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Understanding Contingent Faculty: A Quantitative Study of Engagement, Satisfaction, Commitment, and Mentoring Needs

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UNDERSTANDING CONTINGENT FACULTY: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY OF
ENGAGEMENT, SATISFACTION, COMMITMENT,
AND MENTORING NEEDS

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ABSTRACT

The representation of contingent faculty in higher education is prevalent, as a result of changes in the staffing practices in academia. The American higher education system currently employs roughly 4 contingent faculty members for every one, which is tenured or on the tenure-track. As a result of an extensive study on part-time academic faculty, Gappa and Leslie (1993) developed a typology as a way to categorize them. The typology consisted of four employment profiles based primarily on academic background, employment history, and career motivations: *career-enders*, *specialists/experts/professionals*, *aspiring academics*, and *freelancers* (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). This quantitative study used survey research to test (1) whether the employment profile categories developed by Gappa and Leslie (1993) held in 2015, and (2) whether there were statistical differences in their desired mentoring functions, and in their levels of engagement, commitment, and job satisfaction. First, results of a thematic analysis of open-ended responses produced a fifth employment profile, *true teachers*. Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was used to identify differences in desired mentoring functions, and engagement based on employment profile; while one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was utilized to examine differences in commitment and job satisfaction between employment profile groups. Key findings included that the aspiring academics group was larger than all of the other groups, as it represented one-third of all respondents. The results of the data analysis suggested that while aspiring academics were significantly more committed to their organizations, they were relatively less engaged and less satisfied with their jobs, and reported a significantly higher need for career-related mentoring functions compared to the other groups.

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This work began as a simple goal; a pursuit of personal growth. The result of this research has become much more than that. I am grateful for this experience, and all I've taken from it. I want to thank everyone who helped me to write this dissertation, which was at times a seemingly impossible feat! To start, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my dissertation committee chair, mentor, and friend, Dr. Cecilia Maldonado. Thank you, Dr. M, for your encouragement, and constructive feedback. There is not a doubt in my mind that I could not have done this without you!

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DEDICATION

To Mia, Manning, and children everywhere...

“You have brains in your head. You have feet in your shoes. You can steer yourself any direction
you choose.”

-Dr. Seuss

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
Problem Statement	3
Purpose of the Study	4
Significance of the Study	4
Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks	5
Definition of Terms	9
Summary	11
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	12
The Contingent Workforce	12
Mentoring Relationships	28
Summary	48
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	50
Research Questions	50
Research Design	51
Instrumentation	55
Sampling Procedures	62
Procedures	67
Data Analysis	70
Assumptions	81
Limitations	82
Delimitations	83
Summary	84
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS	86
Overview	86
Results of Qualitative Data Analysis	87
Descriptive Statistics	88
Test for Nonresponse Bias	103
Assumptions of Normality	107
Inferential Statistics	112
Summary of Findings	117

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION.....	120
Recap of the Literature.....	120
Discussion of Results.....	121
Conclusions and Implications for Practice	126
Recommendations for Future Research	127
APPENDIX A: Research Questions (full list).....	129
APPENDIX B: Permission to use Survey Instruments <i>Mentoring Functions</i> (Noe, 1988a).....	131
APPENDIX C: Permission to use Survey Instruments <i>Utrecht Work Engagement Scale</i> (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004	133
APPENDIX D: Permission to use Survey Instruments <i>Organizational Commitment</i> (Allen & Meyer, 1991).....	135
APPENDIX E: Permission to use Survey Instruments <i>Job Satisfaction Survey</i> (Spector, 1985)	137
APPENDIX F: Contingent Faculty Mentoring and Organizational Outcomes Survey Instrument	139
APPENDIX G: Email (Initial Contact) for Contingent Faculty Mentoring and Organizational Outcomes Survey Instrument.....	148
APPENDIX H: Follow-Up Email (first attempt) for Contingent Faculty Mentoring and Organizational Outcomes Survey Instrument.....	149
APPENDIX I: Follow-Up Email (last attempt) for Contingent Faculty Mentoring and Organizational Outcomes Survey Instrument.....	150
APPENDIX J: Institutional Review Board (IRB) Exempt Notice	151
APPENDIX K: Participant Informed Consent	152
APPENDIX L: Thematic Analysis: Peer Debriefing Responses.....	154
APPENDIX M: Thick Descriptions.....	156

APPENDIX N: Pre-Tests Mentor Functions	159
APPENDIX O: Pre-Tests Work Engagement.....	160
APPENDIX P: Pre-Tests Organizational Commitment	161
APPENDIX Q: Pre-Tests Job Satisfaction	162
APPENDIX R: Histograms	163
REFERENCES	169
Curriculum Vitae	188

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. A visual representation of ideal mentor functions in academe (Sands, 1991) within career related and psychosocial categories	34
Table 2. Variables being examined in the current study, and the method/scale that will be used to measure them	59
Table 3. Comparison of Gender and Race/Ethnicity between U.S. Department of Education (2011-2012) and the Current Study	60
Table 4. Chronbach's Alphas for Dependent Variables	78
Table 5. Research Questions, Variables, and Statistical Tests for the Current Study	79
Table 6. Frequencies and Percentages of Employment Profile Groups.....	88
Table 7. Means and Standard Deviations by Employment Profile Category	90
Table 8. Frequencies and Percentages of Demographics of Respondents.....	96
Table 9. Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents by State	98
Table 10. Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents by Discipline	99
Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables for Respondents	102
Table 12. Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents Mentoring History.....	103
Table 13. Test for Nonresponse Bias: t-Test of independent and dependent variables for early and late respondents	105
Table 14. Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test Results: Engagement and Commitment Variables ...	108
Table 15. Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test Results: Job Satisfaction Variables.....	109
Table 16. Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test Results: Mentor Function Variables	111
Table 17. Correlations Between Mentoring Functions Variables.....	159
Table 18. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances for Mentor Functions Variables.....	159

Table 19. Box’s Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices for Mentor Functions Variables	159
Table 20. Correlations Between Engagement Variables	160
Table 21. Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances for Engagement Variables	160
Table 22. Box’s Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices for Engagement Variables.....	160
Table 23. Correlations Between Commitment Variables	161
Table 24. Test of Homogeneity of Variances: Commitment.....	161
Table 25. Correlations Between Job Satisfaction Variables	162

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Percentage of Contingent Instructional Staff	1
Figure 2. Individual, Environmental, and Leadership Characteristics associated with High Academic Productivity.....	35
Figure 3. Job Demands-Resources Model	43
Figure 4. A Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement.....	44
Figure 5. A Conceptual Framework for the Current Study	48
Figure 6. Research Design Flowchart for the Current Study.....	53
Figure 7. Primary Teaching Format (Percent of Total Responses)	102

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Contingent faculty, also known as adjuncts, or non-tenure track faculty, represent two-thirds of all faculty members in higher education in the United States (Kezar & Sam, 2011; Mazurek, 2011; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006) and over 76% of instructional faculty. Figure 1 represents the make-up of instructional staff between the 1976 and 2011. The term, *Contingent Instructional Staff* in Figure 1, refers to full-time or part-time non-tenure line faculty, and graduate students with primarily teaching responsibilities. The number of contingent faculty in relation to tenured and tenure-track faculty has continued to increase over time. The increasing number of contingent faculty in the United States over the last 40 years can be attributed to a paradigm shift in higher education toward a contingent workforce, comparable to the economy in general (Mazurek, 2011).

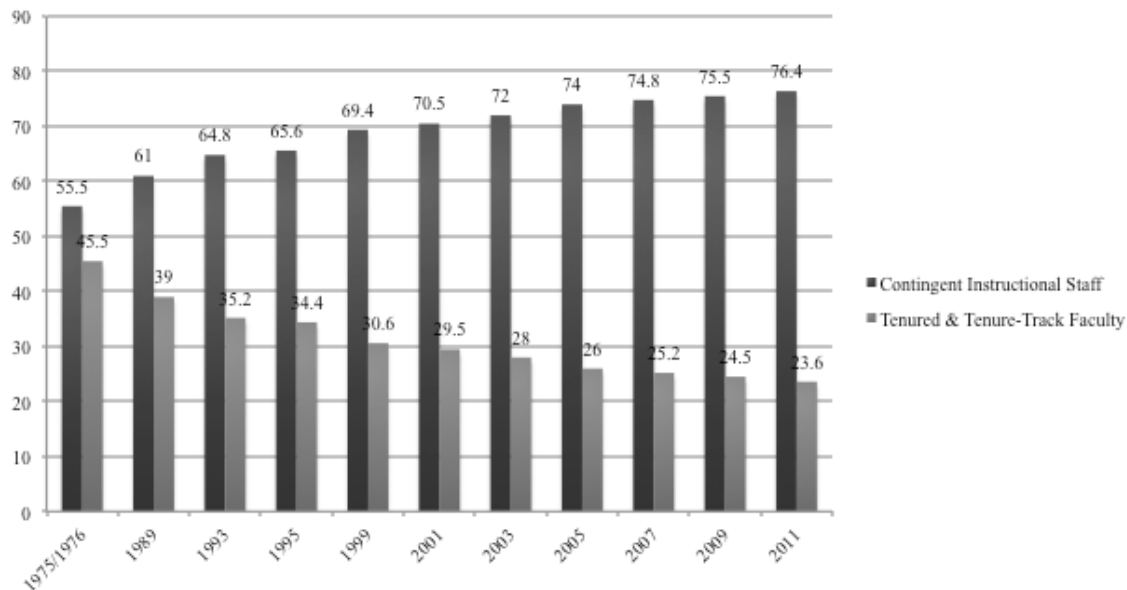


Figure 1. Percentage of Contingent Instructional Staff. Data adapted from Curtis, J. W. (2014).

The growth of the contingent workforce has been attributed to cost saving measures whereby organizations effectively save in compensation and training and development costs

(Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Jacoby, 2006; Mazurek, 2011).

Similar to temporary workers in the general workforce, contingent faculty require less investment by institutions of higher education in salaries, benefits and professional development opportunities. If this is the case, then what can be presumed in terms of the engagement of these individuals? How committed are they to their work, and the organizations in which they serve? What professional development opportunities should the institutions that hire them provide? Given their growing numbers and the need to produce college graduates that are prepared to enter the workforce, more attention should be paid to the contingent faculty population. Research on this population continues to develop; and the effects of contingent faculty's growing numbers in higher education are still relatively unknown, as are their professional development needs.

Mentoring is a widely recognized strategy used to socialize and develop academic faculty (Boice, 1992; Sorcinelli, 1994). Mentoring relationships have been associated with positive work outcomes such as engagement, satisfaction, and organizational commitment, among others (Chao, Walz & Gardner, 1992; Chao, 1997; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004; Luna & Cullen, 1995; Mathews, 2003; Poteat, Shockley & Allen, 2009; Van Emmerik, 2004; Weaver & Chelladurai, 2002). For instance, mentoring relationships have been positively correlated to outcomes including organizational commitment, job satisfaction (e.g. Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001), and work engagement in the form of social support from supervisors and coworkers (e.g. Saks, 2006). This study will explore the differences in these outcome variables based on the various reasons contingent faculty members state for doing this work.

Problem Statement

The existing literature on contingent faculty suggests that contingent instructors are less likely to utilize advanced teaching methods (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Banachowski, 1996) since often they do not receive the professional support necessary to be able to deliver quality instruction (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). Because of the limited terms within which they serve, contingent faculty typically do not develop relationships with students as advisors, and they generally do not associate with other faculty members (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). According to Curtis and Jacobe (2006),

Part-time faculty are not involved in broader curriculum planning and often have only very limited interaction with their faculty colleagues—whether fellow part-timers or full-time tenure- line faculty. This means that part-time faculty teach in isolation; they are not aware of how the courses they teach fit into the overall instructional objectives of their department or the institution as a whole. (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006, p. 9)

In a survey conducted by the Coalition on the Academic Workforce, which included participation of roughly 20,000 contingent faculty members, participants largely reported a lack of, and a need for professional development (CAW, 2012).

The increasing number of contingent faculty in higher education has been associated with several negative educational outcomes such as lower college graduation rates (Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Jacoby, 2006), lower rates of transfer out of community colleges into universities (Eagan & Jaeger, 2009), and less effective teaching methods (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011).

The gradual shift of contingent employment in academia over the last 40 years has created systematic problems in institutions of higher education, including lower quality

instruction, less frequent student interaction, inequity among academic colleagues, compromised integrity of faculty work, and academic freedom (AAUP, 2003; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2007).

Purpose of the Study

In order for college and university administrators to provide needed support to contingent faculty, and to include them in professional development activities, an in depth understanding of the nature of contingent faculty appointments, and the individuals who fill them, is needed. As a result of an extensive study on part-time academic faculty, Gappa and Leslie (1993) developed a typology as a way to categorize them. The typology consists of four employment profiles based primarily on academic background, personal and employment history, and career motivations: *career-enders, specialists/experts/professionals, aspiring academics, and freelancers* (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The purpose of this study is to determine whether there are differences in the work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile.

Significance of the Study

According to Curtis (2014) the percentage of contingent instructional staff has steadily risen from 55.4% of instructional faculty in 1975, to 76.4 in 2011. With the rise in representation of contingent faculty in higher education, some developmental support is needed to ensure that the quality of education is not compromised (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2007; Street, Maisto, Merves & Rhoades, 2012). The results of this study will have the potential to assist college and university administrators by identifying the needs of contingent faculty based on their employment profiles. The current study modernizes the existing literature, which seeks to understand the motivations of contingent faculty to choose their work situations. This information can serve as a basis for developing a pointed approach to properly socializing

contingent faculty employees, including them in developmental activities, and ultimately improving educational outcomes for students.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

This study will utilize one major theory and two conceptual frameworks to examine the variables in the current study. In order to fully explain the nature of work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and mentoring needs as they relate to the employment profiles of contingent faculty, several theories and concepts were needed.

Social exchange theory serves as the primary theoretical framework for the current study. Work engagement is an organizational outcome variable, which was analyzed in this study, therefore a background of engagement theory will also be provided. Lastly, Kram's (1983) *Phases of the Mentor Relationship* will be considered as a conceptual framework for the mentoring relationship. A brief explanation of each of these frameworks is described briefly in the paragraphs below. More detailed descriptions of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks referenced in this study may be found in Chapter 2.

Social Exchange Theory

Grounded in the study of sociology, social exchange was first defined by Blau (1964) as, "the emergent properties in interpersonal relations and social interaction. A person for whom another has done a service is expected to express his gratitude and return a service when the occasion arises" (p. 4).

Social exchange theory will serve as the primary theoretical framework for this study. Social exchange takes place when perceived support from the organization creates trust that the organization will fulfill its exchange obligations (Emerson, 1976; Eisenberger et al., 1990). The psychological contract the "individual beliefs shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an

exchange agreement” (Rousseau, 1995, p. 9). Due to the perceived weakness of the psychological contract between the contingent faculty member and the institution for which they work, one would expect to see lower levels of commitment, behavior, and performance.

Social exchange theory assumes the engagement, commitment, and satisfaction of contingent faculty will be based on their perceived benefits received from their institutions (Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001). Social exchange theory has been used in previous research to understand the relationship between contingent workers and organizational outcomes including commitment and job satisfaction (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Kezar & Sam, 2011; Umbach, 2007).

According to Saks (2006), social exchange theory provides a rationale for explaining employee engagement. According to Saks (2006), employees display job and organizational engagement in return for job characteristics, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, and procedural and distributive justice. Employee engagement, in the results of that study, in turn produced job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (Saks, 2006). Social exchange theory was operationalized by examining the differences in the work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile.

Engagement Theory

Although social exchange theory was acceptable to examine each of the outcomes of interest in the current study, engagement theory specifically addresses the effects of deficient job resources, a concept which seems to apply widely to the experiences of contingent faculty. Work engagement theory will be useful in examining contingent faculty members, particularly those

who are motivated to do the work despite the absence of benefits and support (Kezar & Sam, 2011).

Engagement theory began with Kahn's (1990) seminal study in which he described personal engagement as "the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active, full role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 700).

Kahn (1990) explored the conditions by which people personally engage and disengage at work. Kahn identified three psychological conditions, which influenced an individual's engagement in their work (meaningfulness, safety, and ability).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2003, 2004b) and Bakker and Demerouti (2008) refer to work engagement as being fulfilled in one's work, and being in a positive state of mind at work. In their definitions, work engagement is characterized by (1) vigor—characterized by one's energy toward working, and the willingness to invest effort and persistence in the face of difficulty; (2) dedication—characterized by a feeling of enthusiasm, inspiration or pride in one's work; and (3) absorption—characterized by being engrossed, so much so that one has difficulty detaching from one's work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003, 2004a, 2004b). Many studies of the professional contingent workforce suggest that professionals have a high emotional connection with their work, as they find it fulfilling and mentally stimulating in itself (Kezar & Sam, 2011). For example, Kezar and Sam (2011) suggested that work engagement theory would potentially explain why contingent faculty members tend to indicate higher levels of engagement than would be expected applying the basic principles of social exchange theory. According to Kezar and Sam (2011), while some contingent faculty may take issue with their salaries and benefits, there are others who may not. Some contingent faculty members have other

employment outside of their academic appointments, and others may be retired. Such individuals may not desire full-time or tenure-track employment in academia (Gappa & Leslie, 1993; Kezar & Sam, 2011).

Few studies have specifically identified work engagement as a consequence of mentoring. Job resources have repeatedly been identified as significant predictors of work engagement (Simpson, 2009; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004a), and mentoring can be considered a job resource. The literature generally suggests that employees with higher quality work experiences tend to be more engaged (Simpson, 2009).

Mentoring Framework

Kram's (1983) *Phases of Mentoring Relationship* conceptual framework will be used to examine the mentoring needs of contingent faculty. Kram's (1983) model suggests that both the mentor and the mentee experience career related and psychosocial benefits from their developmental relationship. This claim has been supported in many subsequent studies (e.g. Chao, 1992; Chao et al., 1997; Noe, 1988a; Noe, 1988b). Few studies have focused on benefits of serving as a mentor, however Allen, Lentz, and Day (2006) found that mentoring others was positively related to career outcomes leading to productivity. The mentoring functions in Kram's model include career related functions, which consisted of providing sponsorship, exposure, visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments; and psychosocial functions which included serving as a role model, acceptance, confirmation, counseling and friendship to influence the mentee's self image and competence (Kram, 1983). Noe (1988a) provided additional support for the mentor functions identified by Kram (1983). Noe (1988a) developed a scale to measure career and psychosocial mentor functions based on Kram's earlier work (e.g. Kram, 1983, 1985).

Sands, Parson & Duane (1991) conducted a study of tenured and non-tenure track faculty, which revealed that ideal faculty mentors served in one of four roles: *career guide, information source, friend, and intellectual guide*. Table 1 on page 34 of this document illustrates Sands et al. (1991) further affirmation of Kram's (1983) model, and successfully applied it to academic faculty by identifying the "roles" of a desirable faculty mentor.

Definition of Terms

Aspiring Academic

Aspiring academics have taken contingent appointments as there are no viable opportunities on the tenure-track. They would prefer a tenure-track appointment. Aspiring academics Ph.D.'s or ABD doctoral candidates desiring tenure-track appointment (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). They state,

Many of these long-term part-timers, while still maintaining a wish that they could be part of the regular faculty have found ways to build their academic careers with their part-time status. In the most satisfactory arrangements, they have successfully put together several part-time assignments within their institutions, and/or have taken leadership positions in faculty governance. (p. 55)

Career-ENDER

Career-enders are retirees from various careers and disciplines, who are looking to contribute as an educator; or who are simply interested in maintaining a structured routine post retirement (Gappa & Leslie, 1993).

Contingent Faculty

Full or part-time faculty, including graduate student teachers, who are not tenured or on the tenure-track (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). While some "research-only faculty" members can be

considered contingent faculty, this study will include instructional faculty working on a term, full or part-time, temporary appointment.

Employment Profile

Four employment profiles were developed to identify the different categories of contingent faculty members (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The four employment profiles are *Aspiring Academics*, *Career-Enders*, *Freelancers*, and *Specialists*. The employment profiles (categories) are based primarily of personal and professional background and motivations for doing the job.

Freelancer

Freelancers are contingent faculty for which part-time employment makes sense in the context of their lives. Freelancers might include homemakers, stay-at-home/work-at-home moms, primary caregivers, and artists. These individuals may do a variety of part-time jobs that are generally, but not necessarily interrelated. In some cases, freelancers occupy part-time teaching positions for reasons beyond their control (Gappa & Leslie, 1993).

Mentor

Rooted in adult development theory, Levinson, et al. (1978) define a mentor as a “teacher, adviser, or sponsor who provides career related and psychosocial support as an adult develops through various stages of life and career” (p. 99).

Protégé

The recipient of the mentor’s career related and psychosocial support (Kram, 1983).

Specialist

Also known as “*Expert*” or “*Professional*” is a contingent faculty member who has other full-time employment as professionals or managers. Specialists typically enjoy relatively

high salaries, and have little desire to obtain full-time, regular employment in academia (Gappa & Leslie, 1993).

Student teacher

A student teacher is a current graduate student who is teaching a graduate or undergraduate course under the supervision of a permanent faculty member, either as a component of his or her graduate experience or as a paid graduate assistant. In either instance, the student teacher's appointment is done in connection with his or her status as a student at the institution for which he or she teaches.

Summary

This chapter provided a background of the prevalence of contingent employment in academia. Over the last 40 years, the representation of contingent faculty has steadily risen to over 65% of all faculty, and roughly 75% of instructional faculty in institutions of higher education. While the hiring of contingent faculty began as a “stop gap” measure in challenging economic times, the trend continues. Very little attention has been given to this segment of the academic workforce, and the educational outcomes and students that suffer as a result. A brief introduction to the theoretical and conceptual frameworks being used to frame the study were presented, along with a list of definitions of terms specific to this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study is to determine whether there are differences in the work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile.

The Contingent Workforce

Background

Traditionally, organizations had been able to garner the loyalty, commitment, and productivity of its talent in exchange for a proverbial career ladder complete with long-term development and financial security (Arthur & Rosseau, 1996). Over the past 40 years, however the nature of work arrangements has changed, to providing the employers with flexibility in hiring, in the face of cost saving initiatives (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2007). The practice of hiring a contingent workforce is a global trend, and has impacted several industries and occupations.

A study conducted in England, explored the experiences of professional contingent workers to understand their motivations and workplace needs, and to identify areas in which human resource managers should focus on training and development. The study examined 25 ex-managers from the British National Health Service who had left their full-time regular roles to serve in contingent roles for the same organization (Mallon & Duberley, 2000). The participants felt a dissonance between the interests of the organization and their own. There was a struggle between the flexibility they found in their contingent work arrangements, and their commitment to the organizations that employed them.

In a study of part-time faculty members in Canada, Rajagopal and Farr (1992) discussed the practice of hiring contingent faculty members, a trend which had begun in the 1980s. The

part-time faculty hiring strategy began as institutions' response to heavier workloads, and lower budgets. Hiring part-time or contingent faculty members was a temporary measure that worked, and eventually became a long-term hiring practice, with seemingly little change in policy or consideration given to the impact this practice would have on individual disciplines or institutions as a whole (Rajagopal & Farr, 1992).

Most of the research on the contingent workforce based in the United States focuses on the unskilled labor force, however there has been some discussion devoted to the nature of contingent work arrangements for highly skilled and highly qualified workers (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). The vast majority of research on the academic contingent workforce focuses on the deficient educational outcomes associated with their increasing representation in institutions of higher education. Such research has utilized secondary data sets from the NCES reports for the Department of Education (e.g. Jacoby, 2006; Eagan & Jaegar, 2009; Umbach, 2007). Only a few studies conducted in the United States have attempted to gain an understanding of the individual experiences associated with the contingent work arrangement (e.g. Allison, Lynn, & Hoverman, 2014; Briscoe, Wardell, & Sawyer, 2011; Gappa & Leslie, 1993; Kunda & Barley, 2002; MacDougal & Hurst, 2005). Perhaps one of the first in depth studies of the contingent workforce population was Gappa and Leslie's (1993) *The Invisible Faculty*. Gappa & Leslie (1993) focused on the experiences of part-time faculty across 18 geographically dispersed universities in the United States. A major finding that emerged from that study was a typology of "employment profiles" for part-time faculty. The employment profiles were weightily based on the motivations of the faculty members to serve in contingent faculty roles. The employment profile categories that surfaced in that study included (1) *aspiring academics*—these were recent Ph.D. graduates who were in search of a tenure-track position, and

have taken on contingent appointments in the meantime; (2) *career-enders*—these were retired educators, or other retired professionals who were working as contingent faculty because they wanted to be able to interact and teach students on a part-time basis; (3) *freelancers*—these individuals work as contingent faculty members because this type of employment works within the context of their lives (for example stay-at-home parents, primary caregivers); and (4) *specialists*—these were individuals who are called upon to teach in their various areas of expertise. Specialists largely had other full-time employment, and did not desire tenure-track appointments (Gappa & Leslie, 1993).

Exploring the Definition of Contingent Work

“Contingent work is any job in which an individual does not have an explicit or implicit contract for long-term employment” (Polivka and Nardone, 1989, p. 11). In the most recent survey conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which reported the state of contingent and alternative employment arrangements was conducted in 2005. There were 5.7 million contingent workers nationally at the time. Of those workers, 55% stated that they would have preferred permanent employment (Contingent and Alternative Employment Arrangements, 2005).

According to Redpath, Hurst, and Devine (2008), contingent employment is a workforce category that exists in varied industries, which includes part-time, temporary, seasonal, contract, agency, and self-employed workers. Feldman (2006) defines contingent work as employment that is not permanently associated with any one employer, less than 35 hours work in a week with one employer, and limited in duration.

The research on the contingent workforce population typically focuses on one of four types of contingent work agreements (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Those include (1) temporary

staffing agency agreements. (2) independent contracts, (3) seasonal work agreements, and (4) direct hire agreements (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004).

In the first contingent work type, the temporary staffing agreement, there are three parties involved, the staffing agency, the worker, and the client. These work assignments are temporary, and will last for a specified time period (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). The second type of contingent work is one in which the contingent worker has an independent contractor status. Independent contractors, also known as freelancers are often self-employed. The use of independent contractors has become a popular practice in information technology (IT) and other knowledge-based occupations. In a study of contingent knowledge workers in the United Kingdom, Redpath et al. (2008) discuss the difference between the contingent knowledge workers' feelings about loyalty and commitment, and the perceptions of their managers. These individuals include skilled professional and technical contingent knowledge workers. Previously, contingent arrangements had been widely associated with lesser-skilled workers, e.g. manual laborers, clerical staff, janitorial staff (Redpath et al., 2008). While 62% of knowledge workers stated that their loyalty and commitment were unaffected by their contingent status, 78% of managers assumed otherwise. The managers in that study also reported that contingent workers seemed to be motivated and productive throughout most of their term, but it seemed that their productivity declined toward the end of their terms, as employees began to worry about securing the next contract (Redpath et al., 2008).

The third type of contingent work agreement, direct hire arrangements can be described as “the frequent use of workers for short-term assignments and where the organization hires temporary workers directly” and where the worker “may have an implicit or explicit understanding of an ongoing relationship with the same employer” (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004,

p. 961). Some research specifically examining temporary direct-hire and contract workers suggests that socio-emotional support from other members of the organization positively impacts the organizational commitment of contingent workers (Levesque & Rousseau, 1999). To the contrary, in a study of employees in a small technical company, Hughes and Palmer (2007) found that the permanent or temporary status of employees, had very little influence on their perceptions of whether the company was adhering to the psychological contract, or their commitment to the organization. As a matter of fact, the authors found that these constructs were attributable to how the employees were managed (Hughes & Palmer, 2007).

The fourth type of contingent work presented in Connelly and Gallagher (2004) was seasonal employment. Seasonal employment may include jobs that require a need for increased staffing during peak business such as tourism, resorts, and others. (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004).

There has been a shift to a contingent workforce—in the United States and abroad. The majority of the studies of the contingent workforce in the area of human resource management are focused on the unskilled labor force (David & Houseman, 2005). However there has been some discussion around skilled knowledge workers within the body of research (e.g. Redpath et al., 2008). Many of the studies conducted in the past 40 years since this flexible employment practice began its upward trend, was focused on the low-paid, unskilled workforce (i.e. DeGilder, 2003; McLean Parks, Kidder, & Gallagher, 1998; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998) while in fact, the contingent workforce also comprises highly skilled credentialed professionals (Mallon & Duberly, 2000).

