plays a role in faculty retention. Administrative work or clerical work more often than not is the most disliked part of faculties when it comes to their responsibilities. These tasks are time consuming and just serve as burden to the faculty. Johnsrud & Rosser

(2002) states that “Faculty members are not only free to determine what they do (what they teach, what they study, what they publish), but they have great latitude in when they do it” (p.522). Administrative work limits this freedom of faculty members because instead of doing what they want, time is allocated for additional work that should be done by others. Moreover, when tasks are a lot, good teaching and graduate assistants would be of great use (Rosser, 2004). These assistants can significantly lessen the stress and burden that a faculty member is carrying on his or her shoulder. However, “Sources of support can vary dramatically by college, department, even by individual faculty member, and such perceived inequities can be demoralizing” (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002, p. 524). Academic institutions should watch out for this type of scenarios for this leads to faculty members’ intention to leave.

Department chairs also impact faculty retention. They are given the task to recruit, hire, and maintain satisfaction of faculty members for their retention in universities. Pollicino (1996) states that “Since administrators play a key role in establishing and maintaining the climate in which faculty perform their professional activities, support was considered an enabling- - rather than evaluative- - factor, that is, ensuring appropriate optimum conditions as opposed to satisfying preconceived criteria” (p. 4-5). Parallel to this, in the research done by Miller, Jackson, & Pope (2001), they state that “On campus faculty development was identified as the predominant form of retention activity, and mentoring by other faculty members was identified as the most effective form of retention” (p. 3). The department chair has the ability to make the above mentioned activities successful as they play an important role in the educational institutions. They are involved in the important decision-making processes in academic institutions. However, this job can sometimes be difficult for the needs and expectations of the faculties may constantly differ as we are in a complex and changing environment. Also,

inadequacy and lack of communication by these administrators can be detrimental to the goal of making faculty members stay.

Faculty retention is needed to be ensured by management since recruitment is a costly and time consuming process. As said by Xu (2008), “Faculty turnover has long been a practical and research concern in higher education due to the costly monetary and academic consequences that the institutions have to bear” (p.40). Having open positions would mean that the institution has to put out money for advertising. As mentioned by Waggaman (1983), “Equally expensive are the indirect costs to the university as faculty and support staff lose time from their normal duties to serve on search committees, review resumes, and interview candidates” (p. 6). Role expectations should be clearly defined from the very beginning of recruiting an individual so that he or she in any particular time would not feel any form of unease towards the job (Miller, Jackson, & Pope, 2001). The department chair must make sure that expectations of both the institution and the individual to be hired are aligned before any decisions are made. Upon hiring, progress in the faculty development should be constantly monitored as this would bring a sense of accomplishment for the teachers (Miller, Jackson, & Pope, 2001; Hammond & Fong, 1988).

Faculty Satisfaction

As stated by Moore & Gardner (1992), “Faculty members have entered institutions motivated by the desire to achieve a certain level of success in their field” (p. 5). However, there are a lot of factors, external and internal, that influence this desire of goal achievement. The level of satisfaction a faculty member would have would depend on his or her ability to adapt or adjust to the said factors.

Hagedorn (1996); Rosser (2004); & Xu (2008) states that work life quality, job satisfaction, and intention to leave are inter-correlated. The level of satisfaction of faculty

members can be attributed to factors such as students, colleagues, and administrators (Hagedorn, 1996; Rosser, 2004) which are the same when considering faculty retention in universities.

Pollicino (1996) stated in her exploratory research that “Satisfaction was defined as the extent to which faculty members perceive that the institution provides a climate ensuring professional autonomy and activity commensurate with their specialized expertise” (p. 4). Faculty satisfaction can be credited to a lot of other factors. To name a few, satisfaction in advising, work load, benefits, and security are some of the issues faced when dealing with contentment and satisfaction of faculty members. In line with this, it is also good to keep in mind that faculty satisfaction discussion is by nature a subjective matter because evaluation of job responsibilities and roles is on an individual and personal basis.

The literature surrounding the body of knowledge of faculty satisfaction overlapped the literature concerning faculty retention. Pollicino (1996) points out three distinct factors, namely collegiality, workload, and autonomy that influence faculty satisfaction. Moore & Gardner (1992) agrees to these factors in saying that “Specific aspects of the work environment where faculty satisfaction was high included: job security, freedom to consult, benefits, authority to determine content of classes and authority to make decisions on what courses to teach” (p. 9). Other studies, such as that of Hill (2009) also presented an empirical exploration of faculty satisfaction. Though multiple factors influence faculty satisfaction, the study also illustrated that work overload as well as a lack of collegiality and peer support directly impacts faculty satisfaction. This research was mirrored by Magnuson, Norem, & Lonneman-Doroff (2009), who conducted a longitudinal study reviewing the factors that influenced 2,000 new assistant professors. This phenomenological study concluded that the tenure process imposed stressors on the new assistant professors, which directly impact workplace satisfaction. Consistent with the

Hill (2009) study, peer support during the tenure process was directly related to the faculty member's workplace satisfaction.

Alternative themes for faculty satisfaction were that of conflicting roles in workload, service, teaching and scholarship. The lack of consistency significantly affected workplace satisfaction, where the need to set workload limits were needed to remain motivated and engaged in the educational process. Pollicino mentioned in her research that "Administrators need to be proactive in developing an institutional climate that will foster collegiality through careful and consistent articulation of the mission, encouraging faculty involvement in matters at the institutional level, and facilitating faculty participation in interdepartmental initiatives" (p. 14). The final theme was that of intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence faculty satisfaction. Sabharwal & Corley (2009) presented that female faculty members defined faculty satisfaction by mostly intrinsic factors, career advancement and intellectual challenges, in comparison to their male faculty counterparts, who placed greater emphasis on extrinsic factors such as faculty compensation and benefits.

Autonomy also plays an important role in faculty satisfaction. In the research conducted by Pollicino (1996), "Autonomy was measured by confidence in personal authority to make decisions about instructional matters, as well as job security and the quality of departmental/program leadership" (p. 12). For faculty members, being able to freely decide on academic-related subject matters (deciding on one's own course content, consulting outside campus, and options on which courses they taught) and at the same time be able to contribute to the institution he or she is a part of will definitely lead to satisfaction (Clery, 2002; Pollicino, 1996).

Faculty members are given the freedom to choose between which of the university triads (teaching, research, and service) they will focus on and pursue. According to Pollicino (1996), “The promotion of an institutional climate conducive to carrying out the teaching-research-service enterprise of the professoriate is of particular importance due to the recent public pressure on higher education to establish accountability by satisfying outcome assessment criteria” (p. 4). More female faculties tend to fall under the teaching category than do their male counterparts. A fact of the matter is that females have an innate ability to nurture and a sense of emotional satisfaction is achieved when they are able to help student be transformed and empowered. Given that responsibility to duty is a faculty’s primary duty in the academy, activities of faculties and majority of their time are spent with students (Rosser, 2004). According to Bogler (2005), the most important predictor of teacher satisfaction is the academic achievement of their student. This, for them, serves as a reflection of their teaching competence and efficacy. With this, a direct relationship exists between faculty member’s satisfaction with students and satisfaction with work-life.

