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Faculty Intent to Stay and the Perceived Relationship with Supervisor at a Career-Focused University

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UNIVERSITY OF MIAMI

FACULTY INTENT TO STAY AND THE PERCEIVED RELATIONSHIP WITH
SUPERVISOR AT A CAREER-FOCUSED UNIVERSITY

By

Gary A. Markowitz

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Faculty
of the University of Miami
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Doctor of Education

Coral Gables, Florida

December 2012

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FACULTY INTENT TO STAY AND THE PERCEIVED RELATIONSHIP WITH
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Faculty Intent to Stay
and the Perceived Relationship with Supervisor
at a Career-Focused University

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The relationship between faculty members' perceptions of the quality of the faculty-administrator relationship, and faculty intent to stay at one's institution was examined at a Florida-based, multi-campus, non-profit, career-focused university. The pool of potential participants included the total population of 1,085 full-time and part-time campus-based undergraduate and graduate faculty. Survey instruments included: Leader-Member Exchange Version 7 (LMX-7) Questionnaire (faculty-administrator relationship); Price and Mueller's (1986) Measure of Turnover Intent (Intent to Stay); Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1979) Measure of Organizational Commitment as adopted by Daly and Dee (2006); and Heneman and Schwab's (1985) Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire as adopted by Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, (1990). Data were collected anonymously through an internet based questionnaire. Results indicated that years teaching at the institution, Pay Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment were predictors of Intent to Stay. Although LMX-7 was a significant variable predicting Intent to Stay, it became non-significant when Organizational Commitment was included in a hierarchical regression. Potential implications for practical application, theory development, and future research are discussed.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the loving memory of my mother, Lillian Jean Markowitz, who passed away from cancer in 2002 at the young age of 64. She showed me how not only to make a living, but a life. Not a day goes by that she is not missed.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Researchers and accrediting bodies alike believe that effective organizations produce satisfied organizational members; this relationship impacts employee turnover (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004), but few studies have considered the growing number of college faculty who now teach at career-focused universities. This sector of higher education has evolved and transformed itself from unaccredited technical schools, into regionally accredited degree granting universities. Many of these institutions are now led by administrators with backgrounds in the more traditional sector of higher education; nevertheless, career-focused universities still have lower status than long-established liberal arts and research institutions. Much of what has been written about career-focused colleges and universities has been either undemanding advocacy without validating claims or nonobjective criticism (Floyd, 2007). There is a lack of balanced scholarship based on empirical evidence that examines the unique organizational context of career-focused institutions.

The Problem of Faculty Turnover

Qualified faculty in higher education are as difficult to find as they are expensive to replace (Waldman, Kelly, Arora, & Smith, 2004). In one national study of community colleges, researchers found that of the Chief Academic Officers surveyed, 51% thought there would be “difficulty recruiting fully prepared faculty members” (Berry, Hammons, & Denny, 2001, p. 133). Faculty turnover is costly to any institution in terms of quality of instruction, student learning and skill development, financial overhead in replacing and training new hires, and has a possible impact on an institution’s reputation (Dee, 2004; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). Turnover is also costly to the faculty member who may

experience the “grass is greener” phenomenon, only to later experience disillusionment (Rosser, 2004) when they find out it is not better elsewhere.

Faculty turnover has been studied for decades within the traditional sector of higher education and primarily within four-year institutions. Scholars at research universities write the majority of the higher education literature, but have overlooked issues specific to career-focused institutions (Rosser & Townsend, 2006). Following the lead of Dee (2004) who has focused on the value of improving faculty retention at community colleges, it is incumbent upon the leadership of career-focused colleges to implement programs to improve faculty retention. With the high percentage of operating budgets devoted to instructional expenses, a more methodical examination of these issues represents a topic of scholarly inquiry with possible consequences in a time that requires difficult budgetary and academic program decisions (Ryan, Healy, & Sullivan, 2009).