According to Mallon & Duberley (2000), contingent workforce is not a homogeneous group, and therefore this population should not be “studied under one heading” (p. 34). In their discussion on the apparent shift in employment practices, Mallon and Duberley (2000), pose the

following question: “If individuals are developing a new set of career expectations, in effect acting as career free-agents (Heckscher, 1995), is the HR function equipped to cope?” (p. 3).

Contingent Faculty, Who are they?

Based on the four contingent work scenarios defined by Connelly and Gallagher (2004), it would appear that most contingent faculty members in higher education fit the description of the third category, direct hire employees. Contingent faculty, include part-time faculty, full-time term non-tenure-track faculty, and graduate employees (Curtis, 2014; Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). Contingent faculty typically serve in short-term assignments, and depending on their relationship with the institution, they may or may not be able to predict future employment (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The hiring of contingent faculty, also commonly called “adjunct” faculty, in higher education has been on an upward trend since the 1970s (Mazurek, 2011; Rajagopal & Farr, 1992). Full and part-time contingent faculty, also known as non-tenured or non-tenure track faculty, account for nearly 66% of all faculty in institutions across the United States (Kezar & Sam, 2011; Mazurek, 2011). Contingent faculty appointments have steadily risen between 1975 to 2011 in the United States (Curtis, 2014). The presence of contingent faculty in degree-granting institutions increased roughly ten percent from 1989 to 2003. During this time period, the presence of tenured faculty declined at almost the same rate (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

Contingent faculty members accounted for 76.4% of all instructional faculty in U.S. degree granting institutions in 2011 according to the U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics Fall Staff Survey. Contingent faculty members may work for the same organization with no real prospect to move into a tenure-track position (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). Graduate student employees, who are included in that finding, account for 19% of all instructional faculty (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). The largest contingent faculty group and largest

faculty group in general), is part-time faculty, who account for 36% of all faculty (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

Attitudes toward Contingent Faculty. According to Mazurek (2011) the increasing number of contingent faculty in the United States can be attributed to a paradigm shift in higher education toward a contingent workforce, comparable to the economy in general. Some attribute the motives of colleges and universities across the United States to a lower value being placed on teaching, and a desire to save money (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Jacoby, 2006; Mazurek, 2011).

Several studies on contingent faculty have suggested that the number of contingent faculty has risen in proportion to tenured and tenure-track faculty, has resulted in several negative outcomes including lower college graduation rates (Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Jacoby, 2006), lower rates of transfers out of community colleges into universities (Eagan & Jaeger, 2009), lower graduation rates (Jacoby, 2006), and less effective teaching methods (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011). According to Curtis & Jacobe (2006), the negative impact on students can be attributed to a lack of professional support to provide students with quality instruction, and their limited ability to develop relationships with students outside of the classroom.

Many tenure-track and tenured faculty believe that contingent faculty members are not equivalent in terms of their role and status within the higher education system. “They equate the tenure process as pivotal to understanding the faculty identity and responsibilities, particularly around the identity of the researcher. This conception of academia is becoming increasingly problematic” (Kezar, Lester & Anderson, 2006, p. 130). Such attitudes toward contingent faculty are based on a series of internal assumptions, which refer to preconceived notions about contingent faculty, and external assumptions, which refer to a lack of commitment to the

organization, engagement, satisfaction with their careers and working conditions, and morale and integration into the working environment (Kezar & Sam, 2011). As a result of these assumptions, preconceived notions, and other negative stereotypes associated with non-tenure-track faculty, this growing workforce population continues to be overlooked for professional development opportunities in teaching, and for contributing to the university or college in other capacities such as service or research (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

Exploring the Employment Experiences of Contingent Faculty. Each institution manages contingent faculty differently. Deans and vice presidents typically have authority over part-time faculty staff, however most of the time this responsibility is delegated to the department level. In practice, department chairs are typically responsible for managing the employment policies and practices of part-time faculty. Implied with this responsibility is the selection and scheduling of part-time faculty (Gappa & Leslie, 1993).

Contingent faculty members are rarely provided with the support they need to provide quality instruction. It is common for contingent faculty to be hired to teach an individual course within a specified academic term. Contingent faculty are rarely able to predict their schedules for the next academic term (Street, et al., 2012). They may not even be hired on a continuing basis, regardless of their performance. It is also uncommon for contingent faculty to be in a position of control in the selection of their textbooks, the development of their syllabi, or to have involvement in broader curriculum planning (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

Contingent faculty members typically have teaching responsibilities, although the practice of appointing research-only contingent faculty is on the rise (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). There has been a substantial increase in the use of contingent faculty in two major categories. First, part-time appointments, which are typically limited to a single course for a limited term,

and full-time teaching positions which provide a more stable work arrangement than part-time, but typically will not lead to future tenure-track appointments (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

A major misconception by contingent faculty members is that they will be able to work into a tenure-track position over time. This path is unlikely, and as a matter of fact, most part-time faculty are at a significant disadvantage when seeking a full-time tenure-track position according to West and Curtis (2006). Contingent faculty are “forced into these positions by the structure of academic employment” (West & Curtis, 2006, p. 4).

Contingent faculty members are typically appointed on a temporary basis, if even for an extended period, their future place within the institution is uncertain. The increasing use of contingent faculty not only impacts students, but also the future of the institutions and the higher education system (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). As the contingent faculty population has increased, long-term faculty representation has decreased which has meant less oversight of the “development and coherence of the curriculum” (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006, p. 15). Contingent faculty members also are typically not provided with support for research and scholarship (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

Career Aspirations, Stages and Motivations of Contingent Faculty.

In a survey of adjunct and part-time instructor members of The American Historical Association and Organization of American History (n=276), Townsend and Hauss (2002) found that 68% of faculty respondents had never been employed full-time. The respondents offered differing reasons for this, but overwhelmingly, the largest reason given was “cannot find a full-time position” with 67% of the responses. Only 17% of the respondents in that survey stated that they preferred their part-time employment situations. Of those respondents who self-identified as Ph.D. students, 100% of them stated that they would like to go to work full-time for a four-year

college or university (Townsend & Hauss, 2002). The authors indicated that the longer an adjunct faculty member remained in the job market, the less likely they were to have the goal of attaining full-time status (Townsend & Hauss, 2002). These findings call into question the manner in which scholars view this workforce population. While past studies, and current human resource development practices seem to assume that a significant portion of contingent faculty are content with their work situations (e.g., Feldman & Turnley, 2001; Kezar & Sam, 2011; Kunda, et al., 2002; Umbach, 2007; Valadez & Antony, 2001), a telling report from the Coalition on the Academic Workforce's 2012 survey of over 20,000 contingent faculty in higher education revealed that over 75% of respondents stated that they have sought, are now seeking, or will be seeking full-time tenure-track positions (CAW, 2012).

According to Rajagopal and Farr (1992) there is a distinction between part-time only faculty, *Contemporaries*, and full-time non-academics teaching part-time, *Classics*. The practice of non-academic professionals--classics teaching a class or two, had been taking place for as long as the universities had been in operation. Colleges and universities would call on field experts to teach specialized material. Classics had a brief and limited engagements with the institutions for which they taught, as they were occupied primarily with their non-academic work (Rajagopal & Farr, 1992).

Contemporaries, on the other hand, were those individuals who were hired as part-time only faculty. In response to increasing enrollments, heavier workloads, and decreasing budgets, institutions of higher education began to hire part-time temporary instructors with little or no intention of providing stable work arrangements. This was a temporary practice that worked, and became a long-term hiring practice with seemingly few differentiating policy or considerations

given to the impact this change would have on individual disciplines or institutions as a whole (Rajagopal & Farr, 1992).

Feldman & Turnley (2001) examined the role that career stage played in determining how contingent faculty view their work situations. The term *career stage* was defined as the “commonalities of job experiences of workers at the same point in their careers” (cited in Feldman & Turnley, 2001, p. 3). In that study, career stage was operationalized by the contingent faculty member’s age. Feldman and Turnley suggested that younger workers, under 30 years old, typically had high expectations of their jobs and organizations, and thereby reacted strongly to disappointments stemming from their jobs or organizations. After this initial stage was over, individuals in their 30s and 40s enter the next stage, in which they settle in to their routine, and accept the once bothersome aspects of their jobs and organizations. The last stage involves the individuals in their 50s, transitioning their focus to retiring from the workforce, and psychologically removing themselves from their work, and focusing more on their personal lives (cited in Feldman & Turnley, 2001, p. 3).

Some contingent faculty members may be content with their work conditions, however there will likely be individual differences depending upon their career stage according to Feldman and Turnley (2001). Faculty in the late-career stage had more positive job attitudes and behaviors, specifically with regard to job satisfaction and professional commitment, than faculty in early and mid-career stages (Feldman & Turnley, 2001). The authors noted that there were limitations to the defining the construct of *career stage* by age, as “the onset and termination of specific career stages cannot be precisely linked to individuals’ birthdays” (Feldman & Turnley, 2001, p. 13).

While other studies have also defined career stage in terms of chronological age (e.g. Super & Sverko, 1995), Dalton, Thompson and Price (1977) identify career stage in relation to the individual's place within the organization: developing an identity, building competence, developmental relationships, and the capacity to lead. Graham (1970) identified career stages with levels of identification of the self and ego with the job environment (cited in McNeese-Smith & Crook, 2003). The application of an age-based idea of career stage can be problematic, as it assumes that a *normal* career path is followed. In reality, "many careers are not pursued fully or successfully" (Bedeian, Pizzolatto, Long, & Griffeth, 1991, p. 163).

Tuckman (1978) Identified seven groups of part-time faculty: *Hopeful full-timers*, those who wanted a full-time faculty position, but could not find one; *Part-mooners*, those who held another part-time position in addition to their part-time academic part-time position; *Homeworkers*, who worked in part-time academic positions because they cared for children or other relatives; *Full-mooners*, held a primary full-time job outside of their part-time academic position; *Part-unknowners*, were either unknown, or subjective. *Semiretired* were former full-time academics who were presently teaching fewer hours, and were less concerned about future job opportunities. *Graduate students* were the last group. In another study of contingent faculty, Kuchera and Miller (1988) distinguish two categories of contingent faculty: professionals who already have, or expect to find employment outside of academe, and those adjunct faculty who wish to, but have not yet been successful in finding academic jobs.

In a study of contingent faculty across 18 institutions of higher education, Gappa and Leslie (1993) described the ways in which part-time contingent faculty could be integrated into college campus cultures, and better supported in terms of employment contracts, teaching skills development, and career support. The authors identified four types of non-tenured or non-tenure-

track faculty: *career-enders*—those faculty who had retired from their primary positions, and chose to teach as a way to give back, or maintain a structured schedule postretirement; *specialists/experts/professionals*—those individuals who are considered experts in their fields, and who have other full-time employment, typically outside of academia; *aspiring academics*—those individuals who are qualified for, and who would have preferred a full-time tenure-track position; and *freelancers*—these individuals serve as part-time instructors because this type of work makes sense in the context of their lives. These individuals may be primary caregivers or stay-at-home parents (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). In a Coalition on the Academic Workforce report including over 20,000 responses from contingent faculty members, over 80% of part-time faculty reported teaching part-time for more than three years, and over half had been teaching for more than six years (CAW, 2012). Additionally, over 75% of those part-time faculty stated that they have sought, are now seeking, or will be seeking full-time tenure-track positions (CAW, 2012). These statistics seem to imply that there is a significantly large group of contingent faculty members who desire mentoring and development toward a long-term career in academia.

By and large, given the career development trends present in today's workforce, particularly within the contingent academic workforce, career stages are no longer necessarily aligned with chronological age. Instead career stage is quite individualized, which implies that mentoring programs should be tailored. To this end, it may be useful to investigate career aspirations and motivations of contingent faculty to do this type of work, rather than limiting what we can learn to the individual's career stage. The more we can learn about career aspirations, and motivations of contingent faculty, the more successful we will be in predicting their mentoring needs.

Contingent Work and Social Exchange Theory. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and Professionalization Theory (Rhoades, 1998; Leatherman, 1998) have each been applied in an effort to better understand contingent faculty and the nature of their employment. Rhodes (1998) first applied social exchange theory to the study of contingent workers in the U.S., and many others (Gouldner, 1960; Rousseau, 1997; Sherer, 1996) followed this line of research suggesting that contingent workers would be less committed than regular employees because they typically receive less support and compensation.

Social exchange takes place when perceived support from the organization creates trust that the organization will fulfill its exchange obligations (Eisenberger et al., 1990). According to Rousseau (1995) the psychological contract is composed of “individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization” (Rousseau, 1995, p. 9). Due to the perceived weakness of the psychological contract between the contingent faculty member and the institution for which they work, lower levels of commitment, behavior, and performance would be expected.

In a study of contingent workers in a large manufacturing company, Liden et al. (2003) found positive relationships between the perception of procedural justice and perceived organizational support and affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors using a model based on social exchange theory. The results of that study suggested that treating contingent employees fairly, and providing needed support would result in greater commitment to the organization (Liden et al., 2003).

Thus, it behooves the organization to show respect and concern for contingent employees. Treating contingent employees as second-class citizens may result in lowered levels of commitment and willingness to help co-workers and

supervisors. Even though it is relatively easy to dismiss contingent employees who do not perform up to expectation, it may be even more cost effective to bolster commitment and performance through fair treatment and support as opposed to frequently replacing contingent employees.” (Liden et al., 2003, p. 621)

A study of professional service workers in Singapore (Van Dyne & Ang, 1998) suggested that the social exchange framework may not fit all employment situations. Van Dyne and Ang (1998) found a strong relationship between organizational commitment and citizenship behavior for contingent workers; perhaps stronger than their regular employee counterparts, which suggested that an effort to build commitment can result in more positive organizational performance. Much of the research examining contingent workers using social exchange theory focuses on unskilled workers, or laborers.

Compared with unskilled contingent workers, professional contingent workers may enjoy the flexibility that contingent work offers. Professional workers may also be strongly committed to their professions, and may not view their contingent status as inferior to their regular-employee counterparts (Kezar & Sam, 2011). Umbach (2007) applied social exchange theory to examine the impact of contingent faculty on undergraduate education. Umbach’s study utilized a secondary dataset, *Faculty Survey of Student Engagement* administered by the Indiana University Center for Postsecondary Research at 132 colleges and universities in the spring of 2004. The results of the study suggested that part-time faculty structured and prepared for their courses differently than full-time faculty and, used active and collaborative instructional techniques less often. The practices of full-time contingent faculty, however looked much more like their tenured or tenure-track colleagues. Umbach (2007) also noted a significant difference of the

frequency of interaction with students between contingent and tenure-track faculty. Umbach (2007) found that temporary part-time teaching arrangements did not typically allow for much involvement between the faculty member and the institution for which they taught, therefore there was little to be expected in terms of social exchange.

Kezar and Sam (2011) discuss the application of social exchange theory to contingent faculty. Kezar and Sam (2011) suggested that such models should be applied to laborers, and not professional workers, as such models may not account for the contingent faculty member's identity and commitment to his discipline. Rhoades (1998) offered a modified professionalization model, noting the distinct differences in training, attachment to discipline, and socialization between contingent faculty and general references to contingent workers. While most literature on contingent faculty focuses on the inequities in compensation and opportunities for advancement (Antony & Valadez, 2002; Curtis & Jacobe, 2006), there is some evidence that many contingent faculty do not necessarily desire these benefits, and instead, that they may be content with their work arrangements (Kezar & Sam, 2011; Leatherman, 1998).

Today's workforce is very different from the workforce of 40 years ago. There are some commonly utilized constructs that are used to examine contingent faculty. This study, will review literature on career stage, career aspirations, and motivations of contingent faculty to examine (a) what their mentoring needs are, and (b) their levels of work engagement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. In designing faculty mentoring programs, Mathews (2003) distinctly highlights the importance of considering "the characteristics of the academic, the component(s) being developed, and the various parts of the institution that have a role to play in staff development" (p. 326). Specifically, Mathews notes that mentoring programs should be designed to acknowledge the individual faculty member's career stage, and the areas

most relevant to him or her at the time (Mathews, 2003). Since career stage is not easily identifiable given the nontraditional nature of contingent faculty work, it will be necessary to examine further which factors effectively identify the career stages of contingent faculty members, based on their motivation to do this type of work, and their career aspirations.

Mentoring Relationships

The term “mentor” can be traced back to Greek mythology, in Homer’s *The Odyssey* (Phillips-Jones, 1982). In the story, Odysseus went away, and left his son, Telemachus in the care of his servant, Mentor. Mentor looked after Telemachus, and served as his friend, teacher, and trusted advisor. Since then, many understandings of the term “mentor” have surfaced. Levinson et al. (1978) reinforced the meaning of mentor as a “teacher, adviser, or sponsor” (p. 99) within the scope of development of an adult man. Levinson et al. (1978), suggested that men typically have male mentors, and that the number of women with access to mentors is quite limited. The early studies on mentoring relationships in the 1980’s were built on Levinson’s definition, and further describe the functions of mentors and the career related and psychosocial support mentors can provide to their protégés (Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988a; Phillips-Jones, 1982).

Kram (1983) first developed a mentoring framework based on the adult development theories of Erikson (1963) and Levinson et al. (1978). Kram (1983) delineates the four predictable phases of the mentor relationship (initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition) as:

... an *initiation* phase, during which time the relationship is started; a *cultivation* phase, during which time the range of functions provided expands to maximum; a *separation* phase, during which time the established nature of the relationship is substantially altered by structural changes in the organizational context and/or by psychological changes

within one or both individuals; and a *redefinition* phase, during which time the relationship evolves a new form that is significantly different from the past, or the relationship ends entirely (p. 614).

The *Phases of Mentoring Relationship* framework (Kram, 1983) was derived from a qualitative study using in-depth interviews of junior and senior-level managers in a corporate setting. This particular model has been applied to various environments, industries, and occupations; including studies of corporate mentoring, youth mentoring, and academic mentoring. Most academic mentoring literature focuses on the mentoring relationships of faculty and graduate students (e.g. Austin, 2002; Boyle & Boice, 1998; Lechuga, 2011), and very few studies center on faculty-to-faculty mentoring (e.g. Sands et al., 1991). Research suggests that the career stage of individuals influences their development and mentoring needs (Kram, 1983; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Levinson et al., 1978). Mentoring literature typically focuses on mentor functions, outcomes, and format—formal and informal relationships.

Kram's (1983) framework suggests that both the mentor and the mentee experience career related and psychosocial benefits from their developmental relationships. This assertion was supported by research such as a study conducted by Allen, Lentz, and Day (2006) in which the authors found that mentoring others was positively related to promotions, salary, job satisfaction, and subjective career success. Kram's framework was empirically tested by Chao (1997). Chao's (1997) study examined the relationship between mentorship phases, as defined by Kram (1983), the functions of mentoring (Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988a; Schockett & Haring-Hidore, 1985), and the outcomes of mentoring (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Scandura, 1992). Although there were no significant differences in mentoring functions and outcomes between the phases of mentoring found, there were differences between mentored and non-mentored

participants (Chao, 1997). While the results of Chao's (1997) study and others have suggested that informal mentoring relationships are preferable to formal relationships, there is still no clear consensus on that argument.

Sands, et al. (1991) provided an understanding of faculty mentoring needs, while accounting for individual differences, including race, ethnicity, marital status, age, sex, tenure status, discipline, department, and terminal degree; the authors did not include contingent faculty in their analysis. Sands et al. (1991) found that mentorships within the organization benefitted the institution as a whole.

Work environments that promote faculty development provide sources of support, such as mentors, who can promote the growth of novices. Where mentoring exists, the ecology or climate of the organization as a whole and within constituent units would be such that giving and receiving guidance are embedded in the values and norms of the organization (Sands, et al., 1991, p. 180).

Socialization to the institution is critical to the faculty member's successful transition (Boice, 1992; Cawyer, Simonds, & Davis, 2002). Organizational socialization has been defined as "the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211). Mentoring is a tool for organizational socialization, and is also beneficial to build collegiality, establish basic teaching skills, and encouraging scholarly productivity (Boice, 1992; Sorcinelli, 1994).

Some institutions have formalized their mentoring efforts by matching new and junior tenure-track faculty with senior faculty mentors. Others have placed responsibility for mentoring with individuals and departments, while simply providing resources and guidelines. Mentoring programs in institutions of higher education largely seek to orient faculty to organizational

culture, provide assistance with publishing, teaching, and grant management (e.g. Harvard University Faculty Mentoring Resources, 2015; Purdue University Teaching Academy, 2015; UNLV Faculty Mentoring Program, 2015). Raymond and Kannan (2014) found that formal mentoring programs had a positive effect on protégé outcomes including adjustment to organizational culture, self-esteem, self-confidence, teaching and research performance and personal well-being. Gappa, Austin and Trice (2007) recommend that all faculty, including contingent faculty, have professional development opportunities designed to meet their specific needs. The literature on contingent faculty identifies a lack of orientation and development for this workforce population. Mazurek (2011) argues that the American higher education system has failed to live up to its professed values, and refers to academic faculty as “paraprofessional academics who are part of the new academic working-class” (p. 151) based primarily on the increased number of contingent faculty, and the lack of support provided to them.

Mentor Functions

According to Levinson, et al. (1978), a mentor has various functions within his role as teacher, sponsor and advisor. As a teacher, a mentor can provide skills and intellectual development. As a sponsor he may use his knowledge and influence to aid in the protégé’s advancement. As an adviser, the mentor can assist the protégé as he navigates the intricacies of the adult social, and professional worlds. The mentor may also serve as a role model, and provide emotional and other support in difficult times (Levinson et al., 1978).

Phillips-Jones (1982) identified the following ways in which a mentor can provide support to a protégé: (a) emotional support during difficult or transitional times, (b) knowledge and expertise in teaching and research, (c) by providing ease as the protégé adapts to the political environment within the university and department, (d) serving as an advocate on the protégé’s

behalf, (e) collaboration on research projects (f) increased confidence, as the trust in the relationship is developed, and (g) serving as a role model to the protégé. According to Phillips-Jones (1982), protégés should choose a mentor based on the functions they need for the mentor to provide.

According to Kram (1983), the mentoring relationship has the capacity to provide psychosocial development and career development for both the mentor and protégé. Psychosocial functions include role modeling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counseling, and friendship; and the career functions include sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments (Kram, 1983). Mentoring can afford a variety of career and psychosocial support that can enable the mentee to meet the challenges of a new work environment (Kram, 1983).

In his study of formal mentoring relationships, Noe (1988a) developed a scale to measure mentoring functions based on a synthesis of existing research. This scale confirmed the validity of the psychosocial and career related functions introduced by Kram (1983). Scandura (1992) further established the existence of psychosocial and career related mentoring functions within mentoring relationships, and positive job satisfaction of protégés, including performance ratings, salary level, and promotions. Chao et al. (1992) found a significant relationship between both career related and psychosocial mentoring functions and job satisfaction, socialization, and salary. The strongest correlations were found between the career related function and intrinsic job satisfaction, socialization into the organization.

Sands et al. (1991) advanced Kram's 1983 framework and applied it to the academic workplace, by expanding on the psychosocial and career related functions. A visual representation of the relationship between Kram's (1983) explanation of career and psychosocial

functions of mentoring and Sands et al. (1991) four ideal mentor functions, specific to faculty mentors is presented in Table 1.

Sands et al. (1991) found that faculty had different experiences with mentoring, and had different ideas of what an *ideal mentor* was. Their study was the first of its kind to offer a quantitative explanation of ideal mentor functions in higher education. A factor analysis resulted in the following categories of mentors (Sands, et al., 1991):

Friend: A mentor who provides “friendship, emotional support, advice about people, help making difficult career decisions, help with personal problems, participation in social activities, and defense from criticism” (Sands, et al., 1991, p. 185).

Career Guide: A mentor who collaborates in research or publications, provides “introductions to persons who could further one’s career, involvement in a professional network, promoting professional visibility, and advice about research opportunities, grant proposals, or funding sources” (Sands, et al., 1991, p. 185).

Information Source: A mentor who provides information about the policies and procedures of the university. This mentor provides faculty with “information about formal expectations for promotion and tenure and advice about committee work” (Sands, et al., 1991, p. 185).

Intellectual Guide: A mentor who provides faculty with “intellectual guidance, constructive criticism/feedback, promotion of an equal and collaborative relationship, and review of draft papers” (Sands, et al., 1991, p. 185). There are many different definitions of the term, *mentor* in the literature over the last 30 years. This study provides some explanation for that, and inadvertently provides a crosswalk of workplace mentor functions to academia. See Table 1.

Table 1.

A visual representation of ideal mentor functions in academe.

Career Support	Psychosocial Support
<p><i>Career Guide</i> - collaboration in research or publications, introductions to persons who could further one's career, involvement in a professional network, promoting professional visibility, and advice about research opportunities, grant proposals, or funding sources.</p>	<p><i>Friend</i> – variables include friendship, emotional support, advice about people, helping make difficult career decisions, help with personal problems, participation in social activities, and defense from criticism.</p>
<p><i>Information Source</i> - focused on information related to university policies and procedures, information about formal expectations for promotion and tenure, and advice about committee work.</p>	<p><i>Intellectual Guide</i> - consisted of intellectual guidance, and constructive criticism and feedback.</p>

Note: A visual representation of ideal mentor functions in academe (Sands, 1991) within career related and psychosocial categories. Kram, K. E. (1983).

Outcomes of Mentoring

Mentoring has been widely recognized as a tool for professional development (Landis, 1990). The study of the outcomes of mentoring has produced an extensive list of benefits for protégés and mentors alike (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz & Lima 2004; Kram, 1983).

In a study on the relationship between appointment type and productivity and commitment of full-time faculty, Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey, and Staples (2006) tested whether, and to what extent multiple measures of research and instructional productivity differed based on the faculty member's appointment type using the 1999 NCES National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF) data set. A finding of this study was that faculty on tenured appointments were more committed to their positions, and significantly more productive in

research and education (Bland et al., 2006). Bland et al. (2006) provided a model, which synthesized the literature contributing to high academic productivity. Essentially, faculty members who were well prepared and supported in an environment created by effective leadership were productive in the areas of research, teaching, tenure and promotion (Bland et al., 2006). See Figure 2. Bland et al. (2006) state that, “the tenure system is a major mechanism for assuring the presence of environmental features essential for productivity” (p. 99). The authors state that the tenure system provides a way to organize and address requirements, and academic norms through organizational support consisting of mentoring and peer feedback (Bland et al., 2006).

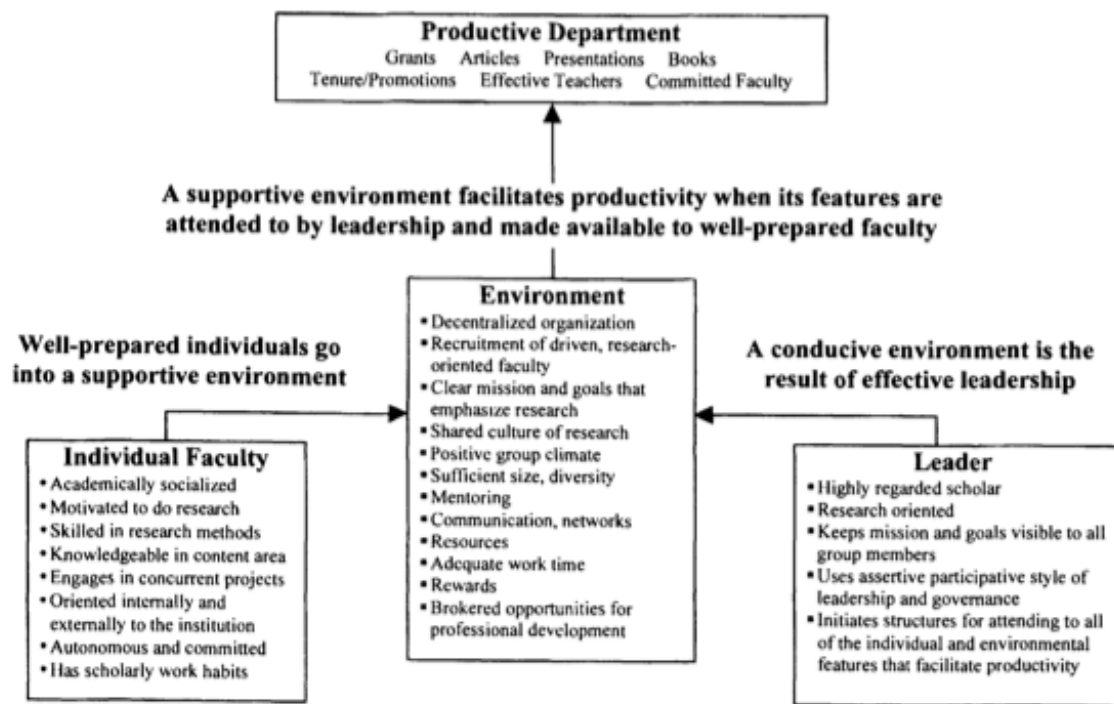


Figure 2. Individual, environmental, and leadership characteristics associated with high academic productivity. Bland, C. J., Center, B. A., Finstad, D. A., Risbey, K. R., & Staples, J. (2006). The impact of appointment type on the productivity and commitment of full-time faculty in research and doctoral institutions. *Journal of Higher Education*, 89-123. Boice, R. (1992). *The new faculty member: Supporting and fostering professional development*. Jossey-Bass.