As stated in the research done by Clery (2002), “The five job-related factors that were least likely to elicit satisfaction were benefits, advancement opportunities, effectiveness of faculty leadership, time to keep current in their field, and salary” (p. 3). In addition to this, Moore & Gardner (1992) states that “Dimensions of the work environment where faculty expressed the most dissatisfaction included: time available for research and scholarship, quality of faculty leadership, quality of chief administrative officers, and the relationship between faculty and administration” (p. 9). Low level of job satisfaction can mean a lot of things. For one, it could mean that the organization member was not able to meet the expectations of the

organization. However, it could also mean that the climate in which the faculty member works in is not appropriate or suitable for contentment and to push for better performance.

Some example factors that affect faculty satisfaction are better student-faculty relations, increased motivation, decreased workloads and increased productivity. There are theories that suggest that faculty satisfaction is relevant. The first theory hypothesizes two types of constructs that affect faculty job satisfaction triggers and mediators (Hagedorn, 2000). Triggers are those events in the faculty's personal life that may or may not be affected to their job. There are six triggers identified: changes in life stage, in family-related circumstance, in rank or tenure, in institutional setting, in perceived justice and in emotional state. Meanwhile, mediators are those that moderate the relationship between satisfaction and the context in which job satisfaction must be considered. There are three types of mediators: motivators, demographics and environmental conditions. The triggers lead to an increase or decrease in satisfaction, and the mediator controls the magnitude of these effects.

Another model suggests that organizational factors, job-related factors and personal factors affect self-knowledge, social knowledge and satisfaction (Nyquist, Hitchcock, & Teherani, 2000). The organizational factors include available resources, the perceived opportunity for promotion and advancement, adequacy of mentoring, collegial relations among colleagues, decision making abilities and commitment to the organization. The job-related factors include autonomy and academic freedom, stimulation from work, clear and consistent job duties, resources available, work-related time pressures, workload, income and job security. Personal factors include perceptions of role conflict and interference of work responsibilities with home.

The aforementioned theories and models show that institutional context and individual characteristics affect faculty satisfaction. A summary of these factors are shown in Figure 1 to indicate the aspects of faculty satisfaction with their institutional and individual patterns of student assessment.

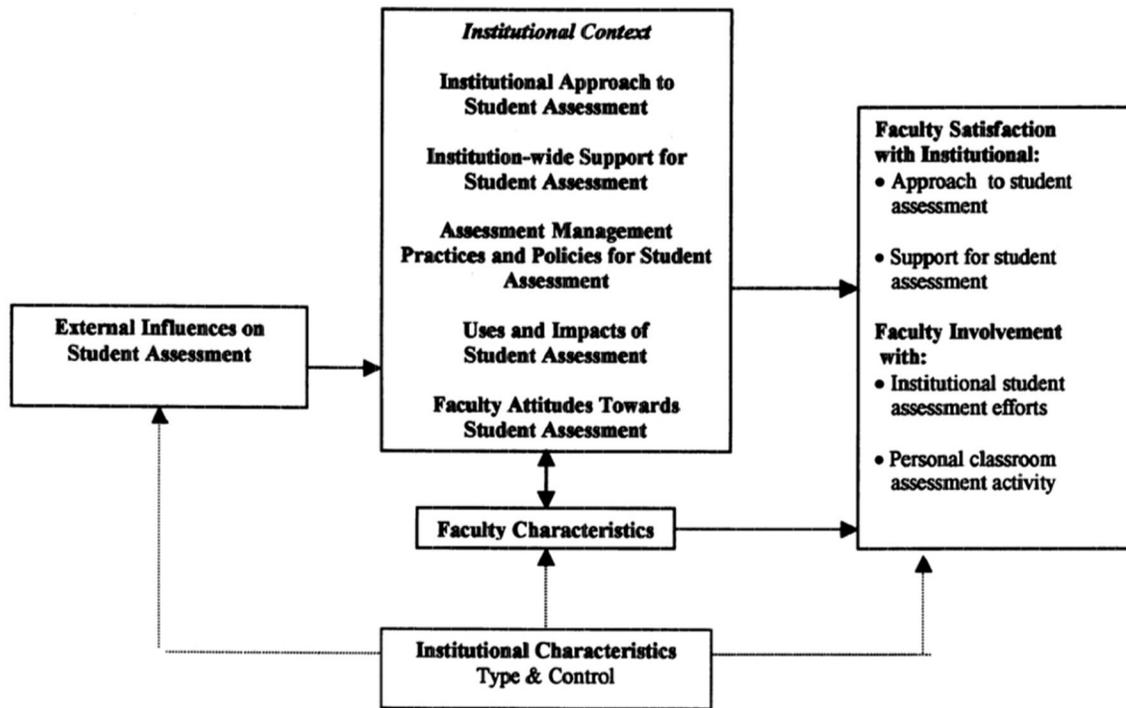


Figure 1. The influence of external, institutional context, faculty characteristics and institutional characteristics on faculty satisfaction with an involvement in student assessment (Grunwald & Peterson, 2003).

Often indicators of faculty satisfaction and involvement are: gender, rank, tenure, and number of years worked in the institution and in higher education. According to an empirical study (Grunwald & Peterson, 2003), only one variable has proven to be a significant predictor of satisfaction and involvement, in the form of faculty perceptions of benefits. As the characteristics of faculty are not easily influenced, the institutional impacts are also not felt immediately. One way to increase faculty satisfaction is to have an approach focused on institutional support, emphasizing the goals of the institution and how they could contribute to its improvement and

development. As they are shown institution-wide activities, impacts on faculty instruction and other educational uses, the faculty is reassured of the commitment to quality.

A problem that would be encountered would be the incentives that this would entail (salary, promotion, awards, etc), along with the perceptions of benefits of these programs. Abrupt introductions may lead to resistance or negative perceptions about these types of assessments. This is the opportunity that the administrators need, as they could involve external groups such as accreditation, state policies and professional associations to help promote faculty involvement. They could also provide and promote professional development opportunities that would encourage the faculty to understand the benefits they stand to gain from their involvement. Basically, the message concentrates on internal institutional academic improvement. This establishes institution-wide mechanisms (plans, policies and administrative offices) to guide faculty involvement in assessment while monitoring and reporting its benefits and impacts (Grunwald & Peterson, 2003).