Significance of the Study

The roots for the study of faculty intent to stay and faculty retention can be found primarily within the business management and psychology literatures (Ryan, Healy, & Sullivan, 2009). Career-focused colleges and universities have always applied business models to improve operational systems and solve issues such as employee retention. The purpose of this study was to explore one possible cause of faculty turnover in career-focused colleges -- the faculty-administrator relationship. This study expands the evidentiary basis for the Leader-Member Exchange Theory by applying it for the first time to Keiser University, a career-focused university, and by examining its influence on faculty intent to stay.

“Researchers recognize that their own backgrounds shape their interpretation, and they position themselves in the research to acknowledge how their interpretation flows from their personal, cultural, and historical experiences” (Creswell, 2009, p. 8). As an administrator, much of my position deals with the business and financial aspects of higher education. Therefore, I use business models to solve many problems found in higher education. It is my personal history, education and position as a campus president at a career-focused university that prompted my research interest.

My lens for this project has been shaped more by my education and work experience than other factors. My educational background impacts my research, while my 27 years working for career-focused colleges and universities impacts my goals. My position as a campus president and 13 years within Keiser University provides me with a unique insight and desire to improve the institution for its key stakeholders and those it serves.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

This study applies the Leader-Member Exchange conceptual framework from organizational studies to faculty-administrator relationships in the career-focused university context. In this review of the literature I begin by considering the size and scope of the academy, followed by the historical evolution of career-focused institutions and their place in contemporary higher education. I then discuss: faculty roles, organizational commitment, intent to stay, leadership in higher education and the Leader-Member Exchange Theory.

The Academy

All types of organizations including not-for-profit, for-profit and government agencies compete to acquire and retain talented employees (Hunjra et al., 2010) and the academy is no different. Higher education has evolved into a highly competitive environment. According to the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (2012) the academy has grown into a massive enterprise now representing 4,634 Carnegie classified degree granting institutions, over 20,277,000 (“head count”) undergraduate and graduate students and a combined annual revenue over \$435 billion. These students are being educated by an army of faculty representing over 1,365,000 members. Competition among colleges and universities as well as competing industries for high quality scholars continues to rise even during a global economic downturn (Ryan, Healy, & Sullivan, 2009).

In this competitive environment, many institutions close programs no longer popular with students and develop programs that can fill their classrooms (Castiglia, 2006). This changes the instructional emphasis from a product-oriented focus to a market

oriented focus (Epper, 1997). At public institutions the situation is even more difficult where external boards and legislatures have the power to mandate program consolidation or elimination, or even suggest new programs, all of which can threaten overall program quality (Del Favero & Bray, 2010).

All educational institutions are increasingly influenced by outside constituents including politicians, programmatic accrediting bodies (those that accredit a particular field of study versus the entire institution), parents, and large employers who offer externships or hire an institution's graduates (Del Favero & Bray, 2010). This has created a redistribution of influence from internal constituents to include external pressures for all involved in academic planning (Birnbaum, 1988).

With respect to faculty recruitment and retention, this means institutions must not only compete for students but also for qualified faculty, especially those who teach in high demand fields such as allied health programs. Many high demand programs within science, technology, engineering and math (STEM) are not only found in traditional institutions, but in career-focused institutions as well. This has increased competition among all institutions and caused many traditional colleges and universities to adopt practices similar to those found in a for-profit business in an attempt to be more market sensitive (adding programs in high demand), and maximize new revenue streams (Birnbaum, 2000). This has caused a managerial culture to emerge in the traditional academic decision making process (Deem, 1998), which has encouraged more deans and department chairs to restructure faculty participation (Waugh, 1998), and to cause some department chairs to now view their role in curriculum processes as needing more control (Stark, Briggs, & Rowland-Poplowski, 2002).