Mentoring as a Professional Development Tool

Mentoring is a widely accepted and encouraged practice across institutions for the orientation, socialization, and development of tenure-track faculty. Specifically, mentoring has been utilized as a professional development tool for marginalized faculty populations (i.e. women and racial and ethnic minorities). In their study of underrepresented minority faculty, Lewellen-Williams, et al. (2006) found a positive relationship between having a mentor and the participation in professional development activities, such as attending conferences, research, teaching, participation in grants, and publication.

Mentoring to Socialize and Integrate New Faculty.

It is desirable in academia to connect new faculty members with a mentor for the purpose of orientation and socialization to academic life (Boice, 1992; Mathews, 2003; Sorcinelli, 1994). Proper organizational socialization of employees through avenues such as mentoring can result in greater job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). According to Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2006), an organization's failure to socialize new employees will result in unmet expectations of the employee, which in turn will induce poor attitudes and negative organizational outcomes such as turnover. Research suggests that this may not be a great concern for institutions of higher education, as contingent faculty often cost less to employ (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011).

According to the literature on organizational socialization, it is critical to properly socialize new employees so that they understand performance criteria, and how their work contributes to the organization as a whole (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). Some research has suggested that socialization is associated with higher levels of satisfaction and organizational commitment (Ashforth & Saks, 1996), and that organizational "insiders" can successfully assist

new employees with feedback, role modeling, social support, and access to networks and resources (Major, Kozlowski, Chao, and Gardner, 1995). Proper socialization is positively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction, outcomes that are associated with productivity (Major et al., 1995).

In their extensive study of eighteen colleges and universities, Gappa and Leslie (1993) found that many of the institutions that they visited provided an orientation to new part-time faculty members. Some of the common components of the orientation programs among the institutions included the following:

1. A social event of some kind is held. This typically involves key administrators, as a show of interest and importance.
2. A general introduction to the institution, typically in the form of a handbook, or other written information. These written materials include items such as the institution's history, library hours, emergency procedures, and personnel policies.
3. An overview of effective teaching practices through the use of written materials and round table discussions.
4. Linkages to departmental faculty are established through the assignment of senior faculty mentors. (p. 184)

According to Maslach and Leiter (1997), employees typically start their jobs feeling energized and engaged with their work, but over time that energy converts to cynicism and inefficacy when their expectations for support are unmet.

Mentoring for Marginalized Groups in Academia.

Mentoring has been viewed as an appropriate approach to socializing and providing professional support to underrepresented employees, such as minorities and women, however research has suggested that women and minorities specifically have challenges establishing mentoring relationships (Noe, 1988b; Zellers et al., 2008).

Racial Minorities.

Minority faculty employment has also seen a modest change over time. According to a study conducted in 1992, African Americans represented 12% of the adult population, yet they constituted less than five percent of all full-time faculty. Hispanics represented 11% of the adult population in the U.S. and yet they only accounted for less than three percent of full-time faculty (Carter & Wilson, 1992). Atkinson, Morten and Sue (1989) found that when minority faculty were hired, they were more likely to be non-tenured or part-time than their White counterparts.

In 2005, faculty of color represented 17% of all full-time faculty, and fewer than 12% were tenured faculty (Turner, Gonzalez, & Wood, 2008). Baez (2000) highlighted the struggle for faculty of color with balancing institutional demands with service. While many minority faculty are disproportionately guided or obliged in the direction of “race-related service,” there is very little professional advantage for doing so. As with female faculty members, faculty of color perceive an unwelcoming culture within their institutions (Aguirre, 2000).

In Gappa and Leslie’s (1993) study, the authors visited 18 colleges and universities, and conducted 467 interviews with deans, department chairs, tenured faculty and part-time faculty. In one interview with an African American part-time instructor holding a Ph.D. was recorded as stating the following regarding his satisfaction with his part-time appointment:

I enjoy teaching. I can satisfy that interest... [and] it gives me variety. Seeing clients all day every day, this gives me variety. [I also do it] for the money. I teach here part-time because that is all they will hire me for. Whether you want more is beside the point. They decide. I told the chair I'm going to leave if I can't get up to .50 FTE and teach every quarter. He replied, "Well, that's too bad. I won't discuss it." ... Overall, I am about 90% satisfied with the teaching. It is rewarding. But all part-time faculty feel isolated. Like the ghost that goes between people, they see you, they are cordial, but you don't really count. [I represent] a way to achieve diversity. (Gappa & Leslie, 1993, p.23)

Women.

Between 1980 and 1993, the overall representation of women faculty increased by 53%. White women increased their number in the faculty population by 50%; Black women increased their number in the population by 33%; Latinas increased their representation by 150%; Asian women increased their representation by 200%; American Indian women increased their representation by 60%. Although women represented over half of all undergraduates in the U.S., and held one-third of all doctorates, they occupied only 12% of the tenured faculty positions during this timeframe (Aguirre, 2000).

The most recent statistics published by the Department of Education show women have made some strides in terms of their ability to enter higher education within the tenure-track (Curtis, 2014). While women compose 47.8% of tenure track faculty, they only make up 36.5% of all tenured faculty. Despite the progress made by degree-granting institutions in their hiring practices, the representation of women in high-status faculty groups continues to lag behind that of men (Curtis, 2014). For example, 85% of full professors with more than 10 years of

experience in their field are men (Maranto & Griffin, 2010). Female faculty perceive they are excluded from the informal networks in their departments (Maranto & Griffin, 2010). Affirmative Action initiatives have “facilitated the emergence of an organizational culture that is cold and indifferent toward women and minorities” (Aguirre, 2000, p. 14). Women are well represented in the low-status faculty categories, accounting for 50.7% of all full-time non-tenure-track faculty, and 52% of all part-time faculty (Curtis, 2014).

A Case for Mentoring Contingent Faculty

Contingent faculty members generally do not receive the professional support they need to be able to provide quality instruction. Because of the limited terms in which they serve in their contingent roles, most of them do not develop relationships with students as advisors (Curtis & Jacobo, 2006). Contingent faculty members have stated that they believe they would benefit from mentoring from senior colleagues (Feldman & Turnley, 2004). In a survey conducted by the Coalition on the Academic Workforce, including participation from roughly 20,000 contingent faculty members, reported an absence of and a need for professional development (CAW, 2012). Research suggests that mentoring would help contingent faculty become more engaged and committed to their organizations (Gappa & Leslie, 1993; Murphy-Nutting, 2003; Nestor & Leary, 2000), and to cope with some of the stressors inherent in the job (De Janasz & Sullivan, 2004). It appears that mentoring has been a common component of faculty orientation programs, which in most cases include only tenure-track faculty (Boice, 1992; Gappa & Leslie, 1993; Mathews, 2003).

According to some, mentoring relationships between tenured or tenure-track faculty members and contingent faculty members would assist contingent faculty with orientation to the department (Dedman & Pearch, 2004), and other skills (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). Lyons and

Kysilka (2000) recommend mentoring between new adjunct faculty and established tenure-track or adjunct faculty members as a component of a successful onboarding process. In a pilot program, Lyons and Kysilka (2000) found adjuncts from different disciplines, backgrounds, and with different motivations to teach, benefitted from mentoring relationships. “Mentoring promotes faculty productivity, advocates collegiality, and encourages a broader goal of attracting, retaining, and advancing faculty members” (Luna & Cullen, 1995, p. 3). Mathews (2003) presented the practice of mentoring as a method to connect organizational learning and the transfer of knowledge.

Curtis and Jacobe (2006) provided a great case for professional support of contingent faculty in the form of a question. From the *2006 American Association for University Professors Contingent Faculty Index*:

Faculty are the core of a college or university. You can find this statement throughout the commencement and convocation speeches of college and university presidents and in their welcome messages for incoming students. Although many would argue that these statements are mere lip service, they happen to be true. It is faculty who develop the instructional and research programs that provide the fundamental reason for the existence of colleges and universities. So, what is the impact on an institution when its relationship to faculty becomes increasingly contingent? (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006, p. 15).

Given the implications of the existing research, we should understand more about contingent faculty, what motivates them to do this kind of work, and offer insights to support their mentoring needs.

Mentoring has been widely associated with positive workplace outcomes such as increased commitment, job satisfaction (Allen, et al., 2004; Dreher & Ash, 1990), and commitment (Chao, 1997; Noe, 1988a). Each of these outcomes has been identified as resources that support the development of work engagement.

Engagement

Engagement has been associated with organizational citizenship behaviors, performance, and productivity (Kezar & Sam, 2011). According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a), engagement is characterized by an individual's feelings of vigor, dedication, and absorption while performing work. Bakker & Demerouti's (2008) job demands-resources model (see Figure 3) suggests that job and personal resources predict work engagement. Work engagement can be defined as:

a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior. *Vigor* is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. *Dedication* refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. *Absorption*, is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work. (Schaufeli & Baker, 2003, p. 4)

Studies of employee engagement have found that professionals are likely to be more

engaged due to the nature and the meaning of their work, which would likely explain why part-time contingent faculty tend to communicate higher levels of engagement than expected (Kezar & Sam, 2011).

According to the Job Demands-Resources model, the combination of job and personal resources provide employees with what they need to meet the demands of the job. Higher levels of work engagement—vigor, dedication, and absorption, can be expected when there are enough resources to address demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Conversely, in cases in which job demands far outweigh the resources an employee is given, lower levels of work engagement can be expected (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). (See Figure 3.)

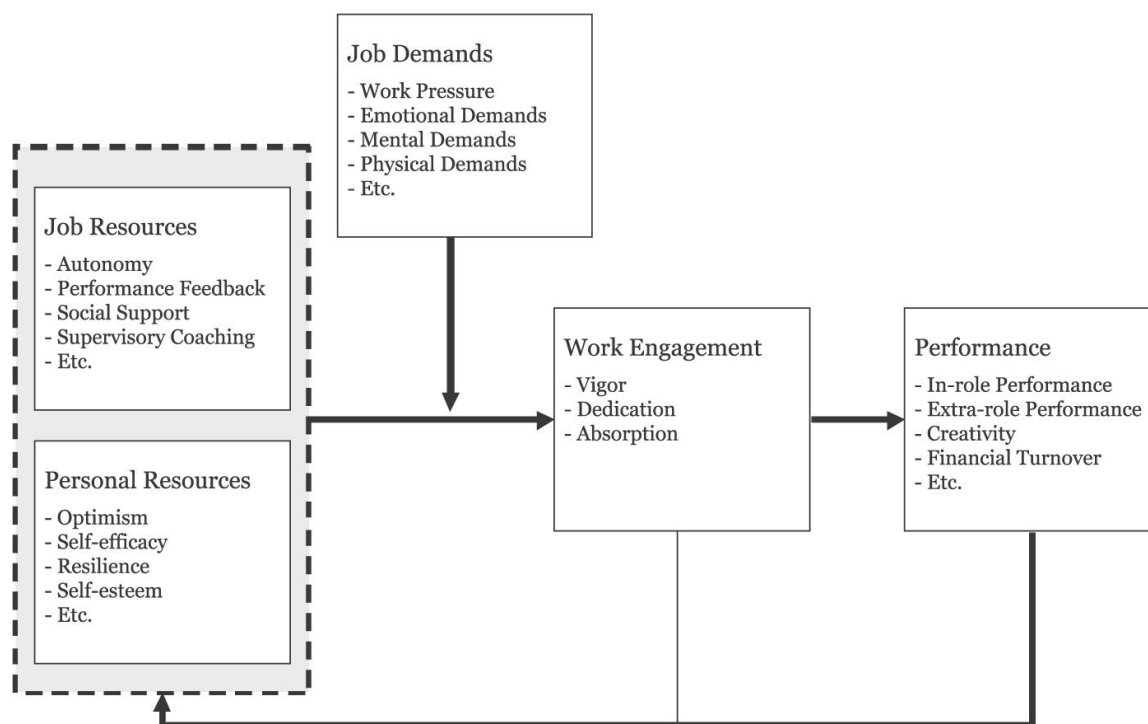


Figure 3. Job Demands-Resources Model.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of managerial psychology*, 22(3), 309-328.

Saks (2006) presented a model of the antecedents and consequences of work engagement using social exchange as a theoretical basis. Saks states, “One way for individuals to repay their organization is through their level of engagement. That is, employees will choose to engage themselves to varying degrees and in response to the resources they receive from the their organization” (Saks, 2006, p. 603). A graphic representation of the model is in Figure 4 below.



Figure 4. A model of the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. Saks, A. M. (2006).

Organizational Commitment

According to Saks (2006), Another consequence of a positive exchange between employee and employer is organizational commitment. Kezar and Sam (2011) highlight commitment of contingent faculty as a major area of study that reflects confusing results. According to Kezar and Sam (2011), this confusion may be attributable to the misapplication of theories (Kezar & Sam, 2011). Organizational commitment can be defined as “the strength of one’s identification with and involvement in a specific organization” (Hughes & Palmer, 2007, p. 145). Allen and Meyer (1990) introduced a three-component model to measure commitment: continuance, normative, and affective commitment. *Affective commitment* refers to an emotional attachment to the organization. In other words, employees with high affective commitment will stay with an organization simply because they want to (Allen & Meyer, 1990). *Normative*

commitment refers to a feeling of obligation to the organization based on an internal moral obligation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). *Continuance commitment* refers to an employee being committed to the organization based on the perceived costs of leaving (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Some of the literature on organizational commitment has suggested that while there is a positive relationship between affective commitment and performance, the reverse is true when examining continuance commitment; in which case continuance commitment may have a negative impact on performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989).

Organizational commitment has been linked with various outcomes, which are important for performance and quality (Bland, et al., 2006; Hughes & Palmer, 2007). Social exchange theory has been used widely to understand the commitment of contingent faculty (Bland, et al., 2006; Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2004; Umbach, 2007). The psychological contract in the workplace suggests that when workers receive resources and support to do their jobs, they will reciprocate with greater commitment to the organization (Umbach, 2007).

Based on the evidence in the literature, contingent faculty are not strongly supported by their organizations, (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006) and therefore their commitment levels are expected to be low. Kezar and Sam (2011) however indicate that this is not the case, as some research has demonstrated that contingent faculty have exhibited equal or more commitment than their tenure-track counterparts (Kezar & Sam, 2011). With the uncertainty around the commitment of contingent faculty, it would be useful to investigate this further, while controlling for individual differences within the contingent faculty population. The institution's practice of socialization and training may affect a difference between contingent faculty experiences as they indicate their commitment levels (Kezar & Sam, 2011). "Faculty members who never move into full socialization in an academic community may be inclined to be less committed" (Kezar & Sam,

2011, p. 1427). Kezar and Sam (2011) point out that while contingent faculty would be expected to exhibit less organizational commitment, and lower levels of job satisfaction based on social exchange theory, there is little support for this claim in the literature. As a matter of fact, studies examining the commitment of other professional contingent workers, such as nurses, computer specialists, and engineers, have not found less commitment when compared to full-time regular employees doing similar work (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004; Kezar & Sam, 2011). It should be noted that the professions listed above do not necessarily experience the same challenges as contingent faculty members, for example lower wages, lack of resources, office space, and organizational support (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). There also may be differences in commitment based whether the contingent faculty member works on a full-time or part-time basis (Kezar & Sam, 2011).

Job Satisfaction

The literature has established a link between mentoring relationships and job satisfaction (Chao, et al., 1992; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Ensher et al., 2001). Job satisfaction studies on the general workforce have applied Herzberg's hygiene factors. The factors that have the potential to cause dissatisfaction include factors such as security, status, salary, working conditions, interpersonal relations, supervision, and company policy and administration (Herzberg, 1974). Kezar and Sam (2011) point out that while Herzberg's hygiene theory would generate a prediction of dissatisfaction, most studies demonstrate that contingent faculty members are indeed satisfied. This could be attributed to the scales researchers have used to measure satisfaction. According to Kezar and Sam (2011), contingent faculty may have high intrinsic satisfaction based on a "love of their discipline, enjoyment of teaching, and positive interactions with colleagues" (p. 1430). On the other hand, based on the literature it could be expected that

contingent faculty would report lower levels of extrinsic job satisfaction, as the research has suggested that they have substandard salary, benefits, job insecurity, and working conditions (Kezar & Sam, 2011).

A visual representation of the variables being examined in the current study is below in Figure 5. The independent variable being studied is employment profile, and the dependent variables are work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and mentor functions. Social exchange theory suggests that a mentoring relationship in which the mentor provides career related and psychosocial mentoring functions will promote increased levels of work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Contingent faculty member's employment profile may be influenced by mentoring relationships, and conversely, desired mentoring functions, work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment may be influenced by the contingent faculty member's employment profile.

A Model of Professional Development of Contingent Faculty in Higher Education

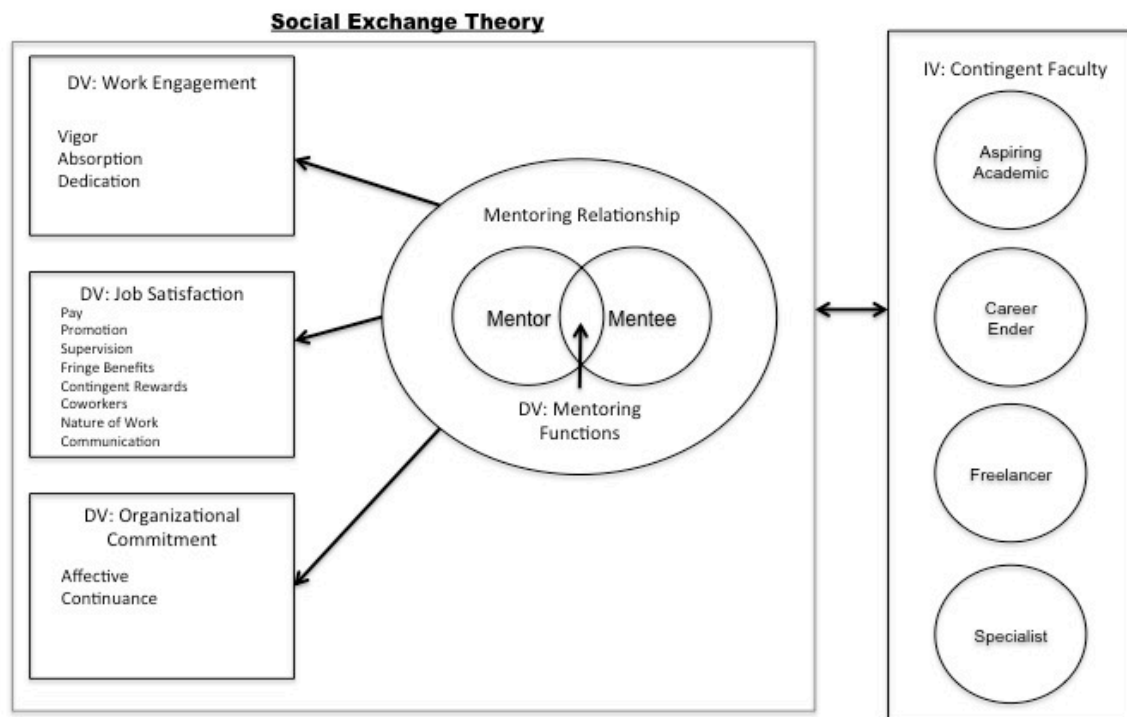


Figure 5. A conceptual framework for the current study.

Summary

This chapter provided a summary of the literature related to the employment trends, working conditions, and motivations of contingent faculty members in higher education, and provided some rationale for the need for mentoring as a form of support to this vast faculty population; and ultimately to maintain the integrity of the quality of higher education. While much of the literature on contingent faculty assumes that this population is a largely homogeneous group, the research suggests that there may be ways in which contingent faculty can be categorized (i.e. Gappa & Leslie, 1993), and those categories may provide more understanding about this population, and will better inform opportunities for professional development.

The last sections of this chapter provided a brief history of the study of mentoring in business and academia, the functions provided by mentoring, and the outcomes associated with the practice of mentoring. Mentoring has been linked with several organizational and career outcomes including work engagement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Each of these outcomes has the potential to improve working conditions for contingent faculty, improve instruction for students, and ultimately improving the system of higher education.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present a justification for the research methods design and the process used to conduct the study. This chapter outlines the execution of the research study including the research design, instrumentation, sampling procedures, data collection, and data analysis. The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were differences in the work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile.

Research Questions

The overarching research questions, which drove the current study, are presented below. A full list of research questions including sub-questions are listed in Appendix A.

- 1) *What are the differences in desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on employment profile?*
- 2) *What are the differences in work engagement of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
- 3) *What are the differences in organizational commitment of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
- 4) *What are the differences in job satisfaction of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
- 5) *What is the demographic profile of contingent faculty? Does Gappa & Leslie's (1993) typology hold?*

Research Design

This study utilized a survey research design, as defined by Fink (2002) to establish an employment profile from the typology developed by Gappa and Leslie (1993), and to collect data on the attitudes of contingent faculty towards mentoring needs, work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Scaled measures and open-ended questions were used in the survey. Data were analyzed utilizing inferential statistics, as well as thematic analysis.

Survey research allows the researcher to develop conclusions about a characteristic, attitude, or behavior of a population from a representative sample (Babbie, 1990; Creswell, 2009), and provides the ability for the researcher to make inferences about an entire population based on responses of only a relatively small sample (Babbie, 1990). Survey research also provides the capability for the researcher to collect data on several variables from a sample of an understudied population. Contingent faculty are a large workforce population in the United States, representing roughly 1.4 million higher education faculty.

Survey research is a common approach in studies examining mentoring, work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (e.g. Chao et al., 1992; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). According to Allen, Eby, O'Brien, and Lentz (2008), 94.4% of mentoring studies published through 2006 used survey-based research designs, with the vast majority of those studies (89.9%) being exclusively quantitative, and 90.9% used a cross-sectional design. In a review of literature on engagement in the workplace between 1990 and 2007, Simpson (2009) found 20 studies that reported on the examination of the antecedents or consequences of engagement. Of the 20 studies, 18 of them used a quantitative survey research design. Murphy

(2009) examined organizational commitment and job satisfaction of contingent faculty by conducting a quantitative analysis of a secondary data set.

The survey used in the current study is cross-sectional, and the data was collected in the form of an online self-administered questionnaire (Fink, 2002). Providing the self-administered survey electronically provided flexibility and convenience to participants (Dillman et al., 2009). Babbie (2012) developed a general schematic for conducting a social science research project.

The schematic was adapted to the current study in Figure 6 below.

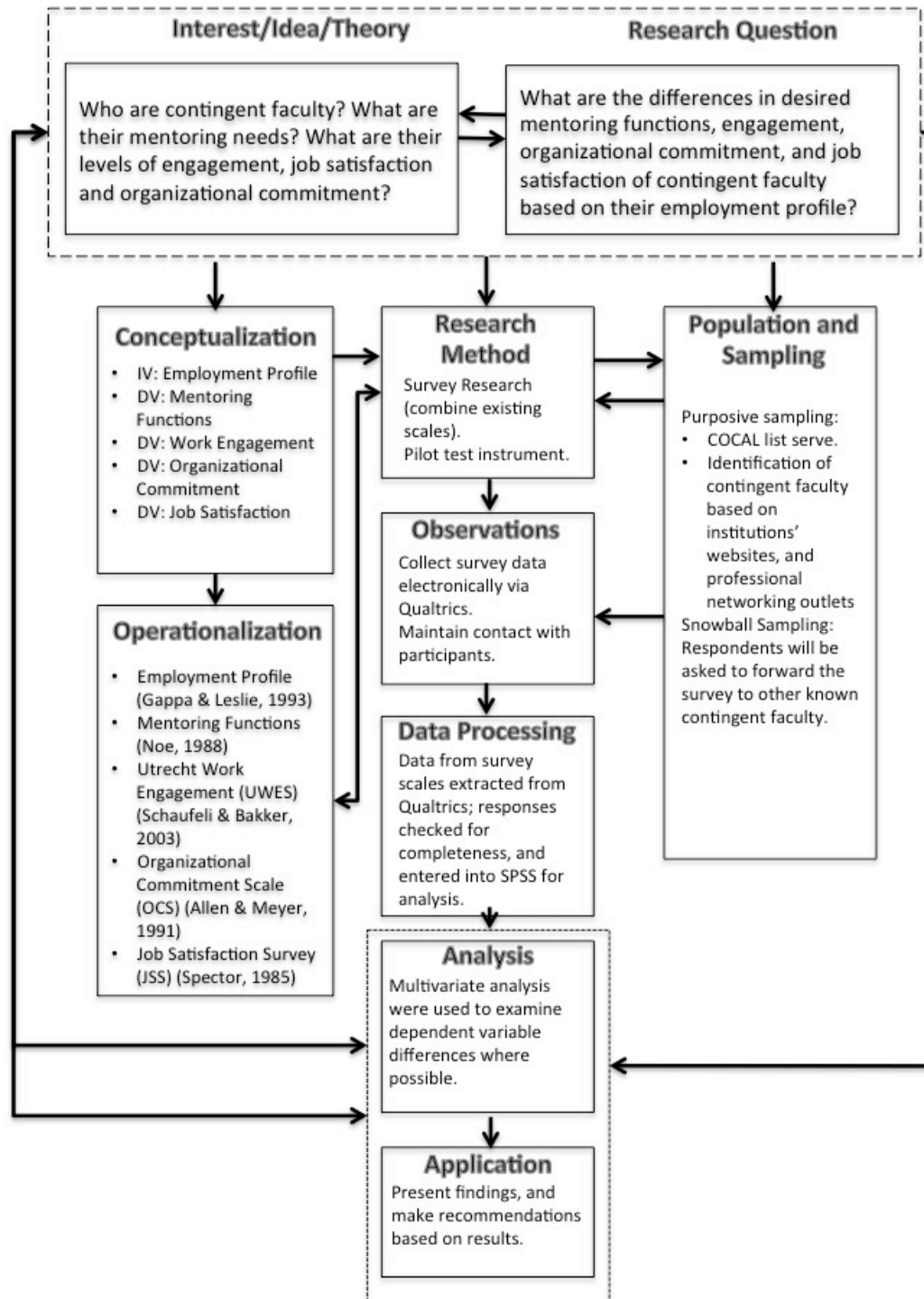


Figure 6. Research Design flowchart for the current study. Traditional image of research design adapted from Babbie, E. (2012). *The practice of social research*. Cengage Learning.

Variables

The designated independent variable was employment profile. In this study, employment profile was stratified into four groups, based on a typology developed by Gappa and Leslie (1993) in *The Invisible Faculty*. The first group is *Aspiring Academics*. This group of contingent faculty members consists of individuals who have a terminal degree in their respective disciplines, and who teach on a contingent basis with the hope that they will eventually obtain a full-time tenure-track position in academia (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The second group is *Career-enders*. This group comprises contingent faculty members who have retired from a career teaching or another profession. Career-enders may be looking for a way to stay active, and involved with students (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The third group of contingent faculty are called *Freelancers*. This group chooses their contingent employment situation, as it makes sense within the context of their personal lives. Freelancers may be stay-at-home parents, primary caregivers, or artists (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The fourth group of contingent faculty, the last group identified by Gappa and Leslie (1993) are called *Specialists*. Specialists are usually experts or professionals in a particular discipline, and they typically have other full-time employment outside of academia (Gappa & Leslie, 1993).