The Herzberg Two Factor Theory explores the connection between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The intrinsic job factors like feelings of accomplishment, recognition and autonomy are pitted against the extrinsic factors such as pay, security and physical working conditions. Employees may feel satisfaction with their assigned responsibilities and content of a job, along with the work environment, but could still be frustrated about their potential for growth or mobility within the organization. Thus, overall satisfaction should go beyond these intrinsic and extrinsic factors and also consider satisfaction with work conditions and interpersonal satisfaction- those influenced by personal and situational circumstances (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

The characteristics of an institution as an organization, as well as its environment, are also found to have significant influences on faculty. The university control, mission, size, wealth, complexity and quality influence satisfaction and turnover of faculty. Accrediting bodies and other researchers have used worker satisfaction as an indicator of organizational effectiveness. The presence of employee unions may also influence faculty perceptions as union-affiliated staff members perceive the culture, philosophy, climate and outcomes of their work environment more negatively than the non-union staff (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

Personal characteristics variables also show a direct connection towards job satisfaction, such as age, sex, highest degree, personal health, family and financial stress. Other non-job related factors may also directly affect intention to leave, such as financial responsibilities, family ties, friendships and community relations. It has been seen that as a faculty member attains full-time status at a young age, the more their likelihood to move on to another full-time job outside the academe. Some individuals also take into consideration the careers of their spouse, the education of their children and other possible personal factors (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

A model has been built revolving around faculty turnover to improve the already existing causal models by introducing complementary concepts from the turnover, organizational and satisfaction literature that were considered (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). Smart's causal model suggested that employee turnover has at least three major sets of determinants: individual characteristics, contextual work variables and external conditions. Exogenous variables were divided into two characteristics: individual (career age, gender, marital status, research time, teaching time) and organizational (enrollment and financial decline). These variables are assumed to influence several measures of faculty work environments: from participation in

campus governance, perceived influence, research productivity and salary. The satisfaction measure is also divided into three dimensions: organizational satisfaction, salary satisfaction and career satisfaction. These are measures which have direct influences on faculty intentions to leave. He also stated that there were only two other variables that exerted strong influences promoting faculty departure, in the form of the female gender and a reported less democratic governance (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

The NSOPF-99 extends Smart's model by including a larger array of personal characteristics (such as family SES and ethnic minority), institutional characteristics (such as public/private, enrolment size, wealth, diversity and unionization) and external factors (perceived research opportunities, teaching opportunities, extrinsic rewards, and family considerations).

The Matier Model used a push-pull metaphor to explain how faculty exits from an institution. It proposed that both internal and external environmental factors are critical in an individual's final decision to leave. The internal factors include both the tangible and intangible benefits of the job, such as personal and institutional reputation, autonomy, wages, facilities, work rules and fringe benefits. The external factors are those not related to the workload, including quality of life, family, friends and finances. From his study, it was concluded that the internal push is more operative than the external pull in most faculty departure decisions (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

The model of Zhou and Volkwein (2004) extends these studies by suggesting an array of internal and external factors which influence the faculty's intention to stay or leave their current job. They have included three major clusters of factors: the organizational characteristics, individual characteristics and work experiences. These are hypothesized to influence faculty job

satisfaction, subsequently affecting their intention to leave. The organizational variables include institutional control, institutional type, institutional size, wealth and diversity, level of unionization, financial/personnel policies and employee benefits. While most of the other variables were just adapted from the Smart model, financial/personnel policies are added to address the dissatisfaction with organizational policy being related to intentions of leaving. Personal characteristics refer to the gender, ethnicity, educational attainment, age, marriage status and family financial situation. Institutional experiences are those which include the workload, productivity and rewards such as tenure, academic rank and compensation. The three blocks of factors directly influence one's job satisfaction and perceptions of organizational environment. Job satisfaction is seen to be multi-dimensional, also considering satisfaction with job security, autonomy, workload, instruction and research resources and compensation. It could also include one's perceptions of the organizational environment- from how they treat gender and ethnical climate on campus and how institutional decline is handled.

Meanwhile, there are five major external factors: the external job market, the extrinsic rewards (salary and benefits, opportunities for advancement), research opportunities, teaching opportunities and other family considerations. The faculty member goes through a process of growth as they enter an institution with their own personal characteristics. As they gain experience in work, they form their level of satisfaction (and dissatisfaction) with their job, subsequently causing their departure intention. This is often influenced by the external factors as they are compared with the benefits of transferring rather than staying (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

The reward and incentive program of compensation, tenure and job security is an important factor in faculty retention. Tenure offers both academic freedom and a sufficient degree of economic security that makes the profession attractive to men and women of ability.

Without it, non-tenured faculty are more concerned with job security and become more sensitive to perceived institutional decline. But with the recent financial constraints, many institutions have resorted to hiring more non-tenure track faculty to replace the tenured ones. They are signed to a fixed-term contract which assigns them to take a heavier teaching load at the undergraduate level. While this would save money spent for salaries, it also increases the turnover rate and could possibly disrupt course offering. It is suggested that institutions hiring non-tenured faculty at high proportion should also be prepared for high turnover rates.

Institutions that do not have a tenure system are especially vulnerable to high turnover among their professors at higher ranks. It is imperative for academic institutions to provide strong support for faculty and assist in their career development. The package of salaries and benefits are considered as an important reward. The study has also found strong evidence that salaries strongly affect the attitudes of faculty towards their job. The faculty understands salary gains as a symbolic representation of their legitimacy and recognition of their worth to their home institutions. Relative salary and raises to one's peers are found to affect a faculty member's attitude and performance, more than just knowing the absolute salary of a faculty member. Institutions should also be more responsive to salary equity issues among women and minorities, along with salary compression, as these could affect their perception about it. Public doctoral and research institutions who average a lower faculty salary from its competitors have a disadvantage in faculty recruitment and retention. Faculty members at private and wealthier institutions, especially the tenured ones, are more likely to report higher levels of satisfaction with compensation and resources. This equates to them having higher intentions of staying. Salaries are found to be higher in each faculty rank in private institutions compared to public ones. Thus,

the competitiveness of public institutions has been compromised in the academic labor market (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

Lastly, faculty members at different stages of their careers also have different concerns. Non-tenured faculty are more concerned with their job security, autonomy and institutional effectiveness rather than their compensation. Other factors that influence their job satisfaction and intentions to leave are their work assignments, in teaching and service activities. Meanwhile, tenured faculty are more concerned about compensation rather than job security. They care more for external extrinsic rewards to be awarded to them. Thus, there may be a need to accelerate faculty compensation at the point of obtaining the tenure. Institutions should also acknowledge the special burdens of faculty at earlier career stages in order to monitor their development and helping them overcome initial career anxiety. This will help them have a smooth career transition while prospering in their new position. Academic administrators should adopt flexible practices on work assignments so that the early career- stage faculty would be able to accomplish their highest professional priorities. Departmental leaders should be the most flexible in assigning service responsibilities to non-tenured faculty as they may be sensitive with too many service demands and affect their departure intentions. It has been found that seniority, rank, compensation and job security have powerful influences on faculty retention. However, departure decisions are based on a completely different set of individual, professional, organizational, workplace and external variables that contribute to one's satisfaction and departure decisions (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). The variables are represented in a framework shown in Figure 2.

There are few theoretical models that try to explain, predict or understand job satisfaction. The extant literature rests heavily on old models that are in dire need of rejuvenation and

modification. While the complex and convoluted nature of the concept makes it hard to formulate a conceptual model that can completely and accurately portray the construct, a model is made as a strategy to sort and categorize the factors that compose and contribute to job satisfaction (Hagedorn, 2000). The model hypothesizes on two types of constructs- the triggers and mediators. Triggers are significant life events that may be either related or unrelated to the job. Major life events have resulted in change of reference, a change of self and a change in work-related responses. Meanwhile, mediators are described as a variable or situation that influences or moderates the relationship between other variables or situations producing an interaction effect. These mediating variables represent situations, developments and extenuating circumstances that provide the context in which job satisfaction must be considered. Mediators represent the complexity of satisfaction as there is no fixed list of factors that would always encourage positive outlooks on the developed job.