The economic thrust of this entrepreneurial culture in higher education has altered the faculty affiliation with their institution to one resembling an employer-employee relationship, where everyone's time is largely controlled by the institution (Slaughter & Rhoades, 1993). These changes are certain to affect faculty relationships with their institutions (Oravec, 2003) and the administrators who lead them. Any violation of expected patterns of behavior is sure to make the faculty-administrator relationship more contentious (Del Favero & Bray, 2010). These new challenges also have an impact on administrators' tenure, such that burnout causes administrator turnover before the time needed to establish trusting relationships with the faculty can occur (Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999).

In summary, these changes that have occurred in higher education have caused fierce competition among institutions for qualified faculty in high demand fields as well as students to fill classrooms (Chen, 2009). Many faculty members perceive this as a movement towards a niche-seeking business model (Castiglia, 2006) which is much more responsive to its external environment, and leaving in its past the culture and mission unique to higher education.

Career-Focused Institutions

The *Chronicle of Higher Education* (2012) reported that 26% (1,216) of all higher education institutions are now career-focused colleges and universities with a combined annual revenue of \$24.7 billion. These institutions enroll almost 10% (1,966,000) of the total student population and employ 10% (136,500) of the faculty working in higher education. Career-focused colleges have supplanted traditional private and public institutions as the fastest growing sector of postsecondary education (Lechuga, 2008).

Undergraduate enrollment at four-year career-focused colleges has grown 539% from 1999-2009 and 101% at two-year institutions (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2011). According to the Chronicle of Higher Education (2012) twenty career-focused institutions have a total enrollment of over 858,000 students. This growth has challenged the traditional institutions' long standing position as monopolies in the knowledge business (Castiglia, 2006).

Career-focused colleges began as for-profit trade schools as early as the Revolutionary War (Ruch, 2001). As the decades passed they evolved into technical schools teaching office skills and, with the passing of the GI Bill in 1944 which created a new cohort of students, began evolving into specialized associate degree granting institutions. In the late 1970's career-focused colleges began major expansions with their inclusion in Title IV Federal Financial Aid Programs and many new institutions opened their doors (Cohen, 1998). Meanwhile as technology advanced, consumer and industry demands changed; these institutions continued to evolve and began a form of "mission creep" as they gained regional accreditation and added baccalaureate degrees and graduate schools to meet new market demands. To that end, career-focused colleges are in the business of education (product driven) while traditional schools provide an education (process driven) (Morey, 2004).

Prior to the 1990s, traditional higher education paid little attention to career-focused colleges or their impact on higher education or on the economy (Floyd, 2007). The term "career-focused college" is based on the idea that these institutions are not offering students an education as much as they are offering a direct line to an actual career (Breneman, Pusser, & Turner, 2006). They offer career specific educational

programs. Given the sector's emphasis on teaching rather than research, many career-focused colleges are not generating scholarly knowledge but using works of traditional institutions and packaging that knowledge for their own students (Breneman et al, 2006). Most career-focused colleges and universities view the relationship between the traditional and career-focused institutions as a symbiotic relationship. The traditional schools create new knowledge and, comparable to community colleges, career-focused colleges use that knowledge (Lechuga, 2008) to train adults and other non-traditional groups of students to the benefit of their communities.

Career-focused colleges are made up of a variety of institutional types (Kinser, 2005). These institutions are small, privately held for-profit corporations, large publicly traded corporations, and more recently, not-for-profit institutions. The most well-known career college is the University of Phoenix (UOP). Operated by the Apollo Group and traded on NASDAQ as APOL the university is the largest of any type of university in the world. According to Standard and Poor's industry survey (2012) UOP has 56,470 employees (22,000 FT/PT faculty), 307,871 students, annual revenue of \$4.4 billion and a market capitalization of \$3.1 billion. With 227 centers in 40 states and an online division, this regionally accredited institution offers all levels of degree completion from associate degrees to the Ph.D.