There were four major dependent variables, with a total of 16 sub variables. The dependent variables are work engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption), organizational commitment (affective and continuance), job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication), and mentoring functions (psychosocial and career-related).

Instrumentation

The instrument used to collect data was comprised of four major existing scales, demographic items, and open-ended questions (See Appendix F for the full survey). Permission for use of each of the scales was obtained from each of the authors. (See Appendices B through E.)

Measures

Established scales with known psychometric properties were used to develop the survey instrument. Four existing scales were combined to measure dependent variables, along with 27 demographic questions. Reliability is a high priority when utilizing a psychological test to measure some attribute or behavior (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991). Establishing validity of the scales was also important as it ensures that the intended variables are measured (Drost, 2011). Each of the scales that were used to measure the dependent variables for this study had already been tested for reliability and validity. See Table 2 on page 59 for a list of variables that were studied, and scales that were used to measure them. According to Creswell (2009), once instruments are combined, the original validity and reliability may not hold. Therefore a pilot test was conducted to establish validity and reliability of the instrument in its entirety. This quantitative study evaluated the previously stated research questions by analyzing the responses to a survey instrument composed of the following measures.

Employment Profile. A detailed description was developed for each employment profile category from the typology developed by Gappa and Leslie (1993), *aspiring academic*, *freelancer*, *specialist*, and *career-ender*. Since the employment profiles were created over 20 years ago, there was a potential that the employment trends of this contingent workforce group have changed. Therefore there was an opportunity for the respondents to provide narrative open-

ended responses if they did not identify with any of the four descriptions provided. The detailed definitions that were utilized for the survey were noted in Chapter 1. A qualitative thematic analysis of the open-ended responses was conducted to identify additional employment profiles.

Mentor Functions. Mentor functions were measured using Noe's (1988a) 21-item *Mentoring Functions Scale*. According to Allen et al. (2008), the Mentoring Functions scale (Noe, 1988a) was the measure most frequently used in mentoring research.

Participants were asked to respond to each item on the Mentoring Functions Scale based on their experience as a contingent faculty member. The Mentoring Functions Scale was originally designed to measure mentoring support provided to teachers based on the two primary functions of mentoring: psychosocial and career related support (Kram, 1983). Participants responded to 14 items to assess psychosocial mentor functions (e.g. *It is important that my mentor shares the history of his/her career with me*) and seven items to assess the career-related mentor functions (e.g. *I would like a mentor who will reduce unnecessary risk that could threaten the possibility of receiving a promotion*). Internal consistency reliability estimates were done to evaluate the homogeneity of each of the two subscales. High internal consistency estimates for reliability were established for each of the scales with Cronbach alpha levels of .89 for the career function scale, and .92 for the psychosocial functions scale (Noe, 1988a). The internal correlation between the career and psychosocial scales was .49, which suggests a moderate correlation (Cohen & Lea, 2004).

Work Engagement. Work engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). The UWES scale was comprised of 17 statements about how individuals feel at work (e.g. *At my work, I feel bursting with energy; I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose*). The scale was presented using a 6-point

Likert scale, ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (always). According to Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá and Bakker (2002), engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (p. 74). Psychometric results confirmed the factorial validity of the UWES. The UWES consists of three sub scales, which were found to be intercorrelated. Correlations between the three sub scales typically exceeded .65 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b). The scales had been “observed among samples from different countries, which confirmed the cross-national validity of the three-factor solution. Taken together this means that engagement is a construct that consists of three closely related aspects that are measured by three internally consistent scales” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003, p. 8). A Cronbach’s was computed for each scale with median scores of .82 for the vigor subscale, .89 for the dedication scale, and .83 for absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b).

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction will be measured using the Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) (Spector, 1985). The JSS had been used in several organizational development studies (e.g. Blau, 1999). A summated rating scale format was used, with six choices per item ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, and does not allow for neutral responses. There were nine subscales within the JSS, which included *pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication*. Each subscale included four items for a total of 36 items. The results from each scale resulted in a *total satisfaction* score. The results from the JSS allow the researcher to compare the contingent faculty member’s intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. For example the first item, *I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do* measures *pay*, which would be considered an extrinsic factor from Herzberg’s theory (Herzberg, 1974). Item 27, *I feel a sense of pride in doing my job* measures *nature of work*, which is considered an intrinsic factor according to Herzberg’s theory

(Herzberg, 1974). The JSS was comprised of nine subscales and a total satisfaction scale. Based on a sample of 2,870, has internal consistency reliability (alpha coefficients) ranging from .60 to .91 (Spector, 1985).

Organizational Commitment. Organizational Commitment was measured using a scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1991). The original instrument had three sub scales, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment, however only the first two were used in this study. The affective commitment scale measures the participant's commitment to remain with the organization because they want to; and continuance commitment measures the participant's commitment to remain with the organization because they feel that they need to do so (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The normative commitment subscale was not used in the current study, as that scale measures an individual's intention to remain with the organization based on a moral obligation. The scale questions referred to the practice of being loyal to the same employer for periods of time. For example, *I think that people these days move from company to company too often*. This scale assumed that the employee has control over whether he or she is retained with the employer. This is not an accurate assumption in the case of most contingent faculty members. The internal consistency reliability for the original affective commitment scale coefficient alphas were .87 and .86 for two samples. Internal consistency reliability for the continuance commitment scale were .75 and .82 for two samples (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The subscales also had established test-retest reliability at .94 (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Demographic Variables. In addition to the above variables, the survey instrument included items to collect demographic data including: race, ethnicity, sex, years of experience teaching at the college level, length of time in current position, institution type, contingent status (full or part-time), current course load, number of institutions, union status, mentoring history,

marital/family status, age, in-person or online teaching, terminal degree, state/region, and whether they receive benefits as part of their employment agreements as contingent faculty.

Table 2

Variables being examined in the current study, and the method/scale that was used to measure them.

Variable	Scale
Employment Profile	Developed using descriptions within typology reported by Gappa & Leslie (1993)
Mentoring Functions	Mentoring Functions Scale (Noe, 1988a)
Work Engagement	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b)
Organizational Commitment	Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990)
Job Satisfaction	Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985)

Nonresponse Bias

Nonresponse error can occur “when the people selected for the survey who do not respond are different from those who do respond in a way that is important to the study” (Dillman, 2009, p. 17). Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggested that late responders are similar to non-responders, and a method to test for non-response error is to compare early responders to late responders. For the nonresponse bias analysis, early respondents were the first 30 respondents who completed the survey during the first month, and late respondents were the last 30 respondents. Demographic variables from each group were compared using t-tests to test for significant differences between means (e.g. Connors & Elliot, 1994; Paganini-Hill, Hsu, Chao & Ross, 1993). The results of the t-test are presented in Chapter 4.

Gender and ethnicity data collected in this study were compared to contingent faculty in the U.S. Department of Education, National Center of Education Statistics IPEDS Human

Resources Survey (2011-2012). The distribution between men and women were similar, with a 4.4% and 5.4% difference in the two samples, respectively. There were differences of 5.15% and below between the two samples across most of the ethnic groups, except for the 21.7% difference in representation of Caucasian respondents and 12.9% difference in Others. See Table 3 below.

Table 3

Comparison of Gender and Race/Ethnicity between U.S. Department of Education (2011-2012) and Current Study

	Women %	Men %	Asian %	African American %	Caucasian %	Hispanic %	Other %
NCES	50.8	49.2	5.2	6.7	67.3	5.0	15.8
Current Study	55.2	43.8	0.05	2.9	89.0	4.8	2.9
% Difference	4.4	5.4	5.15	3.8	21.7	0.2	12.9

Social Desirability Bias

Dillman et al. (2009) suggested that respondents are often reluctant to respond to questions they find either embarrassing or socially unacceptable. For example individuals are more likely to report income when they are asked to select from broad ranges rather than provide an exact dollar amount (Dillman et al., 2009). The wording of questions for this survey was carefully considered, and adjusted where applicable.

“Social desirability refers to the tendency on behalf of the subjects to deny social undesirable traits and to claim socially desirable ones, and the tendency to say the things which place the speaker in a favorable light” (Nederhof, 1985). There are social desirability scales (e.g.

Stober, 2001), which can be added to the instrument, however given the fairly high number of questions already present in the instrument used in the current study, the researcher elected to address the potential for social desirability using other methods. According to Nederhof (1985), self-administered surveys effectively address social desirability bias, as they provide some anonymity for the respondent. Colton and Covert (2007) suggested offering survey participants anonymity to reduce social desirability pressures. The participants were assured in the informed consent stage, the results of the survey would be kept confidential, and complete anonymity would be assured. Further, respondents were not required to respond to all items in the survey. In the event a respondent felt uncomfortable responding to a particular item, he or she was able to skip the item, and move on to the next.

Pilot Testing of the Survey Instrument

Since multiple established scales were combined in the survey for the current study, a pilot test of the instrument was conducted to reestablish reliability (Creswell, 2009). The pilot test also helped address formatting and administrative issues with the survey instrument (Creswell, 2009). The participants for the pilot included 17 contingent faculty members from University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Nevada State College, College of Southern Nevada, and University of Phoenix. The participants included contingent faculty members from varied disciplines, backgrounds, and institution types. Following receipt of the responses, data were entered into SPSS (Version 23) for analysis. Reliability coefficients, Cronbach alpha values, were calculated.

Sampling Procedures

Sampling Frame

The population of interest includes contingent instructional faculty in the United States--roughly 1.4 million individuals (Curtis, 2014). The participants for this study were a cross-section of contingent faculty members, which included non-tenure track, paid instructional faculty members who had full or part-time term appointments with degree-granting institutions in higher education. Contingent faculty with current or previous appointments in higher education were examined in this study. Contingent faculty were working in a university, college or other institution of higher education, and residing in the United States. As graduate assistants represent roughly 20% of the contingent workforce (Curtis, 2014), they were considered for participation, and their responses were included in the analysis of the survey results. Contingent faculty members include individuals teaching courses in-person, online, or a combination of the two formats.

A representative sample of the contingent faculty population was drawn from the listserv for the Coalition of Contingent Academic Labor (COCAL), social media, social networks, and faculty directories across several institutional websites. The Coalition of Contingent Academic Labor is a grassroots coalition of activists in North America working on behalf of Contingent Faculty (COCAL, 2016). The survey instrument was sent to individuals who receive COCAL listserv updates via email. The survey was also posted on several online social media groups targeting contingent faculty, and passed on to members of social networks via email. The researcher also located contingent faculty members on institutions' websites within various departments based on job titles. For example, faculty members with the titles, "Instructor," "Lecturer," and "Adjunct" were sent a survey email, and faculty members with the title,

“Assistant Professor,” “Associate Professor,” were not sent a survey. A qualifying question was used at the beginning of the survey.

While COCAL represents a national, and potentially a multinational sample of the contingent faculty workforce population, there were a few limitations for including this particular group. COCAL is an activist organization which campaigns on behalf of contingent faculty in an effort to improve working conditions, employment stability, benefits, and in some cases, union organization. Given this group’s established involvement in the interests of contingent faculty, it can be assumed that the survey responses from contingent faculty associated with COCAL would reflect more enthusiasm regarding the potential for mentoring and development than nonmembers, as they have already determined that these benefits are absent from their work experiences as contingent faculty.

Since many of the issues attributed to hiring more contingent faculty are related to teaching (e.g. Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Eagan & Jaeger, 2009; Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Jacoby, 2006), the researcher chose to examine instructional faculty only, and to exclude research-only faculty. This was accomplished with the qualifying question at the beginning of the survey.

Sampling Techniques

Contingent faculty members have unique experiences from institution to institution, and even at the department level within the same institution (Curtis & Jacobe 2006; Gappa & Leslie, 1993), therefore it was important to gather responses from different types of institutions, departments, disciplines, and in different regions of the United States. Purposive sampling (also known as judgmental sampling) was used in this study. Purposive sampling was appropriate for this study, as it helped ensure the representativeness of the population (Babbie, 2012). In the case

of contingent faculty, who experience their work environment in much different ways from department to department in institutions across the United States, obtaining a purposive sample was the most feasible way of collecting data. Demographic survey questions were also presented to the respondents to help ensure the sample is representative of the population.

Snowball sampling was also used as a strategy to distribute the survey instrument. Snowball sampling is “appropriate when members of a special population are difficult to locate” (Babbie, 2012). In snowball sampling, the researcher can ask for referrals to other individuals who might be representative of the population under examination (Babbie, 2012). Snowball sampling can assist with the recruitment of a representative sample. For example, given the mission of COCAL, it may be presumed that listserv subscribers are interested and possibly even invested in the improvement of working conditions of the general faculty population, and will be willing to forward the survey on to representatives from their institutions, colleagues, and to other groups or platforms that may have access to the email addresses of other contingent faculty members. The same logic applies to contingent faculty who are heavily involved in social media and networking within interest groups connected with contingent teaching.

Sampling Bias

Sampling bias can be a concern when using a purposive sample (Babbie, 2012). There was a potential for unintentional sampling bias as COCAL members, and active social media/networking participants were the anticipated primary sample. According to Babbie (2012), representativeness of the sample could be enhanced by a probability sampling method such as random-selection, however random sampling was not a feasible option for this study. The combination of purposive sampling, snowball sampling techniques, and analysis of the

demographic characteristics of the participants in this study helped to establish representativeness of the sample.

Sample Size and Power

The researcher planned to examine four groups based on the four employment profiles discussed above, and four main dependent variables: work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and mentoring functions.

G* Power: Statistical Power Analysis was used to conduct a priori power analysis as a method to determine sample size needed to conduct a MANOVA for this study (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). The number of groups (independent variables) entered into the calculator was 4, and the number of response variables for job satisfaction was 9 (*pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication*). A large effect captures at least 15% of the variance attributed to the independent variable (Kepple & Wickens, 2004). With an effect size of 0.15, and $\alpha = 0.05$, Power $(1 - \alpha) = 0.95$, the total sample size is 84, requiring 21 subjects in each group. Additional power analyses were conducted for the second, third and fourth main dependent variables, mentoring functions, organizational commitment (each having two levels of the dependent variable), and work engagement (which has three levels of the dependent variable). The second power analysis for the three-level dependent variable with an effect size of .15, and $\alpha = 0.05$, Power $(1 - \alpha) = 0.95$, called for a sample size of 56, requiring 14 subjects in each group. The last power analysis was conducted for the two-level dependent variables with an effect size of .15, and $\alpha = 0.05$, Power $(1 - \alpha) = 0.95$, called for a sample size of 48, requiring 12 subjects in each group. The highest sample size was used for this study. To conduct

MANOVA/MANCOVA tests for this study, a total of 84 subjects, with 21 subjects representing each group were needed.

Participants

The survey was initially distributed to roughly 1,500 COCAL listserv subscribers, which yielded only three responses, for a response rate of .002%. The survey was then sent out to a total of 2,105 individuals by email. With 286 responses, the response rate for the survey was 13.59%. Of the 286 respondents who started the survey, 221 actually completed all items, with a drop out rate of roughly 22%. The dropout rate could be attributed to the length of the survey. There was a 5% drop out rate in the question, which asked respondents to choose the employment profile with which they most identified. This was likely challenging for those respondents who did not identify with any of the four employment profiles presented. This was the case for 26% who wrote open-ended responses in lieu of selecting one of the four employment profiles. Retention of respondents dropped after the first three major scales (engagement, commitment, and satisfaction).

Of the 221 survey responses, 11 were removed from the data, as there were missing items. After removing the 11 surveys with missing responses, 210 survey responses were analyzed for the purposes of this study. The sample for the current study consisted of 210 contingent faculty (n=210). The 210 survey respondents included individuals working full-time, part-time, teaching in various formats, and within various disciplines and institutional types. While the actual names of the institutions were not collected in survey responses, institution type and state of residence were.

Procedures

An Institutional Review Board (IRB) application was submitted to the UNLV Office of Human Subjects. Upon receipt of approval, the researcher commenced the survey research study in October 2015. See Appendix J.

The survey instrument contained items representing the measures discussed earlier in this chapter, and was developed using Qualtrics survey development software. Purposeful sampling was used to obtain survey participants. The survey was distributed as a hyperlink within an email message via the COCAL listserv weekly aggregate email, on social media websites targeting contingent faculty, and passed on through social networks. The researcher also sent personal emails to potential participants by contacting individual faculty members who were listed in faculty directories on institutions' websites. These potential participants were contacted based primarily on their job titles. Common titles for contingent faculty included, and were not limited to: Adjunct, Lecturer, Instructor, Part-time Instructor, Visiting Professor, Faculty-In-Residence. The researcher made a conscious effort to contact faculty in different types of institutions in various regions of the country.

The email message itself consisted of a brief description of the research study, as well as the potential contributions that this study would add to the existing body of research—not only for the benefit of contingent faculty, but also for other underrepresented workforce populations. The survey was distributed and administered using the principles of *The Tailored Design Method* where possible and feasible (Dillman et al., 2009). The Tailored Design Method was built on the main concepts of social exchange theory, in that it presented the benefits to respondents as a result of completing the survey on the basis that the results of the survey could ultimately help forge changes to their working conditions (Dillman et al., 2009).

Data Collection (Pilot)

Data collection for the pilot test occurred over two weeks. The survey was sent to pilot participants, with an email request that the survey be completed within two weeks. The participants for the pilot included 17 contingent faculty members from University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Nevada State College, College of Southern Nevada, and University of Phoenix. Each email contained a link to the online Qualtrics survey. Cronbach alpha scores were calculated to test survey scales for reliability, and each scale was deemed reliable. The alpha scores for each scale are as follows: engagement, .932, job satisfaction, .886, organizational commitment, .719, and mentoring functions, .970. Acceptable alpha levels range between .70 to .95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Feedback from the pilot participants indicated confusing language in the instructions presented just before each scale. These issues were addressed and corrected.

Data Collection (Study)

The data collection for the research study took place between October 19, 2015 and December 14, 2015. This time frame provided respondents with a reasonable amount of time to access and complete the survey, and time to forward the survey on to members of their networks (Dillman et al., 2009). The survey was initially sent to the COCAL listserv, however the listserv yielded only a three survey responses (less than .01% of the total responses). Therefore the researcher relied heavily on social media websites targeting contingent faculty members, and one-on-one identification of potential contingent faculty by searching college and university websites over two months. The goal of the researcher was to obtain a representative sample by contacting faculty from a selection of geographically dispersed institutions. Every effort was also made to contact contingent faculty members representing a variety of disciplines. Faculty members were contacted based on their job titles listed on the institution's website.

Participants received a hyperlink to the survey instrument within an email. The Qualtrics survey software allowed respondents to complete the survey over multiple sessions, if they did not have time to complete the survey in one session. The survey software automatically saved responses within the two-month timeframe, and allowed respondents to begin again where they left off, as long as they accessed the survey from the same computer.

The survey began with informed consent agreement (see Appendix K), followed by a qualifying question. Respondents who did not meet the first two criteria were thanked for their participation, and were not asked any further questions. Those respondents meeting the criteria of the qualifying question were asked to identify their “employment profile” according to the descriptions derived from an existing typology (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). Following the “employment profile” question, the respondents responded to a series of scales on engagement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction, and mentoring functions. After completing these scales, respondents were asked to respond to 29 demographic items.

Recruitment

As explained above, contingent faculty subscribing to the COCAL listserv, various social media websites; as well as those faculty members who met predefined criteria, and whose email addresses were listed on various institutional websites across the U.S., received an email with a link to the survey instrument. Following agreement with the informed consent, the qualifying question at the beginning of the survey provided respondents with a definition of “contingent faculty” for the purpose of this study. If respondents met the definition of contingent faculty according to the definition, they selected *yes* to that question and proceeded to respond to the remaining items in the survey. Individuals who answered *no* to this question were redirected to a

message thanking them for their participation. Only one respondent responded *no* to the qualifying question.

Once respondents submitted the survey, they were asked to redistribute the survey by forwarding the email to their professional networks, and to colleagues who they believed were currently or recently serving in contingent faculty positions. It was not possible to personalize all contacts to prospective respondents, therefore the greeting of the email to unknown recipients read, “Dear Colleague.” Where possible, however the emails were personalized. Two brief follow-up e-mails were sent as reminders. (See Appendices H and I). The first reminder took place one week after initially sending the survey link, and the second was sent two weeks later.

Data Analysis

Qualitative Data Analysis

The first stage in analyzing the survey data was to code the open-ended responses to the third survey question, which asked the respondents to identify their employment profile based on the four descriptions provided (of *aspiring academics*, *career-enders*, *freelancers*, and *specialists*). If respondents did not identify with any of the four category descriptions provided, they had three additional items from which to choose:

- (1) “None of the above. I choose to work as a contingent faculty member for a reason not listed here.” In this case, respondents were given a space to explain their responses.
- (2) “I selected letter ____ above because I was forced to choose only one response, but I actually identify with more than one choice above.” If respondents selected this response, they were asked to list the combination of responses in a space provided.

(3) “Please explain your response further if you feel that it is necessary to do so.”

This response also included a space for respondents to elaborate on their reasons for working as a contingent faculty member.

A thematic analysis was conducted on the data resulting from the open-ended survey questions to identify emerging profiles that were not included in the original typology developed by Gappa and Leslie (1993). Thematic analysis is a process “that allows for the translation of qualitative information into qualitative data” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4). Upon examination of the open-ended responses, the responses were either recoded into an existing category (in the event that the written response closely matched one of the four employment profile category descriptions), or analyzed for themes that comprised potential additional categories. Data were evaluated through thematic method structuring (Kluge, 2002). The researcher worked through the text, summarizing and interpreting notes and reducing the results into several major conceptual categories.

According to Kluge (2002), the first stage in constructing empirically grounded types and typologies is to develop relevant analyzing dimensions. “If the type is defined as a combination of attributes, one first needs properties and/or dimensions, which form the basis for the typology” (Kluge, 2000, p. 1). The employment profiles of part-time faculty developed by Gappa and Leslie (1993) were primarily based on the reasons or motivations for part-timers to teach on a contingent basis. The next stage in constructing empirically grounded types was to group the cases and analyze empirical regularities.

Trustworthiness and dependability/credibility. A post hoc effort was made by the researcher to establish validity and dependability of the qualitative analysis of the open-ended survey responses by using multiple methods (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). With respect to

trustworthiness (validity), the researcher sought to establish transferability (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006) with a strategic recruitment of participants of the study. Every effort was made to reach a representative sample of contingent faculty across the United States. Dependability (reliability) was improved by establishing confirmability, the degree to which the researcher's data interpretations were validated by others through peer debriefing, methodological consultations provided by faculty research peers (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). See Appendix L for Peer Debriefing Responses.

Thick descriptions. The technique of thick descriptions was applied, providing direct quotes for the open-ended responses categorized within the new-formed employment profiles, true teachers and others. (See Appendix M). While the researcher and peer debriefers had access to all text responses during their analyses; providing thick descriptions, enhances the interpretation and categorization of results for future reviewers. The results of the thematic analysis provide insights into the experiences attitudes, and motivations of contingent faculty, and are potentially generalizable to other contingent faculty.

After analyzing the reported employment profiles, the four original profiles were present (*aspiring academics, career-enders, freelancers, and specialists*) in addition to two additional profiles, which emerged through a thematic analysis. The categories added were (1) *true teachers*: this primarily full-time group of contingent faculty are passionate about teaching, and had no desire to serve in a tenure-track position; in fact they enjoy the rewards that teaching has to offer without the stressors inherent with service and research obligations. (2) *others*: this group noted reasons for contingent work which were quite varied, or did not provide the researcher with characteristics required to place them in another group. There was one major theme that emerged within the open-ended responses comprising the *others* group. Most of the

responses in this group cited the fact that the faculty member did not possess a terminal degree, and therefore did not qualify for a tenure-track position. It may be assumed these individuals would have preferred a tenure-track position, however the researcher was not at liberty to make that assumption. Also, based on the numbers of respondents who reported not having a terminal degree (see Table 8), this characteristic is one that is present throughout the employment profiles. These responses provided information outside of the essence of the question, and therefore did not justify the researcher creating an additional category. Both peer debriefers noted in their recommendations that current doctoral students could have been further extrapolated from the *others* category for further analysis. A decision was made by the researcher not to create a seventh employment profile group based on two factors. First, based on the guidelines provided by Kluge (2000), relevant analyzing dimensions were identified based on the original employment profiles developed by Gappa and Leslie (1993). These categories were weightily based on the motivations for part-timers to teach on a contingent basis. These motivations were based primarily on lifestyle, educational and professional background. Depending on the institution, student teachers may or may not choose a contingent teaching arrangement. In the case of student teachers, their role as a contingent faculty member is a component of their learning experience, and not necessarily a conscious choice. Secondly, it was preferable for the sake of the planned quantitative analysis, that there were not a large number of groups with only a few subjects assigned to each group. There were only six responses in the *others* category that stated that the respondent was a current Ph.D. student. This number was too low to constitute the creation of a new group. (See Appendix M.)

Quantitative Data Analysis

The data—ordinal for the dependent variables, and nominal for the independent variable, were first downloaded into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for analysis. First, 11 responses with missing items were removed from the data set. Next, those scales, which included negatively worded items, were recoded toward the right polarity. The Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) and the Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) (Spector, 1994) each comprised some negatively worded responses. The negatively keyed items (19 on the JSS and 3 on the OCS) were first reversed (e.g. on a 7-point scale, an indicated response of 7 was changed to a 1; 2=6, 3=5, 4=4, 5=3, 6=2, 7=1). Once the data was reviewed for missing items, and negatively worded items were reversed, the data were entered into SPSS (Version 23) for analysis.

Multivariate Analysis. A one-way multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) tested for significant differences between means for each of the four major dependent variables. A MANCOVA is a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) that incorporates control variables—or covariates. MANCOVA takes into consideration the correlation among the dependent variables while controlling for the overall alpha level while accounting for covariates (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Minimally, the number of subjects required per group (or level of the independent variable) should exceed the number of dependent variables (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2008; Swanson & Holton, 2005) to conduct a MANOVA/MANCOVA. A priori power analysis required a sample size of 84, with 21 subjects in each group.

The assumptions for MANOVA/MANCOVA are as follows:

- 1) The observations are independent. (Violation of this assumption is very serious).

- 2) The observations on the dependent variables follow a multivariate normal distribution in each group. (This assumption is robust with respect to committing a Type I error. No studies on effect of skewness on power, but platykurtosis attenuates power).
- 3) The population covariance matrices for the p dependent variables are equal. (This assumption is conditionally robust if group sizes are equal, or within 1.5) (Stevens, 2002, p. 257).

The scale of measurement assumption for MANCOVA suggests that data collected for the dependent variable must be measured on the interval or ratio level (Howell, 2004). The dependent variables in this study were measured with Likert-type scale items, which provided ordinal data. MANCOVA assumes interval data are used for analyses, however according to Jaccard and Wan (1996, p.4), “for many statistical tests, rather severe departures (from intervalness) do not seem to affect Type I and Type II errors dramatically; especially if a 5 or 7 point scale is used” (cited in Simon & Goes, 2013).

A MANOVA/MANCOVA is preferable to a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) when the researcher seeks compare several dependent variables to the independent variable. Conducting a series of ANOVA would expose the results of the study to “excessive inflation of experimentwise Type I and Type II error rates” (Haase & Ellis, 1987, p. 404). The experimentwise error rate is defined as, “the probability of making one or more Type I errors in a series of analyses of dependent variables” (Haase & Ellis, 1987, p. 405). Running MANOVA/MANCOVA allows the researcher to control for experimentwise error rates (Haase & Ellis, 1987).

According to Raykov and Maroulides (2008), MANOVA may not yield a representative result when there is an excessive correlation among the dependent variables. Ideally, the

relationship between them should be no more than moderate where there is negative correlation; positively correlated variables should range between .30 and .90 (Mayers, 2013). A Pearson's correlation was calculated for each of the main effects. The three variables measuring engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption were intercorrelated, at $r = .715$ or above which is considered a strong correlation (Cohen, 1992). The correlation between the organizational commitment variables: affective and continuance was a weak negative correlation, $r = -.153$. The correlation between the job satisfaction variables was varied, and ranged from $r = .243$ to $r = .731$. The correlation between the mentoring function variables: psychosocial and career related was $r = .660$.