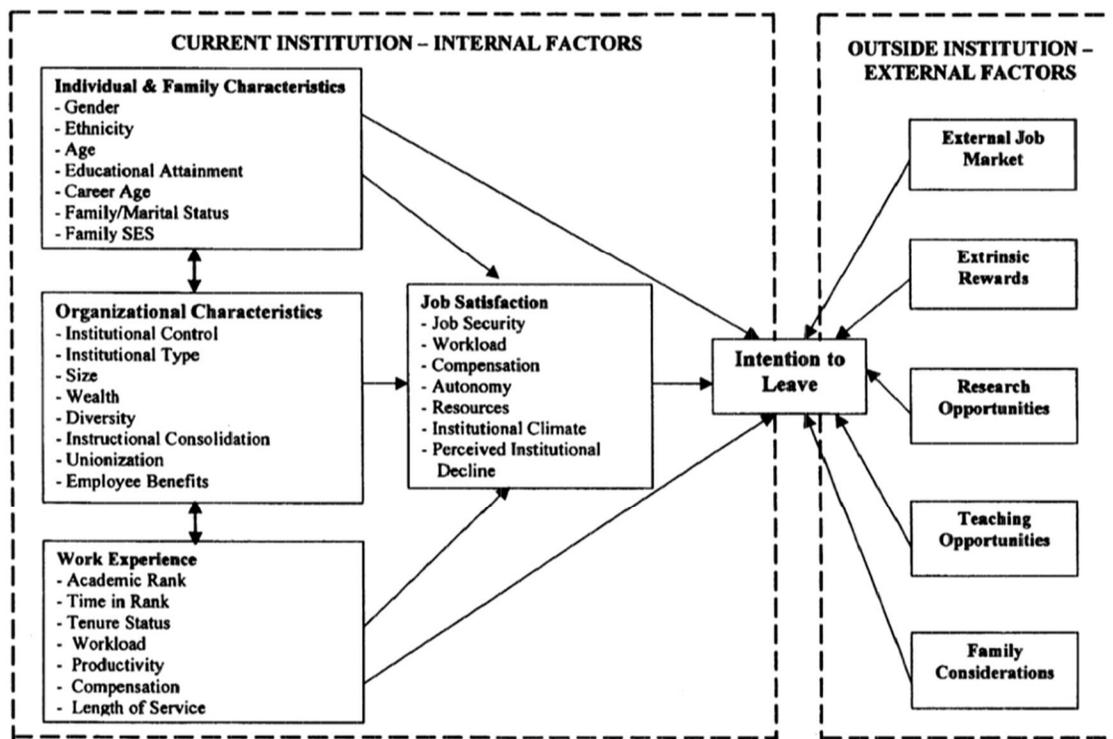


Figure 2. The Theoretical Model of Faculty Departure (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004)

The curved arrow in the framework represents the complex feedback between the state of mediators and the triggers that further affect the nature of satisfaction. The six unique triggers are identified as follows: (1) change in life stage, (2) change in family-related or personal circumstances (birth, death, divorce, illness of self or partner, and so on), (3) change in rank or tenure, (4) transfer to a new institution, (5) change in perceived justice, and (6) change in mood or emotional state. The three types of mediators are the following: (1) motivators and hygienes, (2) demographics, and (3) environmental conditions. Together, the mediators and triggers form the elementary structure of the framework (Hagedorn, 2000).

The existence of motivators and hygienes is based on a theory developed in the 1959 by Frederick Herzberg and his colleagues. The theory promotes the existence of factors labeled as motivators which work to increase satisfaction while other factors labeled as hygienes decrease dissatisfaction or result in de-motivation. The theory identified fourteen first-level job factors related with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, possibility of advancement, possibility of growth, salary status, quality of interpersonal relations with superiors, quality of interpersonal relations with peers, technical supervision, agreement with company policies and administration, pleasant working conditions, external factors from personal life and job security. Out of all these, it was found that only achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and to a certain degree, salary as influential in increasing job satisfaction or decreasing job dissatisfaction. Herzberg believed that the causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction were different from one another, so the theory was then referred to as the two-factor theory of job satisfaction. Recent studies have also tried to verify this work, showing that the factors indicate that the intensity of the work and the level of involvement achieved by the worker moderates job satisfaction. Thus, as a worker feels

a high level of achievement with high involvement and well-compensated through recognition, responsibility and salary, then job satisfaction is enhanced (Hagedorn, 2000).

Demographics also play an important role in job satisfaction as it is stable and remains fixed throughout one's career. The research on demographics primarily revolves around gender, but there is no exact evidence that there are specific interactions with job satisfaction. An observation has shown, however, that males are more satisfied with salary and benefits while women are more satisfied with family factors. Other issues that are for concern for females are the external factors such as the presence of discrimination or stereotyping. Ethnicity has been found as a factor, as minority workers are likely to meet race-related stressors. However, this is complex in nature and extent and largely dependent on other factors such as the racial composition of the working environment, as well as the situational salience, the level of distinctiveness and interpretation of token status experienced by the worker. These two demographic mediators may contribute to the departure of faculty members from the academe or create interference with their jobs.

The demographical mediators – institutional type and academic discipline – are considered to affect the nature of job satisfaction. Just as gender and ethnicity, these demographical mediators create in-groups of workers who share certain similar characteristics and interests and out-groups of workers whose responsibilities and job requirements are defined somewhat differently. The difference between the disciplines themselves, as well as the jobs of professors who research and teach them, has long been studied in the higher education literature. As a result, several schemes have been devised to try to make sense of the differences and are almost always used in higher education research studies.

The third group of mediators, labeled environmental, encompasses working conditions

including the social and working relationships established with administrators (bosses), colleagues (coworkers), and students (subordinates). Of all of the mediators, those in the environmental domain are the most likely to be transitory and subject to change. In short, the labor relations and organizational theory research indicates that positive social and working relationships as well as satisfying working conditions are conducive to increased levels of job-related satisfaction (Carnevale and Rios, 1995).

Although there is ample support for the inclusion of stress in any model referring to job satisfaction, its absence from the conceptual framework was not an oversight. Rather, stress is perceived as an all-inclusive term that overlaps with virtually all aspects of the job. The model places stress not as a primary indicator but rather as a consequence of negative responses to the mediators and triggers.

The final portion of the model is the actual product, evidence, and the result of job satisfaction. Although no appropriate metric capable of precisely categorizing or gauging levels of job satisfaction exists, any worker can attest that its presence can be felt and its consequences observed. Like most of life's expressions and emotional responses, job satisfaction is better represented by a continuum than by discrete categories.