With \$1 billion in cash reserves and many degree programs that mirror more traditional institutions (Blumenstyk, 2011), UOP is becoming a powerful force in the higher education arena and many other career-focused colleges and universities are following UOP's lead. Most career-focused colleges have little concern for rankings, fundraising, or sprawling campuses. They serve a niche market in higher education and

their presence is being felt as evidenced by their ability to attract a significant number of students (Sheldon, 2009). For instance, UOP receives over 46,000 inquiries from prospective students that come into its seven call centers across the country every day (Blumenstyk, 2011).

Similar to traditional colleges and universities, academic administrators at career-focused institutions often share the same training and academic credentials as faculty, and enter their positions through faculty ranks allowing faculty upward mobility. However, career-focused colleges and universities are not known to offer tenure, long-term contracts, or other ties that bind faculty to the institution. They tend not to have a faculty senate or faculty rank. On the other hand, the overall environment in traditional higher education has changed (Burrell & Grizzell, 2008; Castiglia, 2006). Fewer faculty positions are tenure track, and more adjuncts are being utilized. According to the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (2011) half of all college faculty are now adjuncts (from 13% at public research institutions to 70% at public two-year institutions). These changing working conditions have created opportunities for the career-focused colleges to hire faculty members away from traditional institutions.

As career-focused institutions continue to expand campuses, academic programs, and distance education offerings, they continue to need faculty, offering qualified individuals an opportunity to teach in their field of expertise. This has expanded employment flexibility for faculty who perceive a low sense of personal fit or opportunity within the traditional higher education sector. This idea of person-institutional fit is based on the idea that colleges and universities are social institutions and that each exhibits a unique organizational culture (Tierney & Rhoades, 1993). These cultures are

deeply embedded, take on numerous meanings, and impact workload priorities (Rosser, 2004).

Regionally accredited career-focused colleges are required to meet the same accreditation standards as their traditional counterparts with respect to academic standards and quality. Those that offer baccalaureate degrees are required to have all general education classes taught by faculty members with a minimum of a master's degree, 25% of all in-major courses taught by faculty with a terminal degree and graduate degree programs are required to have all faculty members with terminal degrees. In comparison to research universities, faculty who work at these institutions are hired to teach and their value to the institution is in their ability to prepare the students for their planned careers.

In sum, the growth of career-focused regionally accredited colleges and universities has impacted traditional higher education. By creating niche markets, having the ability to add new degree programs quickly while closing those no longer in demand, and a business approach to attracting large numbers of students, there are now more opportunities for qualified faculty to teach in their chosen field of study.

Faculty Roles

Faculty are motivated by their individual, scholarly interests; in contrast administrators are more commonly motivated by their responsibility to the collective interests of the institution (Volkwein, Malik, & Napierski-Praci, 1998). Traditional faculty work is driven by a desire to make a significant contribution in their field (Del Favero & Bray, 2010) and they place more faith in the academic culture than they place in administrative culture (Birnbaum, 1988). Getting faculty to value institutional

concerns ahead of discipline can be a challenge for administrators who assume the primary allegiance for faculty should be the employing institution (Del Favero & Bray, 2010).

In general, faculty have a function in institutional governance and fulfill three roles: teaching, research and service (Bland, 2008). However, universities and colleges are asking their faculty to contribute more each and every year. The changes adopted by higher education institutions in order to prosper in a competitive environment have fundamentally altered faculty work lives (Castiglia, 2006). Schuster and Finkelstein (2006) found that over a twenty-six year period weekly hours worked by faculty increased across all institutional types with 25.6% working over 55 hours a week.

The faculty role in academic governance continues to decline (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006), suggesting that faculty inclusion in governance hampers institutional functioning in a competitive environment (McCormick & Meiners, 1989). Del Favero and Bray (2010) summarize that in general, administrators believe faculty should be involved only in academic matters and not nonacademic matters, while faculty believe they should be involved in all administrative functions of the institution. When faculty and administrators compete for power or control, they are likely to clash (Campbell & Slaughter, 1999).