Prior to analysis, data were tested for normality. In the event the data were not suitable for traditional MANCOVA, data ranks would need to be created to develop a nonparametric equivalent test of medians (Anderson, 2001; Finch, 2005). The distributions of the variables were tested using a univariate test of normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test in SPSS (Version 23). Shapiro-Wilk test showed significant results ($p < .05$) across some groups for several of the dependent variables, indicating that the normality assumption for work-related stress was violated, however when error variances in the MANOVA/MANCOVA exceed about 20, then meeting these assumptions completely is less problematic owing to the robustness of the results. Also, because factorial MANOVA/MANCOVA is considered robust against non-normality especially with moderate or large samples (Green & Salkind, 2010), the chosen test was still deemed appropriate. Further, when preliminary MANCOVA were run on each of the main dependent variables, a test for equal variances among the groups was conducted. Results of these tests for normality and equal variances provided sufficient justification for running a MANOVA/MANCOVA. Cronbach's alphas for each scale measuring the dependent variables

were all over .70, except for the combined commitment scale ($\alpha = .67$) and coworkers job satisfaction scale ($\alpha = .68$). The alpha values are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Cronbach Alphas for Dependent Variables

Dependent Variable	
Mentor Functions	.96
Psychosocial Functions	.94
Career Related Functions	.92
Work Engagement	.94
Vigor	.85
Dedication	.88
Absorption	.84
Organizational Commitment	.67
Affective Commitment	.80
Continuance Commitment	.82
Job Satisfaction	.94
Pay	.85
Promotion	.77
Supervision	.86
Fringe Benefits	.85
Contingent Rewards	.86
Operating Conditions	.70
Coworkers	.68
Nature of Work	.81
Communication	.75

Table 5

Research questions, variables, and statistical tests for the current study.

Independent Variable: Employment Profile (6 groups: aspiring academics, career enders, freelancers, specialists, true teachers, and others)

Research Question	Dependent Variable	Data Analysis
1. What are the differences in desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on employment profile?	Mentor Functions	MANCOVA (control for employment status and number of years teaching)
a. What are the differences in desired psychosocial mentoring functions based on their employment profiles?	Psychosocial Functions	
b. What are the differences in desired career-related mentoring functions based on their employment profiles?	Career Related Functions	
2. What are the differences in work engagement of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?	Work Engagement	MANCOVA (control for employment status and union membership status)
a. What are the differences in vigor based on their employment profile?	Vigor	
b. What are the differences in dedication based on their employment profile?	Dedication	
c. What are the differences in absorption based on their employment profile?	Absorption	

Table 5 continued

Research Question	Dependent Variable	Data Analysis
3. What are the differences in organizational commitment of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?	Organizational Commitment	ANOVA (two separate on each dependent variable due to weak correlation)
a. Were there differences in the organizational commitment subscales based on employment profile?	Affective Commitment Continuance Commitment	
4. What are the differences in job satisfaction of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?	Job Satisfaction	ANOVA (total Satisfaction score means) Tukey HSD follow-up test for significant differences
a. Were there differences in the job satisfaction subscales based on employment profile?	Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Coworkers, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards, Operating Conditions, Nature of Work, Communication	
5. What is the demographic profile of contingent faculty? Does Gappa & Leslie's (1993) typology hold? a. What percentages of contingent faculty are represented in each category? b. Are there additional profiles that should be added to the typology based on the results? What are they?		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thematic analysis of open-ended survey responses • Screen open-ended survey responses, code text, identify themes, and create new category(ies) if necessary • Frequencies and percentages of contingent faculty in each of the employment profile categories

Anticipated Results

It was expected that participants would respond to the engagement, satisfaction, commitment, and mentoring functions scales differently based on their reported employment profiles. Previous research had found there were distinctly different and unique reasons contingent faculty choose to serve in such positions (Gappa & Leslie, 1993; Kezar & Sam, 2011). Some past research suggested the number of aspiring academics working as contingent faculty would be large and disproportionate to the other employment profiles (CAW, 2012). Overall, the researcher hoped to gain a better understanding of the contingent faculty workforce population, the reasons and motivations they had for doing their jobs, and how they might be better supported.

Assumptions

The literature on the professional development of contingent faculty is sparse, particularly on the topic of mentoring. It has been necessary to draw from the body of research on mentoring within business and academia, focusing heavily on full-time, regular employees, to establish a framework for study. While there are many differences in the work experiences and employment situations, between tenure-track and contingent faculty, it can be assumed their common responsibility—to educate students in a higher education setting— makes them comparable groups in terms of identifying their mentoring needs, as they relate to teaching. Also, since Gappa and Leslie (1993) have identified “aspiring academics,” and Coalition on the Academic Workforce report (CAW, 2012) has indicated potentially large numbers of this employment category of contingent faculty, the research and service prong of academic productivity may remain of interest for contingent faculty in the future.

Limitations

The independent variable in the current study, employment profile was adapted from a study, which was focused on part-time faculty (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The current study included full-time and part-time contingent faculty. More than one-quarter of full-time survey respondents did not identify with any of the four employment profiles (26%). Although participants were given the opportunity and provided an open-ended response in lieu of selecting one of the four employment profile categories, this may have deterred some full-time faculty from completing the survey.

The survey response rate (13.59%) was quite low according to Babbie (2012) who recommends at least a 70% response rate. Groves (2006) suggests that lower response rates may not necessarily alter survey estimates. Measures were taken to minimize the effects of nonresponse in the current study. Variation within the survey responses were examined by subsetting respondents--early and late responders—according to Groves (2006) and compared using a t-test. The researcher found no significant differences between the two subsets. The demographic data were also compared to similar estimates from another “more accurate source” (Groves, 2006, p. 655).

Despite these efforts, the survey data may not be generalizable of all contingent faculty. The researcher established a systematic method for identifying potential respondents. First, this was accomplished by pinpointing institutions in different regions of the United States; next by contacting several types of institutions (i.e. research universities, state and private colleges, and community colleges). Additionally, individuals were contacted based on their job titles and email addresses being listed on the institution’s website. The researcher found that several institutions did not list contingent faculty within faculty directories, and so the information was not readily

available. This discovery further confirmed the suspicion there may be a large number of contingent faculty members who are not listed as a member of a department's faculty. The failed attempts to locate contingent faculty on some institutions' websites may represent a segment of the contingent faculty population who are not well integrated into their organizations.

Another potential limitation in the data analysis is the thematic analysis, which was performed to develop the new employment profile categories, *true teachers* and *others*. The open-ended responses provided by participants were analyzed for major themes using a methodical process, however interpretation of responses by the researcher is subject to bias. While every effort was made to objectively categorize open-ended responses based on their content related to the criteria set, the responses themselves might not have effectively communicated participant's intended message. In an effort to increase trustworthiness (validity) and dependability (reliability) of the quantitative analysis, the researcher sought an unbiased analysis of the data by two peer debriefers. The peer debriefers concurred with the overall categorizations of the narrative responses with few (5 total) exceptions. (see Appendix L for the peer debriefers' responses). It is important to note that during observation of the true teachers narrative responses, one debriefer identified three responses, which could have been placed in either the *specialist* or *freelancer* categories.

Delimitations

Since many of the issues, which are attributed to the trend in contingent faculty appointments, center on teaching (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Jacoby, 2006), this study will limit examination to instructional faculty, and not include research-only faculty. Although this study will not specifically examine research-only faculty, it should be

noted that research-only appointments are also a growing trend in institutions of higher education (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

Summary

A justification for a quantitative survey design was presented, along with examples of related research designs within the body of mentoring, engagement and organizational outcome research. A description of the survey instrument used to collect data was provided, along with sample questions and existing psychometric data for each scale. Cross-sectional survey-structured design was recommended, as it allows participants to be tested at a point in time. Optimal sample size for the study population was estimated to be 84 (21 in each employment profile group) based on the result of a power analysis, while purposive and snowball sampling methods were identified as the most feasible sampling methods for this study.

The population from which the sample was drawn, are contingent faculty in the working in institutions of higher education in the United States, about 1.4 million (Curtis, 2014). A representative sample of this population was drawn from 1,500 COCAL listserv subscribers, social networking contacts and colleagues, social media websites, and faculty directories on institutional websites.

Four previously validated and reliable scales were combined to develop the instrument for this study. The combined instrument has been deemed appropriate because it addresses all of the constructs that are identified in the purpose and problem statement. A pilot of the survey was conducted prior to data collection to establish reliability.

An online self-administered surveys was distributed to collect data. Data were analyzed in SPSS (Version 23). Justification was made for the selection of MANCOVA as the primary

statistical analyses for these data. Finally, assumptions, limitations, delimitations of the study design were outlined.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were differences in the work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile.

The overarching research questions for this study are below. A detailed list of research questions, along with sub-questions can be found in Appendix A.

- 1) *What are the differences in desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on employment profile?*
- 2) *What are the differences in work engagement of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
- 3) *What are the differences in organizational commitment of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
- 4) *What are the differences in job satisfaction of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
- 5) *What is the demographic profile of contingent faculty? Does Gappa & Leslie's (1993) typology hold?*

IBM's SPSS software (Version 23) was used to conduct all statistical analyses reported in this study. The analyses carried out to address each research question are outlined below.

Results of Qualitative Data Analysis

The designated independent variable was the nominal variable, employment profile. While 155 of the 210—nearly 74% of cases analyzed in this study were grouped in one of the existing four employment profiles developed by Gappa and Leslie (1993) (i.e. aspiring academics, career-enders, freelancers, and specialists), the remaining respondents (26%) provided a text description of their reasons for serving as a contingent faculty member. Each response was coded and analyzed for meaningful relationships and type construction, and characterization of the constructed types (Kluge, 2000). Of the qualitative responses that were provided by participants, only one emerged as a true independent category. The employment profile, *True Teachers* was created. While most true teachers are full-time non-tenure-track employees, about 20% teach part-time. Most true teachers—61.8% report that they do not have a terminal degree. In general, true teachers have no desire to obtain a position on the tenure track; in fact, these individuals enjoy the rewards of teaching without service or research obligations. Many members of the true teachers group stated they were once interested in pursuing the tenure track, however over time, they had grown to appreciate their teaching-only positions. Finally, about 10% of the narrative descriptions were placed into a group labeled *others*, as reasons for contingent work were quite varied, or did not provide the researcher with characteristics required to place them in another group. There were two themes that emerged within the open-ended responses comprising the *others* group. The first theme referred to a lacking qualifications. Most of the responses under this theme cited the fact that the faculty member did not possess a terminal degree, and therefore did not qualify for a tenure-track position. It may be assumed these individuals would have preferred a tenure-track position, however the researcher was not at liberty to make that assumption. Also, based on the numbers of respondents who reported not

having a terminal degree (see Table 8), it can be seen that this characteristic was present throughout all of the employment profiles. The second theme identified within the *others* group consisted of responses from current doctoral students, which could have been deduced from the others category. A decision was made by the researcher not to break up this group. These responses provided information outside of the essence of the question, and therefore did not justify the creation of an additional category.

A break down of the six employment profile groups observed in this analysis is provided in Table 6.

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentages of Employment Profile Groups (N = 210)

	Frequency	%
Aspiring Academic	70	33.3
Career-Ender	20	9.5
Freelancer	38	18.1
Specialist	27	12.9
True Teacher	34	16.4
Other	21	10.0

Descriptive Statistics

The data covered in this section address Research Question 5: What is the demographic profile of contingent faculty? Does Gappa & Leslie's (1993) typology hold? (a) What percentages of faculty are represented in each category? (b) Are there additional profiles that should be added to the typology based on the results? What are they?

Table 7 provides the numbers of contingent faculty within each employment profile category, means, and standard deviations. While the tests of the data focused on differences between groups, Table 7 provides mean scores for each group compared to the possible score range. For example, while the others and aspiring academic groups had the highest mean score in the psychosocial mentoring scale, their scores were quite low ($M = 31.48$ and $M = 29.90$, respectively) compared to a possible high score of 70.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations by Employment Profile Category

Dependent Variables		Independent Variable: Employment Profile					
		Aspiring Academics	Career Enders	Specialists	Freelancers	True Teachers	Others
<i>Score Range: 23 - 115</i> Mentor Functions	<i>Score Range: 14 – 70</i> Psychosocial	n = 70 M = 29.90 SD = 4.52	n = 20 M = 26.50 SD = 3.40	n = 27 M = 28.78 SD = 3.72	n = 38 M = 29.13 SD = 4.47	n = 34 M = 28.29 SD = 5.86	n = 21 M = 31.48 SD = 9.96
	<i>Score Range: 9 – 45</i> Career Related	n = 70 M = 36.57 SD = 5.65	n = 20 M = 31.05 SD = 5.87	n = 27 M = 32.33 SD = 4.77	n = 38 M = 35.79 SD = 5.73	n = 34 M = 34.41 SD = 7.82	n = 21 M = 34.29 SD = 6.22

Table 7 continued

Dependent Variables		Independent Variable: Employment Profile					
		Aspiring Academics	Career Enders	Specialists	Freelancers	True Teachers	Others
Score Range: 17 – 102 Engagement (M=73.55, SD=13.70)	Score Range: 6 – 36 Vigor	n = 70 M = 25.29 SD = 5.43	n = 20 M = 28.95 SD = 4.48	n = 27 M = 26.89 SD = 4.85	n = 38 M = 23.84 SD = 4.59	n = 34 M = 25.94 SD = 5.55	n = 21 M = 25.10 SD = 4.87
	Score Range: 5 – 30 Dedication	n = 70 M = 22.40 SD = 5.01	n = 20 M = 25.60 SD = 3.42	n = 27 M = 24.63 SD = 3.28	n = 38 M = 21.71 SD = 4.52	n = 34 M = 23.32 SD = 4.29	n = 21 M = 22.19 SD = 4.12
	Score Range: 6 – 36 Absorption	n = 70 M = 25.01 SD = 5.86	n = 20 M = 27.80 SD = 4.40	n = 27 M = 25.11 SD = 4.97	n = 38 M = 22.79 SD = 5.08	n = 34 M = 24.88 SD = 5.23	n = 21 M = 25.24 SD = 4.50
Score Range: 12 – 84 Commitment (M=48.89, SD=10.97)	Score Range: 6 - 42 Affective Commitment	n = 70 M = 22.71 SD = 8.81	n = 20 M = 27.90 SD = 8.81	n = 27 M = 25.81 SD = 6.40	n = 38 M = 24.66 SD = 6.67	n = 34 M = 28.18 SD = 7.56	n = 21 M = 26.24 SD = 8.17
	Score Range: 6 – 42 Continuance Commitment	n = 70 M = 27.96 SD = 8.10	n = 20 M = 15.55 SD = 5.27	n = 27 M = 17.07 SD = 7.10	n = 38 M = 24.95 SD = 6.67	n = 34 M = 24.32 SD = 9.64	n = 21 M = 22.48 SD = 8.27

Table 7 continued

Dependent Variables		Independent Variable: Employment Profile					
		Aspiring Academics	Career Enders	Specialists	Freelancers	True Teachers	Others
<i>Score Range: 36 – 216</i> Satisfaction <i>(M=137.76, SD=30.27)</i>	<i>Score Range:</i> <i>4 – 24</i> Pay	n = 70 M = 8.04 SD = 4.25	n = 20 M = 13.85 SD = 5.24	n = 27 M = 13.44 SD = 4.70	n = 38 M = 9.03 SD = 4.66	n = 34 M = 12.74 SD = 5.79	n = 21 M = 11.57 SD = 5.47
	<i>Score Range:</i> <i>4 - 24</i> Promotion	n = 70 M = 8.10 SD = 3.75	n = 20 M = 12.35 SD = 3.98	n = 27 M = 12.22 SD = 3.98	n = 38 M = 9.37 SD = 3.60	n = 34 M = 11.44 SD = 5.03	n = 21 M = 10.62 SD = 5.33
	<i>Score Range:</i> <i>4 - 24</i> Supervision	n = 70 M = 19.00 SD = 4.41	n = 20 M = 20.65 SD = 4.36	n = 27 M = 20.37 SD = 3.81	n = 38 M = 18.97 SD = 5.48	n = 34 M = 19.74 SD = 5.35	n = 21 M = 20.90 SD = 2.91
	<i>Score Range:</i> <i>4 - 24</i> Fringe Benefits	n = 70 M = 11.89 SD = 5.99	n = 20 M = 14.95 SD = 5.78	n = 27 M = 13.74 SD = 4.65	n = 38 M = 12.61 SD = 5.48	n = 34 M = 17.26 SD = 5.02	n = 21 M = 12.76 SD = 5.84
	<i>Score Range:</i> <i>4 - 24</i> Contingent Rewards	n = 70 M = 11.99 SD = 5.42	n = 20 M = 16.15 SD = 4.98	n = 27 M = 16.15 SD = 4.42	n = 38 M = 12.89 SD = 5.17	n = 34 M = 16.18 SD = 5.51	n = 21 M = 14.05 SD = 5.92
	<i>Score Range:</i> <i>4 - 24</i> Operating Conditions	n = 70 M = 14.44 SD = 4.31	n = 20 M = 17.00 SD = 5.73	n = 27 M = 16.26 SD = 3.95	n = 38 M = 15.05 SD = 4.14	n = 34 M = 15.18 SD = 4.56	n = 21 M = 14.62 SD = 3.97

Table 7 continued

Dependent Variables		Independent Variable: Employment Profile					
		Aspiring Academics	Career Enders	Specialists	Freelancers	True Teachers	Others
<i>Score Range:</i> 36 – 216 Satisfaction (continued)	<i>Score Range:</i> 4 - 24 Coworkers	n = 70 M = 18.60 SD = 3.68	n = 20 M = 20.30 SD = 3.15	n = 27 M = 19.81 SD = 2.45	n = 38 M = 18.82 SD = 3.38	n = 34 M = 19.26 SD = 4.34	n = 21 M = 20.29 SD = 2.94
	<i>Score Range:</i> 4 - 24 Nature of Work	n = 70 M = 19.34 SD = 3.61	n = 20 M = 21.80 SD = 2.55	n = 27 M = 21.15 SD = 2.27	n = 38 M = 19.71 SD = 3.39	n = 34 M = 20.44 SD = 3.40	n = 21 M = 20.05 SD = 3.94
	<i>Score Range:</i> 4 - 24 Communication	n = 70 M = 14.03 SD = 4.24	n = 20 M = 16.90 SD = 5.21	n = 27 M = 16.89 SD = 4.60	n = 38 M = 14.79 SD = 5.24	n = 34 M = 16.62 SD = 4.96	n = 21 M = 16.19 SD = 4.66

The sample included a total of 210 survey respondents. In terms of gender, women were the largest group of participants (55.2%). Men constituted 43.8%, and 1% identified their gender as “other.” The vast majority of respondents were Caucasian (89%), followed by Hispanic/Latino (4.8%), Black/African American (2.9%), Asian (0.5%), and 9% identified as “Other.” One-third of respondents reported they were married with dependent children at home (33.3%), 34.3% of respondents reported they were married, and had no dependent children (34.3%), 25.2% of respondents reported being single with no children, and 6.2% of respondents reported being single with dependent children at home. The average age was 49 ($M = 48.91$, $SD = 12.71$) ranging from 25 to 77 years of age. Over half of the respondents had a household income of over \$70,000 per year (58%), followed by 11% making between \$40,001- \$50,000, 7.1% reporting \$50,001-\$60,000 and 30,001-\$40,000. A combined 9.5% reported making \$30,000 or less. Participants covered all regions of the United States, with 33 states, and Washington D.C. represented in the study. Most of the sample frequency came from Nevada, Colorado, California, and Minnesota. See Table 9.

Respondents represented 33 states and Washington D.C., and served as contingent faculty within a variety of academic disciplines and institution types. The most common institution types were doctoral and research institutions (30%), and 29% were working in public baccalaureate colleges; 16% were from Masters institutions, and 13% from private baccalaureate colleges.

The majority of respondents (61%) reported they were working part-time as contingent faculty, and 39% were working in full-time positions. The vast majority of respondents had either a Masters or doctorate degree; 47% of had a Masters degree and 47% had a doctorate or other professional terminal degree. The majority of respondents (55%) reported having a terminal degree in their field. Only 17% stated that they were members of a union in connection

with their work as a contingent faculty member. The majority of respondents (84%) reported teaching in-person, 20% teach online courses, and 22% reported teaching hybrid (combination format) courses.

The contingent faculty participants were quite experienced; as over 25% of respondents had been teaching at the college level between 4 and 7 years. The next highest group had been teaching 8-11 years (21%). Just over 11% of respondents had been teaching for 12-15 years (11.9%). In addition, 11% had been teaching 16-20 years, and 9% had been teaching for over 25 years. In terms of education levels, the vast majority of respondents had a Master's degree (46.7%), followed by a Doctorate degree (43.8%). A small percentage (2.4%) had a Bachelor's degree, and another professional degree (e.g. J.D., M.D.) (2.4%). Lastly, 4.8% reported "other" as they noted multiple Master's degrees, terminal Master's degrees, A.B.D., and post-Master's certificates. Overall, 55.2% of respondents reported having a terminal degree in their respective disciplines, and 44.3% reported they did not have a terminal degree. Participants represented 61 different academic disciplines, with the highest number --47 (22.6%) in English, followed by 7.2% in Business, and 6.3% in Psychology (see Table 10). The majority of respondents were not union members (83.3%), while 15.7% stated that they were union members.

Table 8

Frequencies and Percentages of Demographics of Respondents (n = 120)

	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	92	43.8
Female	116	55.2
Other	2	1.0
Race/Ethnicity		
Asian	1	0.5
African American	6	2.9
Hispanic	10	4.8
Caucasian	187	89.0
Other	6	2.9
Marital/Family Status		
Married with Children	77	35.0
Married (no children)	79	35.0
Single with Children	13	6.0
Single (no children)	54	24.0
Household Income		
0-\$10,000	3	1.4
\$10,001-\$20,000	6	2.9
\$20,001-\$30,000	11	5.2
\$30,001-\$40,000	15	7.1
\$40,001-\$50,000	23	11.0
\$50,001-\$60,000	15	7.1
\$60,001-\$70,000	14	6.7
\$70,000+	122	58.1
Education Level		
Bachelor's Degree	5	2.4
Master's Degree	98	46.7
Doctorate Degree	92	43.8
Other Professional Degree (i.e. J.D. D.D.S)	5	2.4
Other	10	4.8

Table 8 continued

	Frequency	%
Years Teaching College Level		
>1 year	4	1.9
1-3 years	25	11.9
4-7 years	53	25.2
8-11 years	44	21.0
12-15 years	25	11.9
16-20 years	23	11.0
21-25 years	17	8.1
Over 25 years	19	9.0
Time in Current Position		
>1 year	19	9.0
1-3 years	48	22.9
4-7 years	58	27.6
8-11 years	42	20.0
12-15 years	15	7.1
16-19 years	10	4.8
20+ years	18	8.6
Terminal Degree		
Yes	116	55.2
No	93	44.3
Institution Type		
Doctoral and Research	62	29.5
Masters	31	14.8
Public Baccalaureate	61	29.0
Private Baccalaureate	26	12.4
Public Associates	16	7.6
For Profit	3	1.4
Specialized	1	0.5
Other	9	4.3
Union Status		
Member	33	15.7
Non-Member	175	83.3

Note: Variable frequencies not adding to 210 and percentages not adding to 100, reflect missing data.

Table 9

Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents by State (n = 208)

State	Frequency	%	State	Frequency	%
--	2	1.0	MN	14	6.7
AL	1	.5	MT	3	1.4
AR	4	1.9	ND	1	.5
AZ	10	4.8	NJ	3	1.4
CA	17	8.1	NM	2	1.0
CO	18	8.6	NV	28	13.3
CT	1	.5	NY	4	1.9
DC	1	.5	OH	14	6.7
HI	9	4.3	OR	3	1.4
IA	1	.5	PA	3	1.4
ID	10	4.8	SD	4	1.9
IL	4	1.9	TN	1	.5
IN	2	1.0	TX	7	3.3
KS	3	1.4	UT	1	.5
LA	3	1.4	WA	11	5.2
MA	12	5.7	WI	3	1.4
MD	1	.5	WY	3	1.4
MI	6	2.9	Total	210	100.0

Note: -- indicates non-response.

Table 10

Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents by Discipline (N=208)

	Discipline	Frequency	Percent
1	Accountancy	2	1.0%
2	Agriculture	1	0.5%
3	Anatomy and Physiology	1	0.5%
4	Anthropology	9	4.3%
5	Art	2	1.0%
6	Art History	1	0.5%
7	Aviation Meteorology	1	0.5%
8	Biology	12	5.8%
9	Business	15	7.2%
10	Chemistry	7	3.4%
11	Communication	10	4.8%
12	Computer Science	1	0.5%
13	Counselor Education	1	0.5%
14	Criminal Justice	1	0.5%
15	Early Childhood Education	1	0.5%
16	Economics	6	2.9%
17	Education	9	4.3%
18	Emergency Medical Services	1	0.5%
19	Engineering	1	0.5%
20	English	47	22.6%
21	Environmental Studies	1	0.5%
22	Finance	1	0.5%
23	Fire Science	1	0.5%
24	Geography	4	1.9%
25	Geology	1	0.5%
26	Global Studies	1	0.5%
27	Government	1	0.5%
28	Health Sciences	2	1.0%
29	History	5	2.4%
30	Humanities	3	1.4%
31	Immunology	1	0.5%
32	Industrial Design	1	0.5%
33	Industrial Engineering	2	1.0%
34	Information Systems Management	1	0.5%

Table 10 continued

	Discipline	Frequency	Percent
35	Information Technology Management	2	1.0%
36	Interdisciplinary	1	0.5%
37	Interior Design	1	0.5%
38	Journalism	1	0.5%
39	Law	2	1.0%
40	Literature Pedagogy	1	0.5%
41	Management	3	1.4%
42	Mathematics	3	1.4%
43	Mechanical Engineering	1	0.5%
44	Natural Sciences	1	0.5%
45	Nuclear Medicine	1	0.5%
46	Nursing	1	0.5%
47	Philosophy	2	1.0%
48	Political Science	4	1.9%
49	Psychology	13	6.3%
50	Public Administration	1	0.5%
51	Public Health	1	0.5%
52	Science Education	1	0.5%
53	Social Work	2	1.0%
54	Sociology	3	1.4%
55	Sports Law / Sports Management	1	0.5%
56	Statistics	2	1.0%
57	Student Affairs Graduate Preparation Program	1	0.5%
58	Women's and Gender Studies	1	0.5%
59	World Languages	1	0.5%
60	Spanish and ESL	1	0.5%
61	Physics	2	1.0%
			Total
			100%

The majority of respondents stated they were working part-time (60.5%), and 39.5% were working on a full-time basis. The vast majority of respondents reported they work in a doctoral and research institution as a contingent faculty member (29.5%), followed by a public baccalaureate college (29%), and a master's institution (14.8%). Just over 12% of respondents work in a private baccalaureate college (12.4%), followed by a public associate's institution (7.6%), for-profit institution (1.4%), specialized school (.5%), and "other" (4.3%). Most respondents reported they were working for only one institution ($M = 1.30$, $SD = 0.70$) with a range between 1 and 6. When respondents were asked how many courses they were teaching at the time the survey was taken, and the average was 3 ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 1.83$). When asked for the highest number of courses they have taught at once as a contingent faculty member, the average was nearly 4 ($M = 3.97$, $SD = 2.65$). Those respondents reporting their pay per course ($n = 127$) reported an average of \$3,847 per course ($M = 3847.04$, $Mdn = 3,000.00$, $SD = 2369.99$) with a range of pay between \$1,000 per course and as high as \$18,000 per course. The majority of respondents taught English (22.6%), followed by Business (15%).

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables for Respondents

	n	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Age	187	48.91	12.71	25	77
Number of Courses Currently Teaching	210	2.90	1.83	0	14
Highest Number of Courses Taught at One Time	209	3.97	2.65	1	21
Number of Institutions	207	1.30	0.70	1	6

Most respondents indicated teaching in-person was their primary format (84.3%), followed by online teaching (20.5%), and hybrid courses, which use a combination of the two formats (21%). See Figure 7.



Figure 7: Primary Teaching Format (Percentage of total responses)

Note: Respondents were allowed to select one or more formats, therefore the total percentage will not add up to 100.