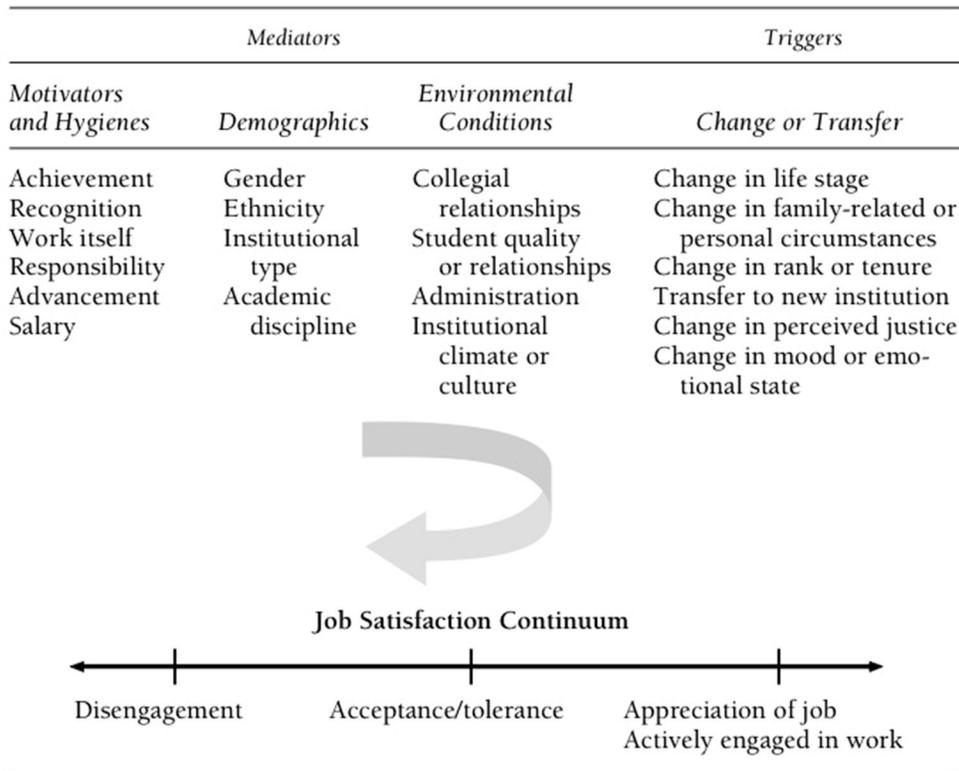


Figure 3. Conceptual Framework of Faculty Job Satisfaction (Hagedorn, 2000)

Faculty Workload

According to the Nevada System of Higher Education [NSHE] (2008), “To varying degrees, faculty workload is impacted by requirements to engage in research, develop professionally, participate in public service, as well as contribute to the commitment of shared governance, advise students, and develop new curriculum and programs” (p. 3). In agreement to what was mentioned, Gappa, Austin, & Trice (2007) & Wimsatt, Trice, & Langley (2009) affirm that faculty role includes incorporating new technologies into teaching, availability to both students and colleagues through mediums such as email, conducting more assessment in the classroom, becoming more entrepreneurial in securing funding for their scholarly work, and effectively teaching students that are becoming more diverse. When talking about work done by faculty members of a university, it does not only mean teaching inside a classroom. There are

numerous other tasks assigned to them depending on the academic institution that they belong to. There are expanding demands today as compared to teaching associated responsibilities before. More often than not, the number of hours required of a faculty is too long that it gives stress and dissatisfaction to the employees.

Looking into whom in particular is more affected in the increasing work load in universities, Wimsatt, Trice, & Langley (2009) states that “Women, compared to men, report experiencing significantly higher levels of stress related to teaching loads, time pressure, lack of personal time, subtle discrimination, and research or publishing demands” (p. 73). These concerns are significant in determining the job satisfaction levels of faculty members. Job satisfaction then can tell whether an individual would show loyalty to a certain academic institution.

The review of the literature concerning faculty workload was comprehensive and was categorized into several themes. The first theme within the body of knowledge was based on the role of non-tenured part-time and adjunct faculty as compared to their tenured full-time peers. As presented by Adamowicz (2007) academic institutions increase the number of part-time and adjunct faculty to reduce their personnel costs, as most part-time and adjunct faculty do not receive benefits nor pension contributions. The resulting impact on the organization, other than the fiscal savings, could be substantial from an operational standpoint. Adamowicz (2007) revealed that the average part-time faculty salary is less than 20% of the full-time faculty’s salary, requiring them to work for multiple institutions, managing multiple jobs and student loads. The part-time faculty manages 67% of the educational workload of the full-time faculty while earning 20% of the pay. The workload impact is significant, as most part-time faculty do not have the available time to meet with his or her students, update or develop new class syllabi

or allocate time to meet their college's service obligations. As financial decisions and cost containment mechanisms require an increase in part-time faculty, the separation between the full and part-time faculty will increase, thus creating more of a professional divide.

Another theme within the literature concerned faculty satisfaction as a result of workload obligations. According to Durham, Merritt, & Sorrell (2007) the change in faculty composition to a more non-tenure track faculty would necessitate the need to develop an alternative formula. This new formula would value the faculty's direct instruction, academic scholarship, and organizational service to ensure equity in the workload assignments. A workload formula was developed using weighted workload to address diverse teaching models and to provide credit for college-based service and professional scholarship. Though this method does not address all obligations faculty may have within his or her organization, workload obligations are clearly outlined, and therefore easier to monitor. The main concept addressed the issue of inequity as most university systems reward faculty based on funded research instead of direct teaching obligations. The article addressed the issue that there is a trend for faculty to have large teaching loads, impeding their available time for scholarly endeavors. The impact of this research extends beyond the clinical educational model, as faculty's workload as well as the educational organizations needs may dictate a higher percentage of direct instruction over the need for scholarly research. The impact can offer faculty alternative educational career tracks, each equally valuable.

The literature also contained models identifying the proper mix of faculty workload and scholarship. In Ehrlich's research (2003) the role of the credit hour as a measure of faculty workload was reviewed. The focus of the research was to identify the extent to which the credit hour, as rooted in most faculty policy manuals, is an obstacle to the educational organization's

ability to be creative. At most community colleges and comprehensive universities, full-time faculty are required to teach four or five courses per semester. This avails faculty time to be academically creative as focusing on the specific credit load inhibits creativity. Though Ehrlich's research was authored in 2003, his research has been referenced in more recent publications and has been thought of as the defining article on the credit hour method of assessing faculty workload.

Studying workload of faculty members could bring beneficial effects to the universities. As stated in the research of Porter & Umbach (2001), "Some legislators believe that significant cost savings would result if faculty, especially faculty at research universities, were required to do more teaching" (p. 171). However, instruction cost may be decreased by increasing the teaching hours required to be fulfilled by some faculty members but the effect on research revenue should be looked upon as well. A balance should be met so as to have equity in the workload of faculty and at the same time bring in advantageous gains for the institution.

Following Ehrlich's research, Conceicao & Baldor (2009) presented an academic paper that discussed the workload implications of online education. As online classes enroll a significant number of students, the transition to an online environment has implications for faculty workload and organizational support. In the research of Crews, Wilkinson, Hemby, McCannon, & Wiedmaier (2008), they state that "Teaching online has the reputation of requiring more work than teaching in a traditional classroom" (p. 132). The research illustrates that effective online teaching requires not only considerable faculty preparation before the course begins but also the active involvement of faculty during the course. The barriers to faculty success were attributed to the increased workload due to the time needed to design and deliver the online course, and the depth of engagement during the course. The increased workload

attributed to this mode of teaching, coupled with the lack of recognition for the extra workload, creates stress and workplace dissatisfaction for the faculty members involved. To add to this, there are related concerns that increased workload due to this new type of environment lessens the opportunity of faculty members to focus on the job (research) that is more highly regarded by the institutions (Thompson, 2004).