Institutions are scrutinizing traditional faculty roles and work conditions to decrease faculty costs and enable institutions to generate more money (Bland, 2008). Faculty are now expected to be more productive writing grants, participating in research activities or teaching more classes, while engaging more with the public on an ongoing basis. At the same time they are expected to still provide measurable learning outcomes

for students (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2005) while in many cases teaching the maximum course load allowed through accreditation standards, and be in classes that have maximum student loads. Colbeck (2002) found that many faculty were frustrated with budget constraints associated with these mandates and have become resistant to such requirements.

This need to justify how faculty members spend their time to ensure they are productive is resulting in higher demands for performance (Rosser, 2004). At the same time faculty are questioning this movement towards a more focused, business model because they perceive the model as reducing the supportive, nurturing culture they remembered at the beginning of their careers (Castiglia, 2006).

Faculty are also being encouraged to become increasingly active in advisement, mentoring, and joining social situations creating “multiple professional relationships” with their students (Rupert & Holmes, 1997, p. 660). Halawah (2006) measured student-faculty interpersonal relationships and declared that college professors should no longer simply post office hours on their doors and wait for opportunities for student interaction to come to them. Changes in student behavior and expectations have also changed the world in which many faculty members now find themselves a part. For example, the assumption that cellular phones and email should offer students 24/7 accessibility to their faculty created working conditions that are markedly different from the time period when many faculty members selected their careers and their institutions (Castiglia, 2006).

Pay satisfaction. Many faculty members are resisting the call for additional accountability and expressing concerns for their programs and their institution’s missions (Hamilton, 2000). One reason for this resistance is that faculty believe the growth of

accountability has caused resources to be directed to an even larger administrative body at the perceived cost of the faculty (Hansen & Guidulgi, 1990). Although faculty are not necessarily driven by their salary and therefore salaries are not necessarily a root of tension between faculty and administrators (Del Favero & Bray, 2010), salaries are usually raised annually on a percentage basis, therefore compounding lower starting salaries over the life of a faculty member's employment (Perna, 2001). As a result, some faculty members may be less trusting of administrators if they believe they were unfairly compensated, or were taken advantage of during the negotiation process by virtue of the market conditions (Del Favero & Bray, 2010). This aspect is hypothesized to positively influence faculty commitment to their institution to the extent that their pay is equitable (Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990). Adam's (1965) equity theory states that "inequity exists for a person whenever he perceives that the ratio of his outcomes to inputs and the ratio of others' outcomes to inputs are unequal" (p. 280).

In summary, with a reduction in federal, state and local community funding, the education landscape has changed dramatically, creating opportunities for career-focused colleges and universities. At career-focused institutions faculty productivity, as suggested by Middaugh (2001), is more defined in terms of outcomes assessment such as improved learning outcomes (pre-post test scores), pass rates on state and national certification exams, student retention, and graduation rates. For faculty members who entered higher education with a desire to teach, they may find themselves questioning their current "productivity requirements" and the commitment to their current institution. Since faculty intention is a precursor of actual faculty behavior, faculty organizational

commitment, intention to stay and equity in pay become important objects of study (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004).

Organizational Commitment

As a useful concept, organizational commitment has gained considerable popularity over the years, even developing into a theoretical framework. Because of its linkage with several important employee behaviors, organizational commitment is essential in understanding faculty attitudes, behaviors and effectiveness, as well as being an important component of organizational analysis (Lawrence, Ott, & Bell, 2011; Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990). Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) define organizational commitment as:

The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Conceptually, it can be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (p.27).

Organizational commitment differs from job satisfaction because it is more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organization as a whole (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Kanter (1977) contends that job satisfaction is not the same as commitment because commitment refers to the overall attachment to the organization and is shaped in a major way by opportunity for its members. Kim, Price, Mueller, and Watson (1996) suggested that organizational commitment was a more important determinant of intent to stay than job satisfaction because it is more stable over time. Available longitudinal evidence supports this view (Mowday et al., 1979).