Finally, respondents were asked about their personal mentoring history. The majority of respondents indicated they had been mentored at some point in time in their past (58.6%), while 41.4% stated they had never had a mentor. Further, respondents were asked whether they previously had a mentor in their role as a contingent faculty member. The vast majority of respondents had no mentor in connection with their contingent faculty positions (68.1%), and 31% of respondents reporting having a mentor in connection with their contingent faculty positions. See Table 12.

Table 12

Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents Mentoring History (N = 210)

		Frequency	%
Have you ever had a mentor (in your life)?	Yes	123	58.6
	No	87	41.4
Have you had a mentor in your role as a contingent faculty member? **	Yes	65	31.0
	No	143	68.1

**Indicates two missing responses.

Test for Nonresponse Bias

As previously noted in Chapter 3, nonresponse error can occur “when the people selected for the survey who do not respond are different from those who do respond in a way that is important to the study” (Dillman, et al., 2009, p. 17). Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggest that late responders are similar to non-responders. One way to test for non-response error is to compare early responses to late responders. For this study, the first 30 respondents who completed the survey, were considered early responders; and late responders were the last 30 respondents to complete the survey. Key variables from each group were compared using t-tests to test for significant differences between means (e.g. Connors & Elliot, 1994; Paganini-Hill,

Hsu, Chao & Ross, 1993). Refer to Table 13 to note there were no significant differences between early and late responders.

Table 13

Test for Nonresponse Bias: t-Test of independent and dependent variables for early and late respondents

	Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t value	Sig level (2 tailed)
Employment Profile	Early	30	3.4333	2.81233	.776	.441
	Late	30	2.9667	1.71169		
Engagement	Early	30	73.3000	13.48089	.855	.396
	Late	30	70.4333	12.47807		
Commitment	Early	30	44.1667	9.68854	-1.313	.194
	Late	30	47.5333	10.16326		
Satisfaction	Early	30	136.7333	30.88682	.180	.857
	Late	30	135.3333	29.16934		

Table 13 continued

	Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t value	Sig level (2 tailed)
Psychosocial Mentoring	Early	30	29.1000	8.79008	-.578	.566
	Late	30	30.1333	4.32900		
Career-Related Mentoring	Early	30	34.3667	5.76842	-.493	.624
	Late	30	35.1333	6.26283		
Race/Ethnicity	Early	30	4.0667	1.01483	.126	.900
	Late	30	4.0333	1.03335		
Gender	Early	30	1.6333	.55605	.728	.470
	Late	30	1.5333	.50742		
Employment Status	Early	30	1.8667	.34575	1.287	.203
	Late	30	1.7333	.44978		

Assumptions of Normality

Prior to inferential statistical analysis, the data were evaluated for the following assumptions: normally distributed data, equality of error variances, homogeneity of covariance matrices, and independence of observations (Stevens, 2002).

Normally distributed data

The distributions of the variables were tested using the Shapiro-Wilk univariate test of normality. The Shapiro-Wilk test showed significant results ($p < .05$) across some groups for several of the dependent variables, indicating the normality assumption for employment profile, however when error variances in the MANOVA/MANCOVA exceed about 20, then meeting these assumptions completely is less problematic owing to the robustness of the results. Also, because factorial MANOVA/MANCOVA is considered robust against non-normality especially with moderate or large samples (Green & Salkind, 2010) the chosen test was still deemed appropriate. Further, measurements for skewness and kurtosis were within the acceptable range. Histograms were created for each outcome measure and visually inspected to ensure that skewness and kurtosis levels were within range (see Appendix R). Results of the tests for normality and equal variances provided sufficient justification for utilizing a standard MANOVA or MANCOVA. The results of the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality are in Tables 13, 14, and 15.

Table 14

Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test Results Engagement and Commitment Variables

	Vigor (Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig)	Dedication (Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig)	Absorption (Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig)	Affective Commitment Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Continuance Commitment Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig
Aspiring Academic	.960, 70, .026*	.955, 70, .013*	.967, 70, .060	.975, 70, .179	.957, 70, .017*
Career Ender	.927, 20, .134	.936, 20, .198	.968, 20, .716	.955, 20, .452	.948, 20, .334
Freelancer	.967, 38, .320	.962, 38, .215	.962, 38, .218	.968, 38, .333	.967, 38, .309
Specialist	.959, 27, .358	.932, 27, .078	.945, 27, .165	.938, 27, .109	.942, 27, .137
True Teacher	.939, 34, .056	.933, 34, .038*	.982, 34, .834	.963, 34, .296	.968, 34, .402
Other	.943, 21, .250	.967, 21, .213	.968, 21, .692	.962, 21, .557	.956, 21, .433

*Note: Although some values were significant ($p < .05$), the results were not significant overall.

Table 15

Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test Results Job Satisfaction Variables

	Pay Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Promotion Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Supervision Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Fringe Benefits Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Contingent Rewards Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig
Aspiring Academic	.862, 70, .000*	.904, 70, .000*	.910, 70, .000*	.936, 70, .001*	.956, 70, .015*
Career Ender	.954, 20, .439	.982, 20, .956	.786, 20, .001*	.951, 20, .376	.945, 20, .302
Freelancer	.892, 38, .002*	.954, 38, .119	.827, 38, .000*	.957, 38, .154	.958, 38, .167
Specialist	.954, 27, .261	.953, 27, .260	.850, 27, .001*	.973, 27, .690	.961, 27, .388
True Teacher	.949, 34, .118	.955, 34, .177	.786, 34, .000*	.932, 34, .036*	.945, 34, .089
Other	.955, 21, .429	.898, 21, .033*	.880, 21, .015	.952, 21, .376	.928, 21, .127

*Note: Although some values were significant ($p < .05$), the results were not significant overall.

Table 15 continued

	Operating Conditions Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Coworkers Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Nature of Work Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Communication Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig
Aspiring Academic	.949, 70, .007*	.957, 70, .016*	.904, 70, .000*	.984, 70, .509
Career Ender	.912, 20, .070	.916, 20, .083	.798, 20, .001*	.881, 20, .019*
Freelancer	.972, 38, .434	.948, 38, .074	.933, 38, .025*	.964, 38, .261
Specialist	.970, 27, .606	.958, 27, .339	.915, 27, .030*	.960, 27, .363
True Teacher	.968, 34, .404	.875, 34, .001*	.896, 34, .004*	.938, 34, .052
Other	.970, 21, .722	.920, 21, .085	.842, 21, .003*	.969, 21, .706

*Note: Although some values were significant ($p < .05$), the results were not significant overall.

Table 16

Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test Results Mentoring Functions Variables

	Psychosocial Mentoring Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig	Career-Related Mentoring Shapiro-Wilk statistic, df, sig
Aspiring Academic	.898, 70, .000*	.953, 70, .010*
Career Ender	.924, 20, .119	.894, 20, .032*
Freelancer	.936, 38, .031*	.968, 38, .350
Specialist	.936, 27, .099	.961, 27, .397
True Teacher	.903, 34, .006*	.941, 34, .065
Other	.664, 21, .000*	.948, 21, .315

* Note: Although some values were significant ($p < .05$), the results were not significant overall.

Equality of error variances

To test the assumption for equality of error variances on each of the main dependent variables (mentoring functions, engagement, commitment, and job satisfaction), Levene's test for equality of error variances among the groups was conducted. The results of the test were not significant, ($p > .05$), and therefore the analysis was continued for interpretation. The results of Levene's test appear in Appendices N through Q.

Homogeneity of covariance matrices

To test the assumption of homogeneity of covariance matrices, Box's test was used for the covariate outcome measures. The results of this test were not significant, and therefore the analysis was continued for interpretation. The results of the Box's test are presented in tables following each test result. See Appendix N through Q for all pretests (including Pearson's correlation, Levene's test of equality of error variances, and Box's test of equality of covariance matrices).

Inferential Statistics

This section addresses Research Questions 1-4. Each overarching research question is listed, followed by the corresponding analysis.

Research Question 1.

What are the differences in desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on employment profile?

Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to assess for mean group differences between mentoring functions—*psychosocial and career related* (dependent variables). According to Cole, Maxwell, Arvey, and Salas (1994) there must be intercorrelation between dependent variables to conduct MANOVA/MANCOVA.

The control variables in this analysis included employment status (full or part-time), number of years teaching, whether the participant reported ever having a mentor, and whether the participant reported having a mentor specifically supporting them within their role as a contingent faculty member. The results of the analysis found a significant difference in work engagement based on employment profile (independent variable).

With regard to the overall multivariate effect, after controlling for employment status, number of years teaching, history of having a mentor, and history of having mentor as a contingent faculty member, significant differences were found, $\Lambda = .88$, $F(10, 396) = 2.51$, $p = .006$, $\eta^2 = .06$. The effect size of .06 is considered to be of medium strength, and therefore indicates that in addition to statistical significance, the observed between-group differences also have practical significance (Grissom & Kim, 2005). This effect size provides support that the observed differences between employment profile groups are not based on sample size, but rather reflected a true difference between the groups (NCES, 2002). The observed power of .95 exceeded the threshold of .60. The univariate tests showed significant differences for career related functions, $F(5, 198) = 2.87$, $p < .05$. Aspiring academics reported a significantly higher need for career related mentoring functions ($M = 36.57$, $SD = 5.65$) compared with career-enders ($M = 31.37$, $SD = 5.85$) and specialists ($M = 32.53$, $SD = 4.74$). Freelancers expressed a significantly higher need for career related mentoring functions ($M = 35.78$, $SD = 5.73$) than career-enders and specialists.

The career-related mentoring scale included items related to providing sponsorship, exposure, visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. For example, *I would like a mentor who will reduce unnecessary risk that could threaten the possibility of receiving a promotion*, and *I would like a mentor who assigns responsibilities to me that will increase my*

contact with people who may judge your potential advancement. The between-subjects differences on the psychosocial mentoring functions were not significant.

Research Question 2

What are the differences in work engagement of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?

Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to test for mean group differences between the engagement variables—*vigor*, *dedication*, and *absorption*. According to Cole et al. (1994), there must be intercorrelation between dependent variables to conduct MANOVA/MANCOVA (Field, Miles, & Field, 2012). The variables are correlated with Pearson correlations between .715 and .764. See Table 19.

With regard to employment status the overall multivariate effect, after controlling for employment status and union status, significant differences were found, $\Lambda = .88$, $F(15, 546.99) = 1.797$, $p = .032$, $\eta^2 = .04$. The effect size of .04 is considered to be of medium strength, and therefore indicates that in addition to statistical significance, the observed between-group differences also have practical significance (Cohen, 1992).

The univariate tests revealed a significant effect for employment profile on the Vigor, $F(5, 200) = 2.92$, $p < .05$. Career-enders indicated more agreement on the items within the Vigor scale ($M = 28.89$, $SD = 4.59$) compared to all other groups except for specialists. Specialists indicated more agreement with the items within the Vigor scale ($M = 26.89$, $SD = 4.85$) than freelancers ($M = 23.84$, $SD = 4.59$). There was a significant difference found with vigor based on employment profile. Vigor is characterized by an individual's energy toward working, and the willingness to invest effort and persistence in the face of difficulty. Career Enders and Specialists indicated a higher level of vigor than other groups. Specialists typically have secure, well-

paying, engaging work in their fields of expertise, outside of their contingent faculty employment, and therefore it would be expected that they would express a high level of vigor.

Career-enders indicated significantly higher agreement with the items within the Dedication scale ($M = 25.60$, $SD = 3.42$) than aspiring academics ($M = 22.40$, $SD = 5.01$), freelancers ($M = 21.71$, $SD = 4.52$), and others ($M = 22.19$, $SD = 4.12$). Specialists also indicated a significantly higher agreement ($M = 24.63$, $SD = 3.28$) than aspiring academics, freelancers, and others. Career-enders indicated a significantly higher agreement with the items within the Absorption scale ($M = 27.80$, $SD = 4.40$) than aspiring academics ($M = 25.01$, $SD = 5.86$), freelancers ($M = 22.79$, $SD = 5.08$), and true teachers ($M = 24.88$, $SD = 5.23$).

Ultimately, while career enders and specialists were among the most engaged in terms of their vigor, absorption and dedication, aspiring academics reported the lowest levels of engagement compared to other groups.

Research Question 3

What are the differences in organizational commitment of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?

Since there were weak intercorrelations (see Table 21), a multivariate test was forgone, and instead a one-way ANOVA (employment profile) was conducted on each of the two measures of organizational commitment: affective and continuous commitment.

There was a statistically significant difference in affective commitment between groups as determined by the one-way ANOVA $F(5, 204) = 3.07$, $p < .05$. A Tukey HSD post-hoc test revealed that true teachers ($M = 28.18$, $SD = 7.56$) indicated a significantly higher level of affective commitment than aspiring academics ($M = 22.71$, $SD = 8.81$).

There was a statistically significant difference in continuance commitment between groups $F(5, 204) = 12.59, p < .05$). A Tukey HSD post-hoc test revealed aspiring academics ($M = 27.95, SD = 8.09$), freelancers ($M = 24.95, SD = 6.96$), and true teachers ($M = 24.32, SD = 9.64$) indicated a significantly higher level of continuance commitment than career enders ($M = 15.55, SD = 5.27$), and specialists ($M = 17.07, SD = 7.09$). It was expected that specialists would not be as committed to the organization, as they were working primarily for other organizations. True teachers were highly committed to their organizations, which was not entirely surprising, as this group consists largely (79%) of non-tenure-track full-time faculty members. Aspiring academics reported the highest agreement with continuance commitment ($M = 27.95$).

Research Question 4

What are the differences in job satisfaction of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?

A correlation analysis was first conducted on the nine job satisfaction variables to determine whether intercorrelation existed between the variables. Intercorrelation of the dependent variables is required to conduct a multivariate analysis. While most variables were sufficiently intercorrelated, there was a significant result in Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, which tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups. Given that the assumption of equality of covariance was not met, the nine subscales were combined to produce a combined job satisfaction score, and a one-way ANOVA was conducted on job satisfaction based on employment profile.

There was a statistically significant difference between groups as determined by the one-way ANOVA $F(5, 204) = 6.39, p < .001$). A Tukey post-hoc test revealed that aspiring academics indicated a significantly lower job satisfaction score ($M = 125.47, SD = 28.72$) than career-

enders ($M = 153.95$, $SD = 28.58$), specialists ($M = 150.04$, $SD = 24.75$), and true teachers ($M = 148.97$, $SD = 31.74$). There was also a significant difference between the job satisfaction of freelancers ($M = 131.32$, $SD = 26.51$) and career-enders ($M = 153.95$, $SD = 28.58$).

There were significant differences in job satisfaction between aspiring academics and other groups. Aspiring academics indicated the lowest mean job satisfaction score, followed by freelancers. There seems to be an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and career-related mentoring needs. Aspiring academics and freelancers seem less satisfied with their jobs, while they express a significantly higher need for career-related mentoring.

Summary of Findings

The results of this study were presented in this chapter. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were discussed. Overall, participants were categorized into six groups, 4 of which were previously defined by Gappa and Leslie (1993). Two new categories were identified based on a thematic analysis conducted on the open-ended questions. The MANCOVA and ANOVA results indicated that there were differences in the desired mentoring functions, engagement, commitment, and job satisfaction of respondents based on their employment profile category.

Mentor Functions

Research Question 1 examined the differences in desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile, and specifically the differences in the two subscales (psychosocial and career-related) within the Mentoring Functions scale (Noe, 1988a). The results of the MANCOVA, after controlling for employment status, number of years teaching at the college level, life-long mentoring history, and mentoring history as a contingent faculty member, significant differences were found. Univariate tests showed significant differences for career related functions. Aspiring academics and freelancers expressed a

significantly higher desire for career related mentoring functions when compared with career-enders and specialists. The between-subjects differences on the psychosocial mentoring functions were not significant.

Work Engagement

Research Question 2 examined the differences in work engagement of contingent faculty based on their employment profile, and specifically the differences in the three scales within the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004), vigor, dedication, and absorption. The results of a one-way MANCOVA, tested the mean differences between the engagement variables—vigor, dedication, and, absorption. The results of the overall multivariate effect, after controlling for employment status (full-time or part-time), and union membership, significant differences were found based on employment profile. The univariate tests revealed a significant effect for employment profile on all three subscales. Career-enders indicated a significantly higher rate of agreement on all three scales when compared to others, followed by Specialists.

Organizational Commitment

Research Question 3 examined the differences in organizational commitment of contingent faculty based on their employment profile, by combining two subscales within the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991), affective and continuance. The results of a one-way ANOVA, which tested the mean differences in organizational commitment, were that there was a statistically significant difference between groups. A Tukey post-hoc test revealed that true teachers indicated a significantly higher level of commitment than specialists and career-enders. Aspiring academics indicated a significantly higher commitment level than specialists.

Job Satisfaction

Research Question 4 examined the differences in job satisfaction based on employment profile. There was a statistically significant difference between groups as determined by a one-way ANOVA. A Tukey post-hoc test revealed that aspiring academics indicated a significantly lower job satisfaction score than career-enders, specialists, and true teachers. Career-enders had a significantly higher job satisfaction score than freelancers.

It is important to note that the results show that aspiring academics were the most largely represented group, and while they indicated a significantly low job satisfaction rate compared to other groups, their commitment and desire for career related mentoring was significantly high when compared to other groups.

Chapter 5 will provide a summary, discuss implications of the results provided in this chapter, and provide suggestions for future studies in this area.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were differences in the work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile. This chapter concludes this study, and is divided into four major sections. The first section recaps the major themes and gaps within the literature to date. The second section highlights and discusses the implications for the key results reported in Chapter 4. The third section contains implications for practice and policy, and recommendations for faculty, practitioners, and higher education administrators. Lastly, recommendations for further study are provided.

Recap of the Literature

Contingent faculty represent roughly 75% of all instructional faculty in the U.S. higher education system (Curtis, 2014). Much of the existing literature on contingent faculty highlights the disparate treatment, and unfavorable working conditions (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006; Curtis, 2014). The rise of contingent faculty in higher education has also been associated with several negative educational outcomes including lower graduation rates (Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005).

There does seem to be some inconsistency in the literature regarding the needed support and development of contingent faculty. Some studies have found full-time contingent faculty members behave similarly, and express similar development needs as tenure-track faculty (e.g. Umbach, 2007). Other studies have focused primarily on part-time faculty (Gappa & Leslie, 1993; Jacoby, 2006). Gappa and Leslie (1993) provided a way to examine contingent faculty by developing a typology based primarily on academic background, employment history, and career

motivations. Since then, the effort to understand this growing workforce population has been lackluster.

According to Curtis and Jacobe (2006), contingent faculty members do not receive the professional support they need to be successful delivering high quality instruction. Many studies have found contingent faculty are not provided the basic tools and resources they need. While the lack of resources and support might suggest that contingent faculty would have low rates of engagement, commitment, and satisfaction, from a social exchange perspective, there is some research that suggests that the reverse may actually be true. Kezar and Sam (2011) suggested the faculty member's motivations or reasoning for working on a contingent basis may determine their levels of commitment, engagement, and satisfaction. The authors highlight that "while some non-tenure track faculty are dissatisfied with many of their working conditions including salary, benefits, and job insecurity," they may be "satisfied with their overall work and work environment" (Kezar & Sam, 2011, p. 1430).

Discussion of Results

Based on the suggestion that contingent faculty choose their employment situations for several different reasons, this study examined the differences in the work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on employment profile. There were varied reasons provided by the participants for choosing their work as contingent faculty members. As anticipated, a substantial number of participants (26%) elected to provide open-ended responses in lieu of selecting one of the four existing employment profiles. Many respondents supplemented their survey responses with complex explanations for the reasons they choose their work. The researcher received and exchanged several emails from participants who wished to further explain their motivations, and

their experiences. For example, several *true teachers* conceded that they had been aspiring academics at one point in time. However, over time, when they came to a realization that they would not likely obtain a tenure-track appointment, they became content with their positions. In the end, the researcher concluded that contingent faculty do not compose a homogeneous group. In fact, they each have a story, which extends far beyond six employment profiles.

First, it appears that earlier research, which suggested there would be a disproportionately large group of aspiring academics (CAW, 2012) was confirmed by the distribution of employment profiles in the current study. *Aspiring academics*, who accounted for one-third of the participants in this study reported less engagement, lower satisfaction rates, and yet remained significantly more committed to the organizations for which they taught. They reported a relatively high need for career-related mentoring. These findings were not surprising, as the more recent literature in this area highlights the large proportion of contingent faculty who are interested in academia as a long-term career (CAW, 2012), as well as the lack of inclusion and support of contingent faculty (Curtis, 2014). Aspiring academics are teaching as contingent faculty largely because they have not had viable job opportunities on the tenure track. Since this group of faculty seems to be teaching on a contingent basis as a stopgap measure until they secure permanent employment, they naturally would express a need for career-related support. It seems natural that those individuals who are interested in a career in the academe would express a need for career-related mentoring. And according to social exchange theory, levels of engagement and job satisfaction would be expected to decrease as the perceived level of support from their employer decreases. The large proportion of participants teach English, followed by Business. This result was anticipated, as during the recruitment stage, the researcher found departments employing these disciplines seemed to commonly include contingent faculty within

faculty directories. Further, in the Coalition on the Academic Workforce's report including survey responses from nearly 20,000 contingent faculty, Humanities disciplines accounted for 44% of respondents, followed by professional fields (20.5%) (CAW, 2012).

Freelancers have personal reasons for choosing to teach as contingent faculty members. Many freelancers have outside responsibilities that require their attention, and which might take away from their availability for professional development. Further, freelancers may not have access to a network of mentors as the other groups may have, either within their doctoral programs, other academic outlets, within their primary employment environment, or professional associations. This group, by definition does this work because the schedule and flexibility works within the context of their lives, but they also have expressed a significant need for career-related mentoring support. This was not an expected result, however it is interesting to reveal that this group of contingent faculty has professional development needs, as they are likely overlooked for opportunities for development.

Only 32% of aspiring academics and 34% of freelancers reported having access to mentoring as contingent faculty members. Career enders indicated significantly higher levels of engagement than other groups, while only 26% of this group reported having access to mentoring as contingent faculty members. By definition, career enders continue to work as contingent faculty members because they have a desire to remain involved and engaged in education post retirement. These differences related to mentoring history and engagement were anticipated, thus mentoring history was identified as a control variable. It is quite interesting to note that career enders remain comparatively engaged while receiving generally the same levels of support as the other employment profile groups. From a social exchange perspective, the

expectations of career enders may be lower compared to other groups, which may explain the difference in engagement.

Perhaps the most useful result in examining the engagement scales, was that aspiring academics were among the least engaged and satisfied, while they expressed the highest need for career-related mentoring functions. Aspiring academics indicated a high level of commitment to the organizations for which they teach. This was an interesting result; particularly after learning they had significantly low engagement and satisfaction scores compared to the other groups. Aspiring academics may be committed to their organizations because they hope to obtain a tenure-track position within the organization; or perhaps they stay committed based on the potential networking opportunities within the academic community. This assumption warrants additional qualitative study, specifically to uncover the motivations of aspiring academics to remain in contingent roles in higher education rather than moving on to government, private practice, or corporate opportunities. Regardless of the reasons for their commitment, institutions could benefit from acknowledging their dedication by properly integrating them, and providing professional development, and assistance with career development and progression.

Specialists were significantly more engaged when compared to most groups. When compared to other groups in terms of mentoring needs and organizational commitment, there were no significant differences; they were significantly more satisfied than aspiring academics (as were true teachers and career enders). Unlike the other employment profiles, Specialists as a group, have secure employment outside of their contingent faculty appointments. Many specialists view their contingent teaching arrangements as being mutually beneficial. While they are bringing real world experience to students, they are able to stay connected with research, and affect the education of the future workforce in their field. In this light, examining this group from

the social exchange perspective, specialists may feel as though their psychological contract is fulfilled.

Contingent Faculty 2016

The descriptive statistics presented in Chapter 4 provide a demographic description of contingent faculty across 33 states and Washington D.C. There was a representative sample in terms of employment status (full-time and part-time faculty), working in various types of institutions, within various disciplines. Men and women were represented fairly evenly in this study. It was expected that women would be disproportionately represented groups based on Curtis (2014). According to Curtis (2014), women were well represented in the low-status faculty categories, accounting for 50.7% of all full-time non-tenure-track faculty, and 52% of all part-time faculty (Curtis, 2014).

Gappa and Leslie's (1993) employment profile typology applied to the participants in this study, however an additional employee profile category emerged from the results, *True Teachers*. Gappa and Leslie's (1993) study focused on part-time faculty. While the majority of respondents for the current study were part-time faculty (61.5%), 39.5% of participants were full-time non-tenure-track faculty members. This group is largely uninterested in academic research, service, and other required activities that typically go together with tenure track appointments. The distribution among the five employment profiles was key in understanding present day contingent faculty. One-third of all respondents identified as *aspiring academics*. The vast majority of *aspiring academics* had terminal degrees (71.4%), and 47.1% were working in full-time contingent positions. This result implies that there are a large proportion of qualified scholars serving in comparatively low-level contingent teaching positions, with very little hope for career development or advancement.

Conclusions and Implications for Practice

“There is no stereotypical part-time faculty member,” (Monks, 2009, p. 37). The current study confirms, and adds depth to this assertion. Monks’ (2009) study, which analyzed data from the 2004 U.S. Department of Education National Study of Postsecondary Faculty, which reported that only 35 percent of part-time faculty would have preferred full-time employment at their institution.

Just five years later, the United States Department of Education’s 2009 Fall Staff Survey would report that over 75 percent part-time faculty members reported they were currently seeking, have sought in the past, or intend to seek a full-time tenure-track position at some point in the future (n=10,080) (CAW, 2012). These results, at first glance appear to contradict the 2004 data, but as noted by Schuster and Finkelstein (2007), the U.S. academic profession has seen rapid and dramatic changes over time.

The prevalent theme in academic staffing patterns has moved in a direction “toward creating a predominantly contingent workforce” (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2007). The current study supported this idea, and sought to learn more about the contingent workforce in higher education. Several studies have highlighted disparate treatment, and substandard working conditions of contingent faculty (CAW, 2012; Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). Some even sought to understand the motivations of contingent faculty members, for serving in such roles (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The current study built on the existing literature, and provided additional findings, which will ultimately contribute to the literature, providing a basis for the relevant support and development of tomorrow’s professoriate.

According to the AAUP, the declining level of commitment of higher education to stable, full-time, tenured faculty seems to suggest a weakening perceived value of education in the U.S.

(AAUP, 2003). The institutions, which espouse the need for higher education, do not seem to support this notion in terms of their employment practices. Universities present a paradox, as a chief mission of such institutions is to prepare a workforce based on the demands of the labor force. Universities do not hire Ph.D.'s at the rate at which they produce them. Instead, Ph.D.'s have been relegated to lower-level jobs within academia, and face challenges that have been compared to workers in the fast food industry (Cholo, 2015). Several other sources have recently brought to light the fact that contingent faculty struggle to earn a livable wage (e.g. CAW, 2012; Brave New Films, 2015; 'Junct Rebellion, 2016). Between 1976 and 1999, there was a 34% increase in student enrollment in degree-granting institutions. The number of doctoral degrees conferred increased by 35 percent (AAUP, 2003). A more recent study found that only 65.6% of Ph.D. recipients (n=51,008) in 2012 had a job commitment upon completing their degrees (Jaschik, 2013).

The gradual shift of contingent employment in academia over the last 40 years has created systematic problems in institutions of higher education, including lower quality instruction, less frequent student interaction, inequity among academic colleagues, compromised integrity of faculty work, and academic freedom (AAUP, 2003; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2007). This employment trend presents itself as a microcosm of the greater U.S. workforce practice of hiring temporary contract employees (Mazurek, 2011). Failing to support a highly qualified and committed workforce poses some potentially negative repercussions for higher education, and the United States as a whole.