Though, when full commitment is given by faculty members in the new environment of teaching, certain advantages could be realized (Thompson, 2004). These returns as follows: increased access to/by students, increased opportunities for high-quality interaction with students, flexibility and convenience for teaching and learning, increased knowledge of and experience with educational technologies, opportunities for research and professional recognition, and positive student outcomes. Given the concerns of faculty members regarding online teaching environments and the benefits that it could also bring, appropriate response and action by the administration are necessary to increase the likelihood of more commitment to this type of teaching style.

The literature also illustrated the importance of faculty performance of teaching, scholarship and service as it relates to tenure and promotion decisions within an academic institution. Green (2008) stated as scholarship was important, teaching and service roles have become less influential over time. This however creates organizational conflict, as faculty workloads have increased over time, creating a dichotomy of obligations, one for work and one for academic promotion and tenure. The implications of this research are important to both new faculty and those about to embark on the promotion and tenure pathway. Though scholarship is the significant component of these decisions “over 65% of faculty are spending significantly more time in teaching and service than they are in their scholarship” (Green, 2008, p. 123).

Another set of external forces produces different kinds of performance for faculty within the same institution and complicates the assessment of quality. These are the different fields and disciplines in which the faculty are involved in, along with the professional societies with which they identify. Literature, history and mathematics professors teach in varying manners, but within these sub-cultures teach in the same manner with regards to the type of institution they are in (curriculum). The product of researchers are also different from one another, as is the rate at which they become visible. Critical reviews, scholarly books and short proofs of theorems are not only different in nature, but also different in completion timelines (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

It should be noted that the measure subject to analysis is the quality of the pedagogical performance rather than the quantity of teaching. The principal indicator of teaching quality is the student rating form, which could come in one variant or another. However, many faculty are critical of the validity of this instrument as it is only conducted at the end of the term, done anonymously and kept from the professor until the final grades are recorded. This has been evidently disproved through the high correlation of these well-constructed instruments, which is over 0.9. Subjected to factor analysis, the same factors emerge. Students are found to be serious when completing the instruments, with no random filling of the items that are stated. The test-retest reliabilities are also over 0.9. It should be noted that these scores are not related to the grades the students expects to receive or will get. They have the ability to differentiate entertainment from a sound performance. Also, colleague ratings for faculty on quality of teaching have also exhibited high correlation (around 0.7). The biases appear in higher ratings for elective (and over-required) courses to smaller ratings in larger classes (with the exception of superb performances in giant lectures) (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

One analytical problem with the instruments is that students tend to give faculty high ratings (above average), which reduces the spread of the scores and makes discrimination in the middle ranges less reliable. Cross-institutional comparison cannot be done even with the same instrument because college and university climates can differ with respect to student expectations on faculty performance. Despite its limitations, the typical quality indicator is still an effective tool for assessment. It is still able to sort outstanding pedagogues and disasters with a very high degree of accuracy- administrator and student rating scores had a correlation of 0.5 (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

The studies on teaching that consider age as a factor show that the measure of performance is effectiveness as judged by first- and second-year undergraduates in all kinds of institutions. However, the availability is limited as only few institutions acquire systematic evaluations of faculty teaching and even fewer maintain longitudinal records over time (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986). The ratings have also shown a positive correlation between effectiveness and academic rank, as students judge those of higher rank as slightly better teachers. Age is correlated with rank, as it is inferred that it is obtained through time and aging. Biological theories would have predicted a positive relationship since the role performance does not necessarily suffer from physiological deterioration. This improves from experience and practice, along with additional interest in teaching (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

The psychological theory of aging would predict contradictory shifts of ratings with aging, as the essential intelligence and related attributes in one's career predictably improves over time. As a faculty member grows older, they gain more experience on what works and what does not. Thus, they would know how to teach the difficult parts of a course that novice pedagogues would still have to learn. Another variable to consider is the faculty's willingness to take risks,

especially in trying out new techniques or contemporary equipment such as computers, new software and the like. The students may have a negative perception of the faculty if they are incapable of operating these (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

The sociological theory predicts a decline, as external rewards for teaching are limited. Some examples of these are the annual awards or the once-in-a-lifetime service achievement awards. Good teaching is not immediately reflected on the pay scale and becomes obvious with the passing of each academic year. And as high quality and performance in the classroom is not recognized, unsatisfactory teaching is easily seen and punished (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

The life-course development theory suggests that the motivations to teach would fluctuate at different stages of their careers. Newly introduced faculty members may have high enthusiasm, but this is tempered by peer and organizational pressures, especially on visible accomplishments. Effort is exerted to achieve career success (in the form of tenure, promotion and the like), but change might come when it is obtained. The long duration in which this is attained (like an appointment to full professor) may coincide with the faculty's personal life, subsequently leading to disengagement in class or consideration of retirement. This is not entirely negative though, as the pre-retirement years have been found to rekindle the enthusiasm for teaching.

Another performance measure for faculty is scholarship- how they have gained prestige in the academe through their published works. From those judged by peer experts to the articles, monographs, chapters or books, it is understood that in the academic culture, having higher standards and a more selective outlet would show higher quality in performance. In relation to aging, the faculty needs to have a quantity of this kind of quality over a specified timespan (for example, number of scholarly articles over 10 years). By doing so, they are able to compensate

the variations in output and the uneven delays between them (again depending on field/discipline). Another way to quantify quality is to create weighted scores, like 20 points for a book, 10 for an article and 5 for a co-authored article, and so forth. Citation indices have also been considered as with more prominent citations by peers in scholarly outlets, the more valuable one's work becomes. This could also be dependent on the availability of the research that could be cited. Meanwhile, it could also act as a representation of the works of pioneers and heroes in a field as these would be the ones which are cited most.

Another caveat would be the lack of control over citations, as even bad pieces may obtain a certain number regardless of its quality and content. Other indicators of quality that are not as prominent are the following: writing grant proposals, getting funds for research and receiving prizes for outstanding scholarly work. Despite the shortcomings of the indicators of quality, one of the virtues of assessing excellence in this role is the multiplicity of indicators used by researchers (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

The limitations of these are as follows. First, different fields would require products which do not have words (such as Art faculty). The comparison among disciplines thus becomes complicated, even between sub-specialties within a discipline. The quality expectations differ for each one and most have not been applicable to the creative products of liberal arts and community college faculty. Introducing a new course or learning new skills and bodies of knowledge could also be considered by institutions as quality performance. With regards to aging, scholarly productivity is found to decrease with age. This is attributed to the decrease in interest and motivation at older ages, as observed by academicians and administrators from their colleagues. While some others (chemists) may see a continuous increase of productivity, this said rate also experiences a decline until it levels off and reaches an advanced age. The

differences across disciplines is again shown, with the only true similarity being the behavior of each curve- a rise in the beginning until it reaches a steady output, then finally hitting a decline. Others may have a small dip and another rise before experiencing a decline. This could be attributed to the rise at the retirement age, which could also result to a leveling off instead of a decline.