Organizational commitment theory is based on an employee's level of dedication and loyalty to an organization (Price, 1977). However, true commitment transcends passive loyalty; it involves an active relationship (Gardner & Quigley, 2010). From an institution's perspective, building strong commitment is crucial because universities need dedicated faculty members who remain actively involved in innovative activities including: creating new approaches to teaching, reforming academic programs, participating in academic decision making, and actively working closely with students (Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990).

Employees report a better overall working environment when commitment, satisfaction, trust and the absence of intention to quit are present (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Pfeffer, 1996). This commitment is a psychological state that links the people to their organization in a multifaceted relationship (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In the case of employment, this commitment can contribute to elevating performance, reducing absenteeism and causing greater intent to stay with an organization (Ostroff, 1992).

Lawrence, Ott, and Bell (2011) posit that "organizational commitment develops over time as a result of interactions between professors and their campuses" (p.5). Meyer and Allen (1991) found that with high levels of commitment, employees will engage their supervisor and actively communicate their dissent or unhappiness as opposed to exiting the organization. It is therefore essential for administrators to understand the significance of building positive relationships with their subordinates (Truckenbrodt, 2000). As this occurs, more positive interactions take place between the supervisor and employee. This increases institutional commitment as employees perceive that they are valued by the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Empirical evidence supports the position that low levels of organizational commitment lead to negative outcomes for an organization, such as a willingness to search for other employment, intent to leave and actually leaving (Kim et al., 1996; Mowday et al., 1982). This turnover intent is strongly related to a voluntary decision to leave an existing workplace for an alternative organization (Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Vigoda-Gadot & Ben-Zion, 2004). The evidence also supports the notion that intent is the immediate precursor to actual turnover behavior regardless of the type of leaving (Hom & Hulin, 1981; Ryan, Healy, & Sullivan, 2009; Smart, 1990; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

In summary, Lawrence, Ott, and Bell (2011) found a positive relationship between faculty organizational commitment and the perception that departmental leadership is of high quality, as well as responsive to faculty. Their results also indicated the importance of the perception of the faculty-administrator relationship in predicting subsequent faculty behavior such as intent to stay at an institution.

Intent to Stay

Like organizational commitment, intent to stay is a psychological process (Hunjra, Ali, Chani, Khan, & Rehman, 2010). The concept of “intent to stay” refers to the degree of likelihood that an employee plans to remain with the organization (Al-Omari, Qablan, & Khasawneh, 2008; Lyons, 1971; Kim, Price, Mueller, & Watson, 1996). It does not assume employees will not depart if they perceive strong job opportunities in the labor market (Matier, 1990) but does allow for factors, that can enhance faculty retention (Al-Omari et al., 2008). Matier’s (1990) empirical analysis found that the “pull” of an offer

is not enough for faculty to leave but rather it is more likely that there are issues in their current work life that predisposes them to accept an offer from another institution.

Turnover studies differentiate between actually leaving and the intent to leave, with much of the research focusing on intent (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). One's intent to leave is an employee's inclination to resign, which is the last step before actually leaving (Martin, 1979), and is a powerful predictor of actual turnover (Bluedorn, 1982; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Vigoda-Gadot & Ben-Zion, 2004).

Predictors of faculty intent to stay. There are several predictors of faculty intent to stay (see Table 1). Analysis of the data from the 1999 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF: 99) by Rosser and Tabata (2010) found that the perceptions faculty members have of their work has a direct impact on their job satisfaction and intent to stay. Smart (1990) posited that three determinants explain intent to stay among faculty members: organizational satisfaction, job satisfaction, and individual characteristics and demographics. Other research supports these findings.

Organizational satisfaction. With respect to satisfaction with the organization, the National Opinion Research Center found that more than 40% of the full-time faculty surveyed in 2000 considered leaving academe (Sanderson, Phua, & Herda, 2000). Though it is clear that some turnover has advantages, it is obvious that organizations consider turnover a problem when they lose valued faculty or staff (Johnsrud, Heck, & Rosser, 2000). "Too often the faculty who leave are those the institution would prefer to retain" (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002, p. 518).