Recommendations for Future Research

Given that institutions of higher education hold the charge of preparing key professionals in the American workforce, the question of quality naturally must be addressed. How well are

contingent faculty prepared and supported in order to provide quality instruction to America's future workforce? What assumptions can be made about this contingent workforce population in terms of their engagement, commitment, satisfaction, and mentoring needs? The existing literature to date, on the working conditions of contingent faculty, has suggested this population receives very little support. From the lens of social exchange theory, it might be presumed (as contingent faculty outnumber tenure-line faculty 4 to 1) that with little support from their organizations, institutions in large part, are not delivering the level of rigor needed to produce graduates ready for the workforce. The current study provided a basis for examining contingent faculty as groups within a larger group of under-supported faculty. The survey used in this study limited the breadth of participants' responses, and so it is recommended that future research on contingent faculty employ qualitative methods such as interviewing and observation to gain a clearer understanding of the experiences of this workforce population related to their mentoring needs, engagement, commitment, and job satisfaction. The potential challenges associated with employing contract or temporary employees have been well documented including increased labor union interest, application of equal employment opportunity law, increased legislative protections, limitations on employment of independent contractors, and questions about cost effectiveness (Allan, 2002). Many of these issues apply to institutions of higher education. It would be beneficial to study these challenges, along with others specific to higher education, from the perspective of the employer.

APPENDIX A
Research Questions (full list)

- 1) *What are the differences in desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on employment profile?*
 - a. *What are the differences in desired psychosocial mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
 - b. *What are the differences in desired career related mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
- 2) *What are the differences in work engagement of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
 - a. *What are the differences in vigor of contingent faculty based on employment profile?*
 - b. *What are the differences in absorption of contingent faculty based on employment profile?*
 - c. *What are the differences in dedication of contingent faculty based on employment profile?*
- 3) *What are the differences in organizational commitment of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
 - a. *Were there differences in the organizational commitment subscales based on employment profile?*
- 4) *What are the differences in job satisfaction of contingent faculty based on their employment profile?*
 - a. *Were there differences in the job satisfaction subscales based on employment profile?*

- 5) *What is the demographic profile of contingent faculty? Does Gappa & Leslie's (1993) typology hold?*
- a. *What percentages of faculty are represented in each category?*
 - b. *Are there additional profiles that should be added to the typology based on the results? What are they?*

APPENDIX B

Permission to use Survey Instruments *Mentoring Functions* (Noe, 1988a)



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Seeking Permission to use Mentor Functions Instrument

Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>
To: noe.22@osu.edu

Mon, Apr 6, 2015 at 8:10 PM

Dear Dr. Noe:

My name is Heidi Batiste, and I am a Ph.D. student in the Workforce Development & Organizational Leadership program at University of Nevada Las Vegas. I am seeking permission to use your mentor functions scale (1988) in my dissertation study. I plan to combine your mentoring functions scale with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967, and Allen and Meyer's (1991) Organizational Commitment scale.

The tentative title of my study is:

Understanding Contingent Faculty: A Quantitative Study of Engagement, Satisfaction, Commitment, and Mentoring Needs

The purpose of my study is to explore the mentoring needs of contingent faculty based on employment profiles (based on a typology developed by Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The employment profiles are primarily based on the faculty member's academic background, employment history, and motivations to work as contingent faculty. I will also be measuring work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

The first objective will be to determine whether the employment profiles of contingent faculty influence their desired mentoring functions. Next, I will be measuring the engagement, commitment and job satisfaction of contingent faculty, and determining whether a relationship exists between these "outcome variables" and desired mentoring functions and/or their employment profiles.

Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Heidi Batiste



Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Seeking Permission to use Mentor Functions Instrument

Noe, Raymond <noe.22@osu.edu>
To: Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Wed, Apr 8, 2015 at 7:11 AM


Heidi:

You have my permission to use the mentoring scales (see attached). Good luck with your thesis research.

Ray

From: Heidi Batiste [mailto:batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu]
Sent: Monday, April 06, 2015 11:10 PM
To: Noe, Raymond
Subject: Seeking Permission to use Mentor Functions Instrument

[Quoted text hidden]

 **mentorfucntions.doc**
36K

APPENDIX C
Permission to use Survey Instruments
Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Shaufeli & Bakker, 2004)



Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Seeking Permission to use UWES

Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>
To: w.schaufeli@uu.nl

Mon, Apr 6, 2015 at 8:18 PM

Dear Dr. Schaufeli:

My name is Heidi Batiste, and I am a Ph.D. student in the Workforce Development & Organizational Leadership program at University of Nevada Las Vegas. I am seeking permission to use the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) in my dissertation study. I plan to combine your scale into one instrument, with the Mentoring Functions scale (Noe, 1988), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967, and Allen and Meyer's (1991) Organizational Commitment scale.

The purpose of my study is to explore the mentoring needs of contingent faculty based on employment profiles (based on a typology developed by Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The employment profiles are primarily based on the faculty member's academic background, employment history, and motivations to sign up for contingent work. I will also be measuring work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

The first objective will be to determine whether the employment profiles of contingent faculty influence their desired mentoring functions. Next, I will be measuring the engagement, commitment and job satisfaction of contingent faculty, and determining whether a relationship exists between these "outcome variables" and desired mentoring functions.

Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Heidi Batiste



Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Seeking Permission to use UWES

Schaufeli, W.B. (Wilmar) <w.schaufeli@uu.nl>
To: Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Tue, Apr 7, 2015 at 12:18 AM

Dear Heidi,

You may use the UWES for non-commercial, academic purposes. See my website for further details.

Good luck with your project

With kind regards,
Wilmar Schaufeli

Wilmar B. Schaufeli, PhD | *Social and Organizational Psychology* | P.O. Box 80.140 | 3508 TC Utrecht, The Netherlands |

Tel: (31) 30-253 9093 | Mobile: (31) 6514 75784 | Fax: (31) 30-253 7842 | Site: www.wilmarschaufeli.nl

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APPENDIX D
Permission to use Survey Instruments
***Organizational Commitment* (Allen & Meyer, 1991)**



Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Seeking Permission to use Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>
To: meyer@uwo.ca

Mon, Apr 6, 2015 at 8:34 PM

Dear Dr. Meyer:

My name is Heidi Batiste, and I am a Ph.D. student in the Workforce Development & Organizational Leadership program at University of Nevada Las Vegas. I am seeking permission to use your Organizational Commitment Questionnaire in my dissertation study. I plan to combine your scale into one instrument, with the Mentoring Functions scale (Noe, 1988), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967), and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The purpose of my study is to explore the mentoring needs of contingent faculty based on employment profiles (based on a typology developed by Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The employment profiles are primarily based on the faculty member's academic background, employment history, and motivations to sign up for contingent work. I will also be measuring work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

The first objective will be to determine whether the employment profiles of contingent faculty influence their desired mentoring functions. Next, I will be measuring the engagement, commitment and job satisfaction of contingent faculty, and determining whether a relationship exists between these "outcome variables" and desired mentoring functions.

Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Heidi Batiste



Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Seeking Permission to use Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

John Meyer <meyer@uwo.ca>
To: Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Tue, Apr 7, 2015 at 5:21 AM

Dear Heidi,

You can get the commitment measures and permission to use them for academic research purposes from <http://employeecommitment.com>. I hope all goes well with your research.

Best regards,

John Meyer



Dr. John Meyer
Department of Psychology
Rm 8411, Social Science Centre
Western University
London, Ontario, Canada
N6A 5C2

Phone: (519) 661-3679

Fax: (519) 661-3961

Email: meyer@uwo.ca

APPENDIX E
Permission to use Survey Instruments
Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985)



Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Seeking Permission to use Job Satisfaction Survey

1 message

Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>
To: pspector@usf.edu

Mon, May 18, 2015 at 4:05 PM

Dear Dr. Spector:

My name is Heidi Batiste, and I am a Ph.D. student in the Workforce Development & Organizational Leadership program at University of Nevada Las Vegas.

I am seeking permission to use the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) in my dissertation study. I plan to combine the JSS with other established scales into one instrument. The other scales that I will be using are: the Mentoring Functions scale (Noe, 1988), Allen and Meyer's (1991) Organizational Commitment scale, and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The purpose of my study is to explore the mentoring needs of contingent faculty based on employment profiles (based on a typology developed by Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The employment profiles are primarily based on the faculty member's academic background, employment history, and motivations to do contingent work. I will also be measuring work engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

The first objective will be to determine whether there are differences between desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on employment profiles (i.e. education, background, motivation). Next, I will be measuring the engagement, commitment and job satisfaction of contingent faculty, and testing for differences in these variables based on employment profiles.

Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Heidi Batiste



Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Seeking Permission to use Job Satisfaction Survey

Spector, Paul <pspector@usf.edu>
To: Heidi Batiste <batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu>

Tue, May 19, 2015 at 7:31 AM

Dear Heide:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms in the Scales section of my website <http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector>. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor

Department of Psychology

PCD 4118

University of South Florida

Tampa, FL 33620

813-974-0357

pspector@usf.edu

<http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector>

APPENDIX F

Contingent Faculty Mentoring and Organizational Outcomes Survey Instrument

Definition of Contingent Faculty: Full or part-time faculty, including student teachers, who are not tenured nor on the tenure-track (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). While some “research-only faculty” may be considered contingent faculty, this study will include instructional faculty working on a term, full or part-time, temporary appointment only.

Qualifying Question: Are you currently serving in, or have you served as a contingent faculty member in an instructional position in an institution of higher education in the United States (see definition above)?

Yes or No

Instructions: Please respond to the following questions based on your work as a contingent faculty member. Although that you may have had several unique experiences as a contingent faculty member, please provide your responses from the perspective of your most recent position.

Employment Profile

Please select one of the following employment profiles that you believe best describes your current contingent faculty appointment/employment situation:

A: I serve as a contingent faculty member because there are currently no viable job opportunities on the tenure-track, however I would prefer a tenure-track appointment.

B: I have retired from my primary career. I am serving in my contingent faculty position because I have a desire to contribute as an educator; or I am simply interested in maintaining a structured routine post retirement.

C: I am currently working as a contingent faculty because part-time employment makes sense in the context of my life. I am a homemaker, “stay-at-home/work-at-home mom or dad,” primary caregiver, artist, or I have some other situation that benefits from a flexible work arrangement. I may do a variety of part-time jobs that are generally, but not necessarily related to my work as a contingent faculty member.

D: I am considered a specialist, expert, or professional in my field. I have other full-time employment as a professional or manager. I enjoy good salary, and have little desire to obtain full-time, regular employment as a full-time faculty member.

E: None of the above. I choose to work as a contingent faculty member for another reason not listed here. Please explain.

F: I selected _____ above because I was forced to choose only one response, but I actually identify with more than one choice above. Please explain.

G: Please explain your response further if you feel that it is necessary to do so.

Engagement – Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (6-point Likert-type scale)

Please apply your responses to the following questions, as they relate to your experiences as a contingent faculty member.

SELECT ONE: 1 - Never, 2 - Rarely, 3 - Sometimes, 4 - Often, 5 - Very Often, 6 – Always

Vigor

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. I can continue working for very long periods at a time	6	5	4	3	2	1
5. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally	6	5	4	3	2	1
6. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well	6	5	4	3	2	1

Dedication

1. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. I am enthusiastic about my job	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. My job inspires me	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. I am proud of the work that I do	6	5	4	3	2	1
5. To me, my job is challenging	6	5	4	3	2	1

Absorption

1. Time flies when I'm working	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. When I am working, I forget everything else around me	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. I feel happy when I am working intensely	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. I am immersed in my work	6	5	4	3	2	1
5. I get carried away when I'm working	6	5	4	3	2	1
6. It is difficult to detach myself from my job	6	5	4	3	2	1

Mentoring Functions Scale (Noe, 1988a) (5-point Likert scale)

Please apply your responses to the following questions, as they relate to your experiences as a contingent faculty member.

SELECT ONE: 1 - Strongly Disagree, 2 - Disagree, 3 - Neutral, 4 - Agree, 5 - Strongly Agree

Psychosocial Mentoring Functions (14 items)

It is important to me that my mentor...

1. Shares the history of his/her career with me.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Encourages me to prepare for advancement.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Encourages me to try new ways of behaving in my job.	5	4	3	2	1

I would like a mentor...

1. Whose work behavior is such that I would like to imitate him/her.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Whose attitudes and values regarding education I agree with.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Who I respect and admire.	5	4	3	2	1
4. That I can try to be like when I reach a similar position in my career.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Who demonstrates good listening skills in our conversations.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Who discusses my questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationship to peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Who shares personal experiences as an	5	4	3	2	1

alternative perspective to my problems.					
8. Who encourages me to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from my work.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Who will convey empathy for the concerns and feelings I have discussed with him/her.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Who will keep my feelings and doubts in strict confidence.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Who will convey feelings of respect for me as an individual.	5	4	3	2	1

Career related Mentoring Functions (7 items)

I would like a mentor...

1. Who will reduce unnecessary risk that could threaten the possibility of receiving a promotion.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Who would help me finish assignments/tasks, or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Who helps me meet new colleagues.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Who gives me assignments that increase written and personal contact with administrators.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Who will give me assignments or tasks in my work that will prepare me for advancement.					
6. Who will give me assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Who assigns responsibilities to me that will increase my contact with people who may judge your potential advancement	5	4	3	2	1
8. Who will give me assignments or tasks in my work that will prepare me for advancement.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Who will give me assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.	5	4	3	2	1

Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991 – Affective and Continuance sub scales only. 5-point Likert scale)

Please apply your responses to the following questions, as they relate to your experiences as a contingent faculty member.

SELECT ONE: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree

Affective Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.(R)	5	4	3	2	1
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.(R)	5	4	3	2	1
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	5	4	3	2	1
8. I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization.	5	4	3	2	1

Continuance Commitment

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	5	4	3	2	1
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.	5	4	3	2	1
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now.(R)	5	4	3	2	1
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I feel I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.	5	4	3	2	1

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Satisfaction (Job Satisfaction Survey) – 6-point Scale.

SELECT ONE: Disagree Very Much, Disagree Moderately, Disagree Slightly, Agree Slightly, Agree Moderately, Agree Very Much

Please apply your responses to the following questions, as they relate to your experiences as a contingent faculty member.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. I like the people I work with. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. Communications seem good within this organization. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. Raises are too few and far between. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 11. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 12. My supervisor is unfair to me. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 13. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 14. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 15. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 16. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with. | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

17. I like doing the things I do at work.						
18. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	6	5	4	3	2	1
19. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	6	5	4	3	2	1
21. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	6	5	4	3	2	1
22. The benefit package we have is equitable.	6	5	4	3	2	1
23. There are few rewards for those who work here.	6	5	4	3	2	1
24. I have too much to do at work.	6	5	4	3	2	1
25. I enjoy my coworkers.	6	5	4	3	2	1
26. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
27. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	6	5	4	3	2	1
28. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	6	5	4	3	2	1
29. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	6	5	4	3	2	1
30. I like my supervisor.	6	5	4	3	2	1
31. I have too much paperwork.	6	5	4	3	2	1
32. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	6	5	4	3	2	1
33. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	6	5	4	3	2	1
34. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	6	5	4	3	2	1
35. My job is enjoyable.	6	5	4	3	2	1
36. Work assignments are not fully explained.	6	5	4	3	2	1

Demographic Information

Personal

1. Age _____
2. Race or Ethnicity (Asian, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, White, Other)
3. Gender (Man/Woman)
4. State of residence (Select one)
5. Household income (0 – 10,000; 10,001 – 20,000; 20,001 – 30,000; 31,000 – 40,000; 41,000 – 50,000; 51,000 – 60,000; 61,000 – 70,000; 71,000+)

6. Marital/family status (Married/Civil Union/Domestic Partnership with children at home, Married/Civil Union/Domestic Partnership with no children at home, Single, with children at home, Single with no children at home)
7. If you selected Married/Civil Union/Domestic Partnership with children at home, (how many children?)

Professional Experience and Background

8. Do you teach for an institution of higher education as a graduate student? (Yes or No) If yes, “Do you work as a contingent faculty member outside of your graduate assistantship agreement?” (Yes or No)
 9. Years of experience teaching at the college level (Select)
 10. Length of time in current position (Select)
 11. Institution type (Select: Doctoral and Research, Masters, Public Baccalaureate, Private Baccalaureate, Public Associates, For-Profit, Specialized, Other)
 12. Contingent status (full-time or part-time)
 13. Current course load (_____ courses)
 14. Are the courses you noted above “credit bearing” courses?
 15. The highest course load you’ve ever carried at one time as contingent faculty (_____ courses)
 16. Number of institutions currently teaching (_____ institutions)
- Definition of a union: A union Collective bargaining is a process of negotiation between employers and a group of employees aimed at reaching agreements to regulate working conditions.*
17. Union status (I am a member of a union, I’m not a member of a union, however there is one established for contingent faculty at my institution, I’m not a member of a union, and there is not a union established for contingent faculty at my institution)
 18. What is your membership status/relationship with COCAL? (I am a: member, active participant, non-member-seldom participation, I do not have a relationship with COCAL)
 19. Primary instruction format: In-person, Online teaching, Hybrid, Other (Please explain).
 20. What is your education level? (Bachelor’s Degree, Master’s Degree, Doctorate-Ph.D., Ed.D., J.D. Other _____) Is this a terminal degree? (Yes or No).

Compensation

21. What benefits do you receive as a part of your compensation as a contingent faculty member? (health, dental, retirement defined benefit/pension, retirement defined contribution/401k, PTO/Vacation, LTD, STD, FSA, None, Other – please explain other)
22. Contingent faculty salary _____ (\$ amount) per _____ (quarter, semester, year) (or explain other).

Mentoring

Rooted in adult development theory a mentor can be defined as a “teacher, adviser, or sponsor who provides career related and psychosocial support as an adult develops through various stages of life and career.”

23. Please select one statement with regard to your mentoring history: (I have had mentors throughout my life, I have not had mentors throughout my life)
24. Number of mentors in your life (_____)
25. I've had (a) mentor(s) to assist me in my role as a contingent faculty member.
26. If yes to the above question, how did your mentoring relationship originate? (open-ended)
27. Briefly describe the nature of your relationship with the mentor you refer to in your response to #26 above. (open-ended).

APPENDIX G

Email (Initial Contact) for Contingent Faculty Mentoring and Organizational Outcomes Survey Instrument

Dear Colleague:

My name is Heidi Batiste, and I am a Ph.D. student in the Workforce Development & Organizational Leadership program at University of Nevada Las Vegas. I am conducting a survey in an effort to collect data for my dissertation study entitled *Understanding Contingent Faculty: A Quantitative Study of Engagement, Satisfaction, Commitment, and Mentoring Needs*. For the purpose of this study, contingent faculty is defined as:

Full or part-time faculty, including student teachers, who are not tenured, nor on the tenure-track” (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). While some “research-only faculty” can be considered contingent faculty, this study will include instructional faculty working on a term, full or part-time, temporary appointment only.

I am inviting you to take part in this survey, and allow me to provide researchers and administrators of higher education with an increased understanding of the contingent faculty workforce, and how they can best provide support to this population.

The survey will require approximately 20-30 minutes of your time. You are not required to complete the survey in one session. If you do not finish the survey in one session, you may press the “Save and Continue” button. This will allow you to start right where you left off the next time you click the survey link (this works as long as you click the survey link from the same computer).

Thank you in advance for your participation. Please forward the enclosed survey link on to your colleagues who you believe are currently serving as contingent faculty. At the conclusion of the survey, you will have the option of requesting a copy of this study once it is completed.

If you have any questions about this research, please contact me at batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu, or my dissertation committee chair Dr. Cecilia Maldonado at ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu.

Sincerely,

Heidi Batiste

APPENDIX H

Follow-Up Email (first attempt) for Contingent Faculty Mentoring and Organizational Outcomes Survey Instrument

Dear Colleague:

One week ago you received an e-mail message via the Coalition of Contingent Academic Labor asking for your assistance with my dissertation study entitled *Understanding Contingent Faculty: A Quantitative Study of Engagement, Satisfaction, Commitment, and Mentoring Needs* by filling out a web-based survey. If you have already filled out the survey, thank you!

If you have not had a chance to take the survey yet, I would appreciate your reading the message below and completing the survey. This survey should 20 to 30 minutes to complete.

--

I am inviting you to take part in this survey, and allow me to provide researchers and administrators of higher education with an increased understanding of the contingent faculty workforce, and how they can best provide support to this population.

The following survey will require approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. You are not required to complete the survey in one session. If you don't finish the survey in one session, you may press the "Save and Continue" button. This will allow you to start right where you left off the next time you click the survey link (this works as long as you click the survey link from the same computer).

Thank you in advance for your participation. Please forward the enclosed survey link on to your colleagues who you believe are currently serving as contingent faculty. Once you have finished the survey, you will have the option of requesting a copy of this study once it is completed.

If you have any questions about this research, please contact me at batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu or my dissertation committee chair Dr. Cecilia Maldonado at ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu.

Sincerely,

Heidi Batiste

APPENDIX I

Follow-Up Email (last attempt) for Contingent Faculty Mentoring and Organizational Outcomes Survey Instrument

Dear Colleague:

Two weeks ago you received an e-mail message via the Coalition of Contingent Academic Labor asking you to assist me with my dissertation study entitled *Understanding Contingent Faculty: A Quantitative Study of Engagement, Satisfaction, Commitment, and Mentoring Needs* by filling out a web-based survey. If you have already filled out the survey, thank you!

If you have not had a chance to take the survey yet, I would appreciate you reading the message below and completing the survey. This survey should take no more than 30 minutes to complete.

--

I am inviting you to take part in this survey, and allow me to provide researchers and administrators of higher education with an increased understanding of the contingent faculty workforce, and how they can best provide support to this population.

The following survey will require approximately 25-30 minutes to complete. You are not required to complete the survey in one session. If you don't finish the survey in one session, you may press the "Save and Continue" button. This will allow you to start right where you left off the next time you click the survey link (this works as long as you click the survey link from the same computer).

Thank you in advance for your participation. Please forward the enclosed survey link on to your colleagues who you believe are currently serving as contingent faculty. Once you have finished the survey, you will have the option of requesting a copy of this study once it is completed.

If you have any questions about this research, please contact me at batisteh@unlv.nevada.edu or my dissertation committee chair Dr. Cecilia Maldonado at ceciliam@unlv.nevada.edu.

Sincerely,

Heidi Batiste

APPENDIX J
Institutional Review Board (IRB) Exempt Notice



**UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB - Exempt Review
Exempt Notice**

DATE: October 2, 2015

TO: Cecilia Maldonado
FROM: Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects

PROTOCOL TITLE: [779415-1] Understanding Contingent Faculty: A Quantitative Study of Engagement, Satisfaction, Commitment, and Mentoring Needs

ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
EXEMPT DATE: October 2, 2015
REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category # 2

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this protocol. This memorandum is notification that the protocol referenced above has been reviewed as indicated in Federal regulatory statutes 45CFR46.101(b) and deemed exempt.

We will retain a copy of this correspondence with our records.

PLEASE NOTE:

Upon final determination of exempt status, the research team is responsible for conducting the research as stated in the exempt application reviewed by the ORI - HS and/or the IRB which shall include using the most recently submitted Informed Consent/Assent Forms (Information Sheet) and recruitment materials. The official versions of these forms are indicated by footer which contains the date exempted.

Any changes to the application may cause this protocol to require a different level of IRB review. Should any changes need to be made, please submit a **Modification Form**. When the above-referenced protocol has been completed, please submit a **Continuing Review/Progress Completion report** to notify ORI - HS of its closure.

If you have questions, please contact the Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at IRB@unlv.edu or call 702-895-2794. Please include your protocol title and IRBNet ID in all correspondence.

Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects
4505 Maryland Parkway . Box 451047 . Las Vegas, Nevada 89154-1047
(702) 895-2794 . FAX: (702) 895-0805 . IRB@unlv.edu

APPENDIX K
Participant Informed Consent
(page 1 of 2)



INFORMED CONSENT

School of Environmental & Public Affairs

TITLE OF STUDY: Understanding Contingent Faculty: A Quantitative Study of Engagement, Satisfaction, Commitment, and Mentoring Needs

INVESTIGATOR(S):

PI: Dr. Cecilia Maldonado, Ph.D.

Student Researcher: Heidi Batiste, M.S.

For questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Dr. Cecilia Maldonado, Faculty Advisor at (702) 895-3410 or Heidi Batiste at (702) 556-2725.

For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted, contact the **UNLV Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects** at 702-895-2794, toll free at 877-895-2794 or via email at IRB@unlv.edu.

Purpose of the Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to determine whether there are differences in the work engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and desired mentoring functions of contingent faculty based on their employment profile

Participants

You are being asked to participate in the study because you are a contingent faculty member. For this study, a contingent faculty member is defined as:

- non-tenured and on a non-tenure track appointment;
- paid instructional faculty member (includes student teachers/graduate assistants) in either a term, full or part-time teaching appointment;
- working at a U.S. degree-granting institution in higher education (a university, college or other institution);
- having teaching assignments that may be in-person, online, or a combination of the two formats;
- having current or previous appointments in higher education.

Procedures

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

1. Consent to participating in this study.
2. Respond to one qualifying question
3. Complete the online survey using the following link:
https://unlv.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_9uWDd6ZZPTEinvD

The survey will be open for two weeks (end date will be inserted here) and will allow you to complete the survey over multiple sessions, if you do not have time to complete the survey in one session. The survey will automatically save your responses within the two-week timeframe, and will allow you to

Participant Informed Consent (page 2 of 2)

TITLE OF STUDY: Understanding Contingent Faculty: A Quantitative Study of Engagement, Satisfaction, Commitment, and Mentoring Needs

begin again where you left off, as long as you access the survey from the same computer. The survey will take 20-30 minutes to complete.

Benefits of Participation

There may not be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. We hope to provide researchers and administrators in higher education with an increased understanding of the contingent faculty workforce, and how they can best provide support to the contingent faculty population.

Risks of Participation

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study may include only minimal risks as you will be asked to report your attitudes and feelings about your employment situation, and experience as a contingent faculty member. It is unlikely that you will experience physical, psychological, or social harm as a result of your participation in this study.

Cost /Compensation

There will not be financial cost to you to participate in this study. The study will take approximately 20-30 minutes of your time, for which you will not be compensated.

Confidentiality

All information gathered in this study will be kept as confidential. No reference will be made in written materials that could link you to this study. All records will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV for at least 5 years after completion of the study. After the storage time the information gathered will be shredded with university approved shredding machines. Digital data will be stored on a flash drive and destroyed at the conclusion of the five-year period. All emails will be deleted and all data will be de-identified.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with UNLV. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

Participant Consent:

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I have been able to ask questions about the research study. I am at least 18 years of age. You may print a copy of this consent at this time for your records.

By selecting "I agree," I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study.

☐ I agree (NOTE: participant will be granted access to the online survey at the following link:
https://qtrial2015az1.az1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_3E6zABuEFcCiR8Nj)

☐ I disagree and would like to exit the survey. If I exit, I will be unable to take the survey later.

APPENDIX L

Thematic Analysis

Peer Debriefing Responses

Steps and Processes for Debriefers 1 and 2

As a first step, I read through the raw responses without having first reviewed the data results. I did so as a way to make discoveries in the transcripts without becoming prejudiced and/or biased from the results. My second step involved reviewing the sheet that summarized the faculty respondent types and categories. After becoming acquainted with the respondent categories, I read the transcript responses a second time. During my second read, I highlighted responses that seemed to me to be ambiguous enough that they could fit into multiple categories. Additionally, during the second read, responses were highlighted if they seemed to meet the defining criteria of one of four pre-established respondent types (i.e., Aspiring Academic, Career Ender, Freelancer, and Specialist). My third and final review of the transcript was done to cross-check the highlighted categories with the instructions and the other data to consider whether they indeed did not appear to meet the category of “True Teacher” or “Other.”

Peer Debrief #1

Perceptions of Categorizations

After reviewing the responses, my impressions were that all of the items in the transcript labeled “Other” appeared to be distinguishable from the “True Teacher” or the four pre-established respondent types (i.e., Aspiring Academic, Career Ender, Freelancer, and Specialist). However, I noted that three of the responses in the transcript labeled, “True Teacher” appear appropriate for either “Specialist” or “Freelancer.” These items were as follows:

[Specialist] Due to the fact that I do not have a PhD I do not find available full-time professor positions as an option. I work full-time in a job closely related to my field and I am a contingent faculty member because I love to do it and the additional income is very important.

[Freelancer] I work part-time because that is what I want to do and I have another source of income that makes it financially possible.

[Freelance] I work as a contingent faculty because I need the extra income. I have 2 other jobs as well - including a full-time teaching job.

Likewise, with respect to the narrative responses contained in the transcripts labeled “Other,” I too noted the preponderance of items that reflect a category that could easily be a standalone and be titled “Current Doctoral Student.” The “Current Doctoral Student” is distinguishable from the “Other” category which does seem to contain more general, non-thematic responses.