A caveat in the observed patterns of the population is the non-normal distribution it follows. Instead of being bell-shaped, the profession as a whole follows a bi-modal behavior with relatively few at the mean. While there may be publishers, there are also non-publishers- those who have done little writing during the start of their careers and have a constant behavior near or at zero. This becomes a problem as the first years are used as predictors for future publication rates and career output. The increasing divergence between low and high publishers, however comes with the passage of time. It is still widely believed that an early start is important, as the earlier they start publishing, the higher their rate would be over their entire career. This could also be affected by tenure as it helps in motivating the faculty to become productive (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

The changing of nature for faculty also becomes a problem with the analysis of publication data as they change specializations over time and move on to more synthetic works that appear as monographs or books. This does not reflect the same type of publications they had before, thus making it challenging to have systematic data collections on it. It could be seen as a decline in productivity with age, while it is the opposite in reality. Another complicated variable related to productivity is the predictors of publication rate found between the place of PhD training and their original department and institution. It tends to focus more on the rating of the department rather than the production rate of the original one they are from. A change of career path away

from research and into administration also significantly reduces publication rates (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

Higher performance is reported for those who have come into communication with productive colleagues. Fields that have a well-developed paradigm and accepted canons of research still obtains high publication productivity, regardless of age. However, disciplines with less widely agreed-upon theory and research methodologies are more dependent on status and age on their publication and citation of works (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

Cross-sectional studies have created problems in data analysis as the outcomes are not mutually supportive across fields. Therefore, the age intervals have to be uniform and easier to identify. Another research on productivity and career has laid emphasis on age in which a singular creative act was most distinguished rather than the pattern of productivity over the life-course. This takes into consideration the nature of the discipline and how knowledge is gained through continuous effort, research and experiences. While talent can start the development at a young age, it is also believed that there is a time of peak power in one's career. That is why the definition of the most creative work is also argued upon.

Faculty may also be affected in productivity through their health- as the loss of work time may contribute to their inability to publish. Reduced mental acuity and physical performance are not inevitable aging consequences, they could still be mitigated with proper care of the body and exercise of skills. While the biological perspective shows the irreversible decline and lowered performance levels, it should not translate to a drop of faculty performance over the course of a career (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

Sociological explanations could show how the resource return from publication accumulates to give an ever increasing advantage to the high producer over the low producer.

Thus, research performance is also sociological and psychological in nature, making it more dependent on motivation rather than age. The working environment also shows a great relationship with publication rate, as support and challenge from colleagues are found to be key determiners. The changing social events can also affect the socialization pressure on successive cohorts entering the field. As new faculty continue to enter the institution, they place higher emphasis and expectations for published research. This, the environment around the individual greatly alters productivity patterns over the course of their career (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

Lastly, service of faculty could also be considered. This is defined as what the faculty are doing when they are neither teaching nor engaging in research. This includes all forms of governance activity (membership in committees, managerial activity), work with civic agencies, and contributions to professional societies (by serving on accreditation teams, consulting with or without pay). It has been found that the senior faculty members are the ones who spend more time on committees and that consulting is done over the first half of the career before it declines. Being part of these committees or professional societies may also reflect the trust given by peers on their decision-making capability and overall quality. By engaging in these kinds of service, they kept abreast of the developments in their field and that their industry demand would increase (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1986).

The perceived level of demand associated with different teaching tasks has been recognized as a significant stressor in many specific studies and in more general reviews of stress among teachers. First, the administration has had demands associated with duties outside the classroom, such as involvement with school-community activities. The workload in this area has been found to be slightly demanding. Next is teaching, where it is required to teach face-to-face.

Because of the different kinds of students and their specializations, this was found to be higher in being slightly demanding. Third is resources, with how the faculty members find, develop and produce teaching resources such as methodologies or equipment. This was found to be in between slightly and quite demanding. Lastly, assessment of marking examinations or any other means of student evaluations has been reported to have the highest reported workload (Smith & Bourke, 1992).

Workload as interpreted by the faculty member is of great importance in demonstrating the role of contextual factors in determining the experience of stress. It provides the mechanism through which background variables can indirectly influence satisfaction and stress. Higher assessment workloads have been related to the female population, having full-time employment status, teaching more periods and larger numbers of academically graded classes and the teacher's particular subject area. Humanities, Social Sciences, Home Science and Industrial Arts teachers are perceived to have the highest workloads (Smith & Bourke, 1992).

The task of evaluating students has shown a reduction of satisfaction with conditions of work and an increase in stress associated with time pressure and lack of rewards or recognition. The demands of assessment have been found to decrease satisfaction with workloads and conditions, triggering a concern for teacher welfare and seen as a cost to the profession, which needs to be weighed against the benefits of proposed changes (Smith & Bourke, 1992).

In recognizing the need to be guided by the best practice for assigning work to faculty members, they should establish a partnership between administrators and faculty members to determine a distribution of work that is fair, equitable and as transparent as possible. The accountability for this distribution is necessary so that resources are used responsibly and the outcomes would be immediately known. Administrators should include faculty members in the

process of development and implementation of a workload instrument, providing input at each stage and even up to pilot-testing. This way, they could express their ideas such as how many units should be given for a course to the amount of time required for student advisement.

Workloads should also be as equitable as possible. The faculty members are more likely to be satisfied if they know that others are also making substantial contributions. Thus, the distribution should be fair for faculty members over the course of the academic year. Transparency among divisions and departments should also be promoted as they would plan with one another on assignments and other resources that could be shared. Lastly, there should be an accountability plan for scholarship, advisement and service time as to strengthen the possible outcomes. The annual performance evaluation reviews the outcomes achieved by faculty members for their scholarship/advisement time relative to the compact established the previous year. This would provide a measure for what outcomes have been produced (publications, new online courses, number of students advised) and adjust for future workloads based on productivity (Cohen, Hickey, & Upchurch, 2009).

The creation of the workload policy addresses the issues raised in other workload experiences. An example would be to increase the number of units allocated for teaching larger classes, as it requires more time and effort than those for smaller classes. Work units are also generated for guest lectures from persons outside the institution as the faculty members are responsible for coordinating and making arrangements with the lecturer. They are also expected to review and/or construct tests or grade papers based on the presentation. They are typically present during these guest lectures to facilitate student and guest interaction, to support the use of educational technology and to ensure high-quality presentations. Thus, the policy adds 3 hours of work credit for each hour of instruction as recognition of the time required to prepare

instructional materials. The development of the workload policy required a piloting process that took place over 2 years. It was met with resistance as the faculty members saw it as yet another complicated instrument that they would have to be familiarized with. The pilot-testing was made to establish whether the use of the policy could accomplish the objectives in a short, matter of fact way and gather all the information needed to meet the needs of the institution (Cohen, Hickey, & Upchurch, 2009).

A workload policy would require several underlying assumptions to guide in its development. It should consider the academic calendar in which the institution operates (number of semesters and length), as this could be used for the design of assigned time for vacation or discretionary time for work and scholarship. Another factor should be the compensation- on how the faculty should receive it for 40 hours each week for 52 weeks. With one unit equivalent to one hour, each faculty member is expected to generate a specified amount of hours or “work units” per semester. They would also be given an allotted amount of time for unfunded research and other scholarly pursuits, equivalent to 20% of their work units. Faculty members are expected to (1) contribute service to the school, (2) provide reports and other information needed by the departments, (3) proctor exams for the courses in which they teach. The time for compensated activities, such as funded research or training grants that provide salary support, teaching of courses, clinical practice and consultation contracts are also included in the workload policy. Without salary support from these activities, faculty members are only expected to generate 70% of the work units for the semester (Cohen, Hickey, & Upchurch, 2009).