Ryan, Healy, and Sullivan (2009) found that strong relationships with administration and a sense of openness appeared to be important predictors of faculty

retention through greater organizational commitment. Cotton and Tuttle's (1986) meta-analysis provided broad support for the inclusion of satisfaction with supervisor and the organization in studies of intent to stay and employee retention.

Job satisfaction. Theoretical rationale for job satisfaction is grounded in expectancy theory (Gagne' & Deci, 2005; Vroom, 1964) which posits that when deciding among different behavioral options, individuals will choose the option with the greatest (self) motivational forces. Therefore, employees believe that certain actions will achieve a positive outcome and that they will be appropriately rewarded (Vroom, 1964). Price (1977; Price & Mueller, 1986) developed an intent-to-stay model based on Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory. Vroom's theoretical model is supported by empirical evidence, is commonly accepted by scholars, and is influential in the development of other management theories of motivation.

Price (1977; Price & Mueller, 1986) found that perceptions of an employee's current work environment and perceptions of the external work environment ("grass is greener" phenomenon) explained intent to stay. Faculty perceptions of the work environment have been found to have significant correlation with morale, which in turn affected faculty intent to stay (Daly & Dee, 2006; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002). Department morale is often a product of department head performance and when department morale is low, there may be organizational problems which need to be remedied (Madron, Craig & Mendel, 1976).

Other research, as expected, found that faculty turnover is higher at institutions facing declining enrollments and serious financial difficulties (Cameron, Whetten, & Kim, 1987) and that wealthier institutions are more likely to report higher levels of

faculty satisfaction and thus have higher levels of faculty intentions to stay (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). Although there is little research conducted on the linkage between satisfaction and actual turnover, there is substantial research on the linkage between intent to leave and actually leaving (Porter & Steers, 1973).

According to Wilhelm, Herd, and Steiner (1993), the main reason private sector employees resign is because of their bosses. This aligns with research in higher education which posits that faculty turnover is higher at institutions whose governance patterns tend to be more autocratic than democratic (Bowen & Schuster, 1986). Since most organizations view turnover as an unfortunate and costly aspect of human resource management (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004), turnover therefore becomes the final “dysfunctional consequence of organizational decline” in higher education (Cameron, Kim, Whetten, & Chaffee, 1987, p. 218).

Individual characteristics and demographics. As seen in Table 2, “researchers have found that certain populations of faculty are often more prone to departure than others” (Gardner, 2012, p. 3). Menges and Exum (1983) found that female faculty tend to have higher attrition than males. Johnsrud and Heck (1994) found that women were more likely to leave than men and the relationship with their chair impacted the decision to stay or leave more than men. Similarly, DeAngelo et al. (2009) observed that negative interactions with other campus administrators were among top predictors in women’s consideration about leaving an institution. Gardner (2012) also found that women left the institution because of a lack of consistent and quality leadership.

Witt and Lovrich (1988) and Xu (2008) found that female faculty members experienced more stress from high expectations, teaching responsibilities, time

constraints and general stress than their male counterparts. Blix, Cruise, Mitchell, and Blix (1994) reported that females were more likely to consider a job change because of that stress. However, Smith (1979) suggested that gender had little to do with faculty turnover when opportunities for advancement were taken into consideration.

In a study examining gender and employment status (full-time, part-time, tenure status), Rosser and Townsend (2006) concluded that being a female faculty member had no significant impact on intent to leave but that being part-time or having been in a position for a shorter period of time did. Barnes, Agago, and Coombs (1998) found that stress caused by time commitment was one reason that males and nontenured faculty were more likely to leave academe altogether. Smart (1990) observed that gender was not a factor with nontenured faculty, but that males had significantly stronger intentions to leave within tenured faculty.