Recommendations

Ideally it would be more advantageous for peer debriefing to occur before data analysis. However, given that the process is being done post hoc, you may want to concede in your Limitations section that the peer debriefer process uncovered other possible categorizations. For

example, the “Aspiring Ph.D.’s” could have been extrapolated from the “Other” and tested to see if their experiences, perceptions, etc. differed from the other respondent types. The “Aspiring Ph.D.’s” may comprise a group independent enough to stand alone. Likewise, given that at least one of your peer debriefers observed a different possible categorization for some of the data responses in the “True Teachers” category, you may want to reveal such. I doubt that a reanalysis of the data would yield any different results by moving the three questionable respondents into different categories; however, given your limited sample size (and related low cell counts), you may want to concede this as a limitation of the data.

Peer Debrief #2

Perceptions of Categorizations

After reviewing the responses, my impressions were that all of the items in the transcript labeled “Other” appeared to be distinguishable from the “True Teacher” or the four pre-established respondent types (i.e., Aspiring Academic, Career Ender, Freelancer, and Specialist). However, I noted that three of the responses in the transcript labeled, “Other” appear appropriate for either “True Teacher” or “Aspiring Academic” These items were as follows:

***[Other]** Without a PhD I do not qualify for a tenure track position. My position as a contingent faculty member is my only employment; part time teaching is all that is permitted for many contingent faculty, as is in my case.*

This response can be labeled as True Teacher.

***[Other]** I need to finish my PhD before I qualify for an instructor position (which is still not tenure track) at my institution. With a Masters our institution requires 3 years of full-time teaching experience.*

This response can be labeled as Aspiring Academic.

Recommendations

The “Others” could have been further analyzed and categorized into another theme titles “Doctoral Degree Seekers.”

APPENDIX M

Thick Descriptions

“Others” Employment Profile Responses

- *I am a full-time doctoral student and am employed as a graduate teaching assistant for the English Department*
- *I am a PhD student*
- *I am a PhD student, so I work as a teaching fellow*
- *I am a PhD student and want to gain more university teaching experience while also a GA at [institution name removed]*
- *I am currently a PhD student completing my dissertation.*
- *phd candidate*
- *Without a PhD I do not qualify for a tenure track position. My position as a contingent faculty member is my only employment; part time teaching is all that is permitted for many contingent faculty, as is in my case.*
- *There is a dearth of ECE experts with a terminal degree (PhD/EdD). Without that degree, I was hired as lecturer.*
- *I have worked as contingent faculty for so long that I cannot qualify for tenure track in the sciences, having outdated research experience. And I am too old.*
- *I have an MA, no am not eligible for tenure track. We do hire lecturers with MA, but those positions are highly competitive.*
- *I had my M.S, so I didn't expect to find tenure-track job, nor would have I tried to get one before I got my PhD. I was working in lab of one of my advisors for two years after getting my M.S. I tool PT adjunct positions because I could make more money doing that then as research assistant.*
- *I do not have a PhD, so I'm not eligible to apply for a tenure-track position.*
- *I currently do not hold a doctorate, so tenure-track positions aren't available to me in my current school.*
- *I don't have a PhD so a tenure-track position is unrealistic. I would prefer something more permanent. I started out doing PT as a supplement to my FT job, but have decided that I prefer teaching to my other professional work*
- *I don't have a PhD so I can't be on the tenure track.*
- *I'm allowed to work as a faculty member because I have a Master's degree. Because I don't have a Phd., I'm not eligible for tenure track employment.*
- *Because of my degree, I am limited to a non-tenure track position*
- *A tenure track appointment would require a terminal degree, which I do not possess.*
- *I serve in a non tenure track position because I have a Masters degree and only qualify for the instructor position, which is a non tenure track yearly reappointment position.*
- *I need to finish my PhD before I qualify for an instructor position (which is still not tenure-track) at my institution. With a Masters, our institution requires 3 years of full-time teaching experience.*

- *I can hardly believe I have any job-as there are so few. I have always been 'freelance' this is the first time since the mid-80s I have a single work focus outside my art. Honestly, am not sure if I'd want a tenure track appointment. The workload now is untenable. Medical insurance is the big lure.*

“True Teachers” Employment Profile Responses

- *I enjoy teaching additional courses because of my passion for education.*
- *I am finishing my online courses (and resigned from my in person course) because I finally got a full-time job teaching that pays 12 months a year, and pays more than minimum wage, thank god.*
- *Why does there need to be a reason to choose a career teaching? This is a good job.*
- *I enjoy teaching.*
- *I enjoy my position as an instructor without the pressure of politics.*
- *I am a full-time faculty member at one institution, and to help out a fellow institution, I teach one course as a contingent faculty member*
- *Due to the fact that I do not have a PhD I do not find available full-time professor positions as an option. I work full-time in a job closely related to my field and I am a contingent faculty member because I love to do it and the additional income is very important.*
- *I serve as a full-time "contingent" faculty member because this is exactly what I want to be doing. I do not want a tenure-track position.*
- *After getting my PhD I would have preferred a tenure-track position, but could not get one. Since becoming a full-time contingent, it is perfect. I would never want to be a tenure-track appointment. I have no research or service obligations and get to do what I enjoy most - teaching.*
- *I have chosen not to pursue a TT position as my contingent position offers greater pay and flexibility*
- *I work part-time because that is what I want to do and I have another source of income that makes it financially possible.*
- *I am happy with teaching as my emphasis in a full time position*
- *During my PhD in Chemistry I witnessed first hand all of the difficulties involved in tenure track appointments. I saw 7 out of 10 tenure track faculties failing to get tenure. In the vast majority of the cases this was due to political reasons. I am not willing to put myself through such a situation. If I would find a tenure track position at a teaching only institution I would certainly apply for that. But if finding money for grants is involved I have seen that politics plays a far too important role in getting tenure. I consider this to be highly unfair since it doesn't evaluate the actual performance of the tenure candidate, but rather his political connections.*
- *I am a full time instructor because I enjoy teaching, and have a teaching qualification as well as a science PhD.*
- *I'm a full-time faculty member that is non-tenured track. It's not part-time.*
- *I simply love to teach!*

- *With a full time position as a lecturer, I enjoy a fair salary and benefits. I enjoy what I do and I have no interest in pursuing a TT appointment.*
- *Contrary to popular belief, this is a great job. I enjoy teaching with no service or research pressures.*
- *I don't want to be tenured. Teaching is what I love.*
- *I don't have a PhD so a tenure-track position is unrealistic. I would prefer something more permanent. I started out doing PT as a supplement to my FT job, but have decided that I prefer teaching to my other professional work*
- *I do not do academic research, but wanted to move from a consulting position to a university or college faculty position.*
- *The position I currently have was more appealing to me than other tenure track positions I have been offered.*
- *I chose to move from tenure track to non tenure track as I changed fields. My new field was a new direction for the department, so worked out for everyone.*
- *I am much more a teacher than researcher, and my current university values different types of faculty members, including teaching-oriented faculty members.*
- *I teach hands-on laboratories in Biology. This is a full time non tenure-track appointment.*
- *I like my position as it is. My contingent status is a full time salaried position where my only obligation is teaching. I do not have an interest in doing much independent research and so a tenure track position would not make much sense, as tenure track positions require a research and service component. All my intellectual and monetary needs are met by my current position.*
- *I started out as a contingent faculty member because of A above. However, over the years of seeing others struggle to gain tenure, I decided to remain contingent because it is difficult to gain high level research grants in my field of study and I like where I am and don't want to risk losing it because I can't get tenure.*
- *Because I like teaching and don't want to deal with tenure shit!*
- *I completed my masters and was hired as a temporary lecturer. I now have a full-time permanent position. I enjoy teaching and hope to earn a full-time professorship once I finish my PhD.*
- *This is a good job. I like to teach.*
- *My university offers non-tenure track position with multi-year appointments*
- *I work as a full-time contingent faculty member because I enjoy teaching and do not want to pursue research*
- *I work as a contingent faculty because I need the extra income. I have 2 other jobs as well - including a full-time teaching job.*
- *My position as a senior manager was dissolved at my organization. I have long been interested in contributing as an educator and I was provided the opportunity as an instructor*

APPENDIX N
Pre-Tests
Mentor Functions

Table 17

Correlations between Mentoring Functions Variables (N = 210)

	1	2
1. Psychosocial	--	.660*
2. Career Related		--

** Correlation is significant $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed).

Table 18

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances for Mentoring Functions Variables

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Psychosocial Functions	1.032	5	202	.400
Career related Functions	1.537	5	202	.180

Note: Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

Table 19

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices for Mentoring Functions Variables

Box's M	F	df1	df2	Sig.
66.644	4.306	15	65072.094	.000

Note: Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

APPENDIX O
Pre-Tests
Work Engagement

Table 20

Correlations between Engagement Variables (N = 210)

	1	2	3
1. Vigor	--	.764**	.735**
2. Dedication		--	.715**
3. Absorption			--

** Correlation is significant $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed).

Table 21

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a for Engagement Variables

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Vigor	1.388	5	202	.230
Dedication	2.055	5	202	.073
Absorption	1.565	5	202	.172

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Employment Status + Union Status + Employment Profile

Table 22

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a for Engagement Variables

Box's M	F	df1	df2	Sig.
58.43	1.857	30	36501.030	.003

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

Design: Intercept + Employment Status + Union Status + Employment Profile

APPENDIX P
Pre-Tests
Organizational Commitment

Table 23

Correlations between Commitment Variables (N = 210)

	1	2
1. Affective	--	-.153*
2. Continuance		--

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 24

Test of Homogeneity of Variances: Commitment

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.288	5	204	.270

APPENDIX Q
Pre-Tests
Job Satisfaction

Table 25

Correlations between Job Satisfaction Variables (N = 210)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Pay	--	.703**	.243**	.586**	.731**	.398**	.312**	.376**	.522**
2. Promotion		--	.315**	.458**	.726**	.321**	.349**	.337**	.553**
3. Supervision			--	.126	.503**	.410**	.548**	.403**	.535**
4. Fringe Benefits				--	.584**	.226**	.132	.292	.313**
5. Contingent Rewards					--	.506**	.511**	.517**	.686**
6. Operating Conditions						--	.526**	.417**	.577**
7. Coworkers							--	.536**	.561**
8. Nature of Work								--	.433**
9. Communication									--

Note: ** Correlation is significant $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed).

APPENDIX R

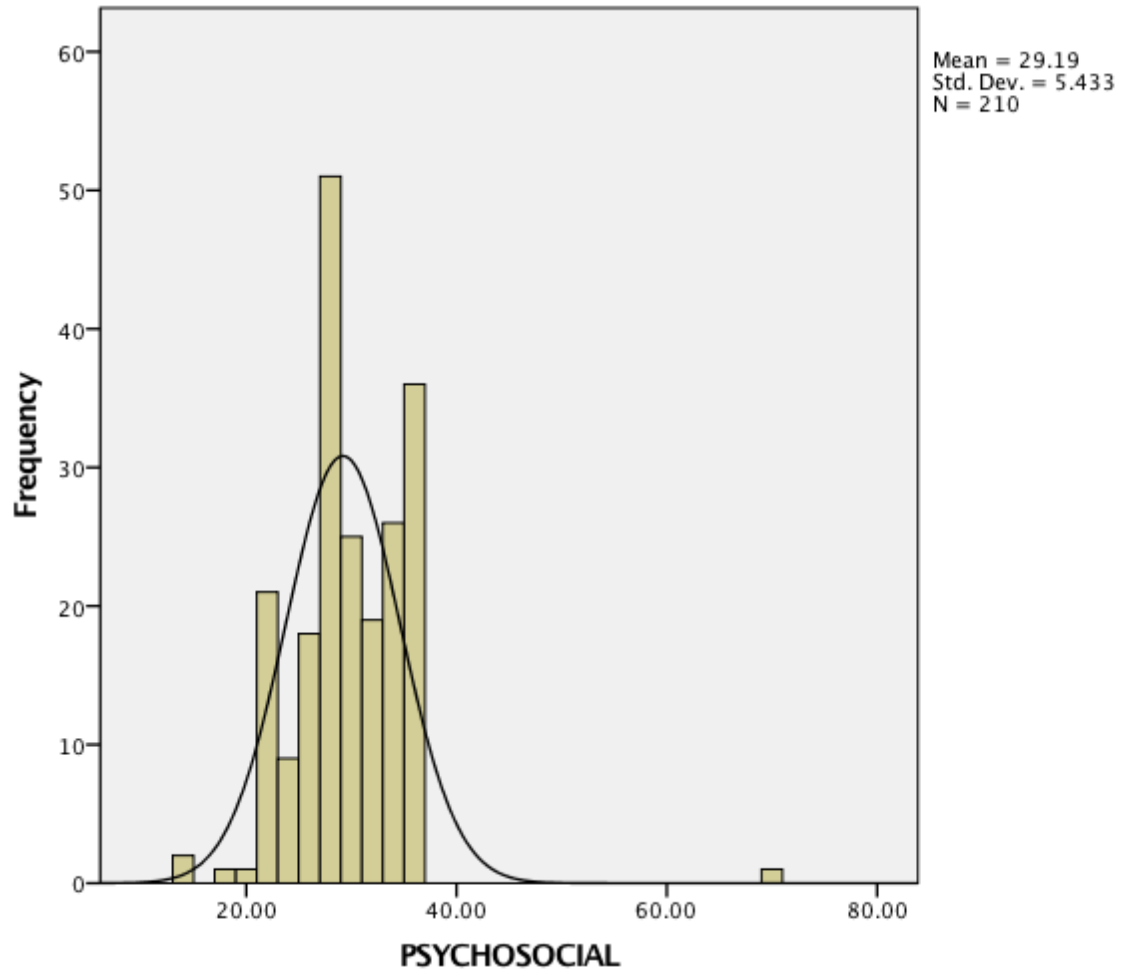
Histograms

Employment Profile



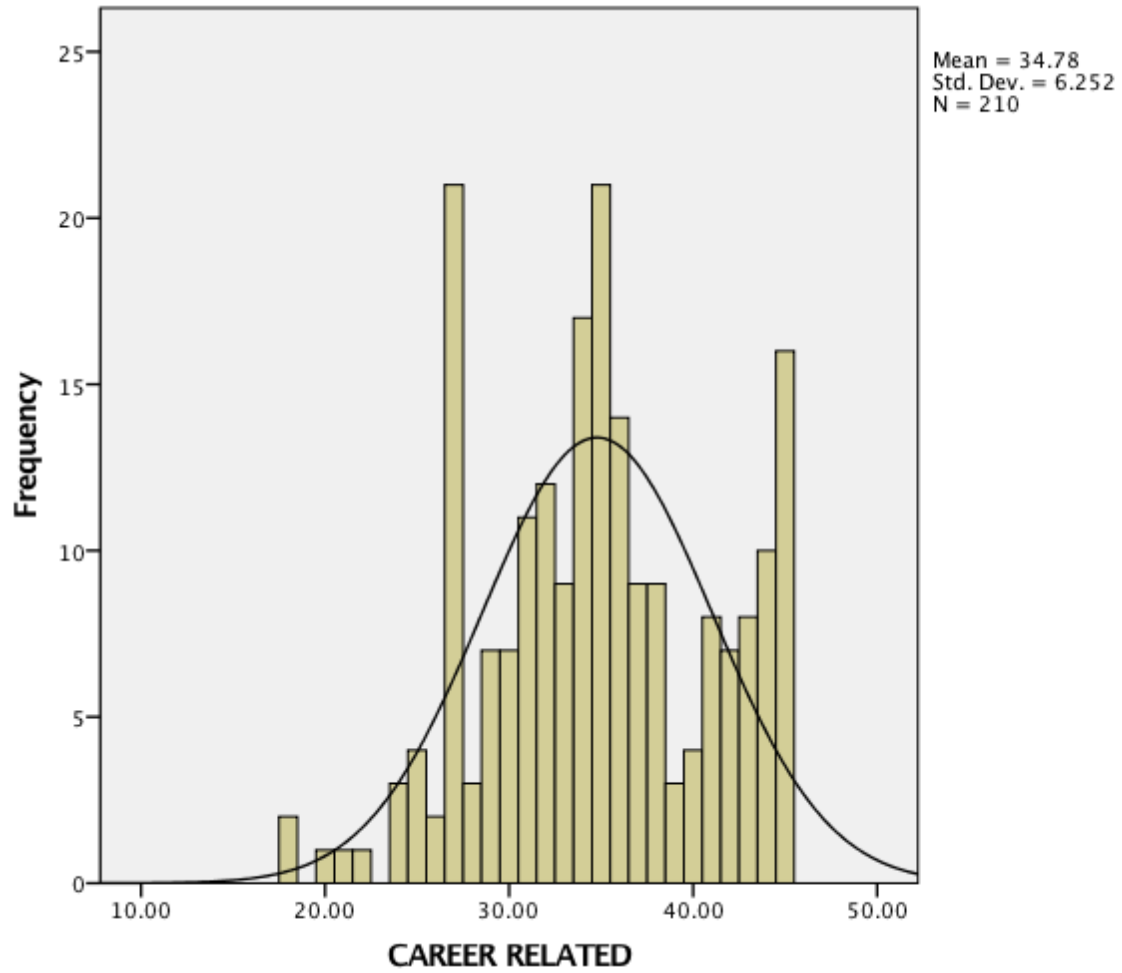
Histograms (continued)

Psychosocial Mentoring Functions



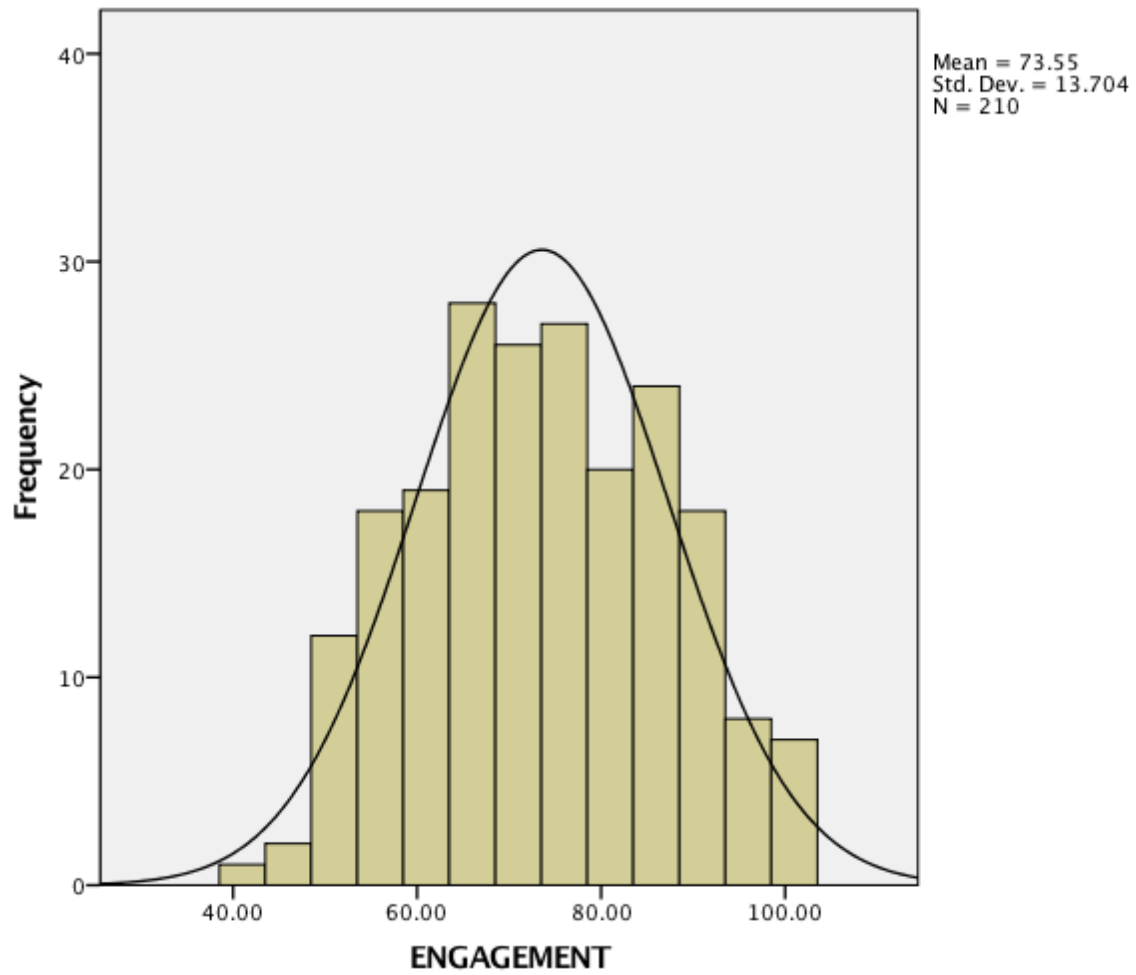
Histograms (continued)

Career-Related Mentoring Functions



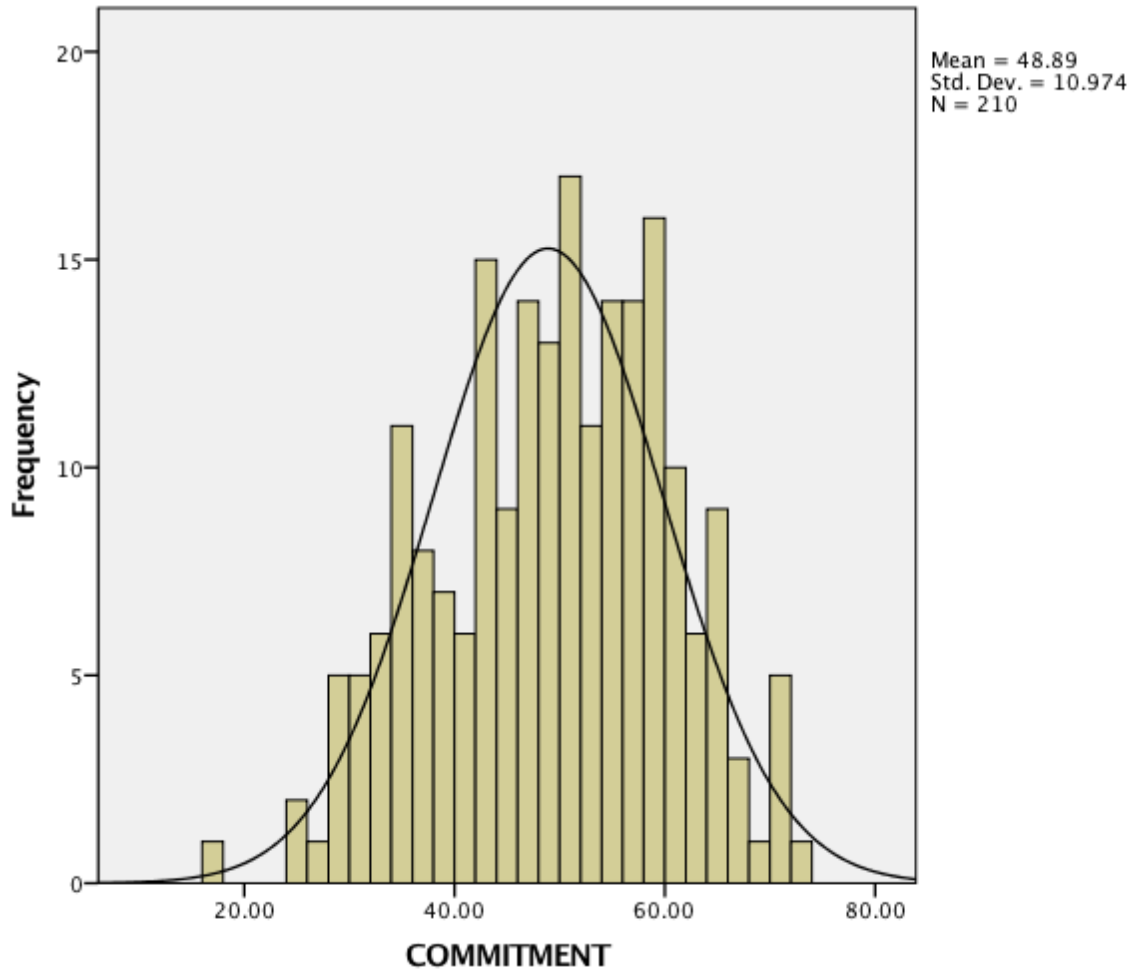
Histograms (continued)

Work Engagement



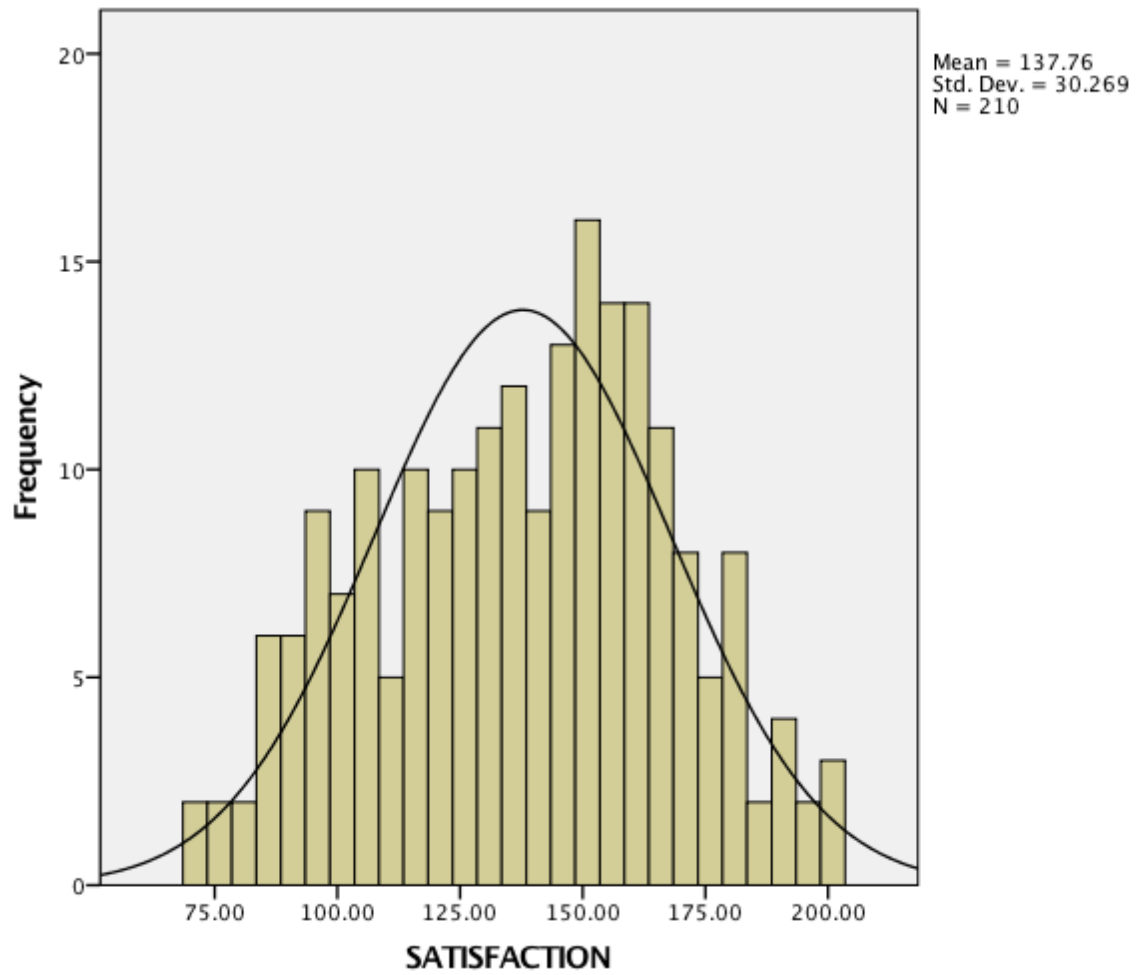
Histograms (continued)

Organizational Commitment



Histograms (continued)

Job Satisfaction



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PUBLICATIONS/PRESENTATIONS

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Batiste, H.B., Mora, S.A. (2012, March). An Analysis of the Efficiency of the Mexican Workforce Education and Development System in Meeting the Needs of the Country's Strategic Global Initiatives. Poster presentation at *University of Nevada, Las Vegas Graduate & Professional Student Research Forum*, Las Vegas, NV (Poster Presentation)

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