Modes of Instruction

Faculty satisfaction is a crucial factor of successful development and implementation of programs. It varies significantly from instructor to instructor. For example, instructors from

Drexel University considered the issue of personal satisfaction as 78% of them stated that they would consider face-to-face teaching instead of online programs as it proves to be a much more satisfying experience. Meanwhile, the University of California Extension showed that two-thirds of their participants were satisfied with teaching online, whereas one-third expressed mixed emotions. Issues that were raised up were of lack of student motivation, difficulties to adjust to asynchronous course delivery and compensation (Wasilik & Bollinger, 2009).

Technology-enhanced teaching has been hindered because of barriers to adoption, the different attitudes (participation) of instructors on hybrid courses and their own satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Thus, standards of excellence to support and guide faculty participation have been formulated. These could be categorized into three groups: (a) student-related, (b) teaching-related, and (c) institution-related (Wasilik & Bollinger, 2009).

When instructors perceive that they can contribute to positive student outcomes, they become more satisfied. This happens for those students who have had the opportunities to access these courses, as the instructors highly value that they are able to continue their formal education. The faculty members are satisfied with the opportunities for high-quality student-to-teacher interaction through online courses as the students can be richer and deeper as they are given more time to think and reflect rather than the traditional institution. However, others see a challenge with the lack of face-to-face contact and group interaction. There may also be cases of isolation which would in turn affect their levels of participation. The expectations of online availability can also be unrealistic and could irritate and discourage online instructors as they are made available on a 24 hours a day, 7 days a week basis. Visual cues are scarce, so name recognition and the development of personal relationships is also limited (Wasilik & Bollinger, 2009).

The flexibility and accessibility of the online environment make it more enjoyable for faculty members. The online delivery helps them in their opportunities for growth in both personal and professional aspects. They are able to acquire new knowledge and skills with the introduction of new technologies or instructional strategies. Online teaching also presents the faculty additional opportunities for research and interdisciplinary collaborations with colleagues. However, involvement in instructional design and development can be limited as they would just conform to standards. This would also be dependent on their attitudes (Wasilik & Bollinger, 2009).

The institutional support and value for online teaching also affects the level of faculty satisfaction. While this may usually require more time and effort for class preparation and delivery, the faculty members are dissatisfied with the increase in workload associated with online teaching and if compensation and reward systems are not adjusted accordingly. Thus, professional development support in online instruction and design has a positive impact on faculty satisfaction. As they provide adequate levels of instructional design and development support to instructors, they become more satisfied with online teaching. However, technical difficulties and inadequate technical support affect this satisfaction negatively. It is important to assist instructors and students with troubleshooting issues, as to keep satisfaction at a high level. Quality control should be exercised on the quality of courses and the student evaluations, as these tend to be lower and affect the promotion and tenure decisions. The institution should provide these online instructors assurance that proper policies for online teaching and learning are implemented. Intellectual property issues should also be the same as the traditional way of teaching- with rights for course content developed or be given appropriate compensation (Wasilik & Bollinger, 2009).

The literature discussing modes of instruction in higher education revealed themes of access, faculty satisfaction and efficacy of the online educational model. According to the research done by Santiago (2002), “When a faculty member decides to use online technology for teaching, support is sought in various ways: self-study/self-help, attending workshops, reading reports and publications, interviewing or listening to an experienced colleague, or going to the faculty development center” (p. 1382). An important task to be prepared for when shifting from the tradition classroom method of teaching to a new environment is to address the right issues. In order to do this, a faculty member must know the campus culture and campus factors that may be a hindrance to the chosen method of teaching (Santiago, 2002).

Questions such as how to proceed; what are the best practices to be followed; and what should be avoided were discussed in the research of Santiago. For the first question, answers obtained from the survey conducted included choosing a course that is suited to be taught online, having knowledge on the number of class sessions needed, selecting materials that will be posted online, setting a policy for grading beforehand, and preparing the course materials in advance. These processes and procedures are greatly beneficial for faculty members but it is advised that attending trainings would also be an essential tool for this new method of teaching. It is best that teachers familiarize themselves with technology skills needed so as not to add stress to their already demanding responsibilities in the academy.

For best practices and things to avoid, research is still the best solution for this. Checking online advises on how to smoothly go about online teaching would help faculty members in knowing what to do in order to be successful. Santiago (2002) also mentioned a list of precautions when preparing for online teaching. They include clearly specifying instructions for students, ensuring accuracy of materials, finding effective pedagogical approaches, providing

examples, and including feedback and practice exercise. Before going through online teaching, new faculty members to this type of approach should seek advice from experienced colleagues and also from technical support people to ensure quality of service and success.

Dolan (2008) compared the efficacy of online teaching to that of classroom-based instruction. Though the study illustrated the fundamental differences in how the education is delivered, it illustrated that educational success can be influenced by a multitude of variables. Variables such as the ability, interests and motivation of both the faculty and students, have little or no impact on the efficacy of the educational model between traditional and online educational programs.

This research illustrated that online programs resulted in slightly higher test scores and student satisfaction than the traditional classroom. Dolan attributed this difference to the flexibility of online programs, allowing students to engage in their courses at a time and place conducive to their specific needs. In contrast, Fabry (2009) reviewed the obstacles to effective online course design. Fabry's research reflected on the issues and challenges of converting the traditional classroom-based course to meet the needs of online education. The results of the study illustrated that when faculty design online courses using predefined educational shells, such as Blackboard, courses do not align well with the anticipated learning outcomes. However, when courses are designed from their inception as online courses, the classes significantly engage the learners and avail the students opportunity to succeed. The research suggests that online education has unique traits that traditional classes do not possess and therefore need to be designed with online pedagogy in mind.

In the research conducted by Tang (2007) a qualitative research study was conducted describing the advantages of electronic modes of education. This research compared traditional

classroom education with that of online and blended educational programs. From the faculty's perspective, the research illustrated that blended learning offered improved faculty support in the delivery of the class material. Blended learning offered faculty an improved method to offer tutoring to their students and allowed faculty the ability to easily share their educational materials.

Brief Review of the Literature Review Summary

This exploratory research contributes in the available higher education researches in showing the complexity of faculty member work-life. A lot of factors have to be considered when dealing with academy-related jobs. Minimizing the negative individual and environmental conditions within an academic institution will help in gaining loyalty and at the same time increasing satisfaction of faculty members. In line with this, addressing issues that lead to the dissatisfaction of academic employees would lead to achieving a higher level of performance not only by the faculty members, but of the institution itself.

The literature reviewed illustrates that for a majority of the studies performed, workload determination is a critical factor in workplace retention. The research conducted offered a broad understanding of the issues that surround faculty workload and how the mode of instruction either enhances or detracts from the faculty's ability to teach in the collegiate environment. The need for an improved workload management strategy is also highlighted as this would be very beneficial for faculty members in reducing the stress and dissatisfaction that they acquire in their jobs.

These factors are important and beneficial for academic institutions because it would serve as reference on how issues such as workload should be handled. This research will add to the scholarly literature in the field of faculty workload identification. It will contribute to the

knowledge base of how the construction of workload impacts not only the pedagogy of education offered but also the work experience of the faculty and their retention.

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