Minority women faculty face all the obstacles of gender with the addition of ethnic discrimination and bias (Knowles & Harleston, 1997). When studying relationships between gender, ethnicity and academic discipline, Olsen, Maple, and Stage (1995) found that women and male faculty members of color had higher rates of attrition than White male faculty members. Rosser (2004) found that ethnicity had no relationship to satisfaction even though minorities were more likely to leave their institution or the academy altogether. Zhou and Volkwein (2004) found that being female and an ethnic minority member had smaller impacts on faculty departure than expected from the findings in the higher education literature, and that faculty departure intentions do not vary by academic discipline. Xu (2008a) however, found that faculty members at

research institutions had turnover patterns unique to discipline clusters rather than race or gender.

In sum, Xu (2008) found that turnover is a complicated decision-making process and although women tend to have a higher turnover intention than men, they do not depart more often than their male counterparts. These studies do however call attention to the complexities of turnover intentions among women and male ethnic minority faculty, and the need for administrators to identify and eliminate any gender-ethnicity issues at their institutions.

Faculty age on the other hand is more consistently related to turnover in the research. Xu (2008a) found that older faculty members were less likely to leave across all disciplines. Mobley (1982) and Smart (1990) consistently found higher turnover rates in younger faculty members versus those with many years at an institution. Zhou and Volkwein (2004) found that younger full-time faculty were more likely than those in their fifties to leave academia after three years of employment, and that faculty departure intentions did not vary by academic discipline. Pfeffer and Lawler (1980) also found that age and length of time at an institution have been found to be negatively related to turnover.

In spite of the inconsistency among research findings, empirical evidence supports that gender interacts with many professional variables in the academic environment (Xu, 2008). Xu (2008a) posited that differences in samples and research methods have caused the inconsistent findings related to gender and race in faculty turnover results. Most existing studies on faculty departure have utilized data on a national level that is decades old (Xu, 2008a; Zhou and Volkwein, 2004). A better understanding of context-specific

influences of faculty departure, within the current academic, economic and political climate is needed to better understand faculty retention (Gardner, 2012).

Various studies have documented the importance of these intentions to leave as a first sign of organizational malfunctioning (Vigoda-Gadot & Ben-Zion, 2004), and placed the responsibility on organizational leadership to identify the issues and prevent quality employees from exiting. Mardanov, Heischmidt, and Henson's (2008) research in traditional business settings revealed that positive leader-subordinate relationships usually lead to retention of subordinates, but negative, low quality leader-subordinate relationships almost always leads to subordinates' resignations.

Leadership in Higher Education

Leadership theories are based on a general assumption that leaders influence performance of individuals and groups who contribute to the accomplishment of organizational goals (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). In this study I examine how leadership in higher education is related to faculty intention to stay at Keiser University.

Del Favero and Bray (2010) suggested that the lack of in-depth study of the faculty-administrator relationship is in the reluctance of administrators to study themselves and would rather take for granted that the faculty-administrator relationship is contentious. However, the faculty-administrator relationship can "no longer be taken for granted given its implications for effective institutional governance" (Del Favero & Bray, 2010, p. 525). Meanwhile, Johnsrud and Heck (1998) found that faculty continue to express frustration related to poor communication with administrators and Del Favero and Bray (2010) found that faculty can feel marginalized, disempowered, or not heard in university matters.

Cohen and Brawer (2003) asked “why are some colleges consistently more successful than others in effecting student learning, sustaining staff morale, presenting a positive public image, managing growth, raising funds, and answering every challenge promptly and efficiently?” (p. 135). Higher education leadership should not lose sight of the fact that their faculty are also their internal customers and should be treated as such. To satisfy their external customers, institutions must first have satisfied employees (Chen, 2009). Miller (2003) found that in shared governance many administrators lack respect for faculty and faculty respect for administrators is even less of a concern. Both parties are often not genuine in their dealings with the other, jeopardizing any effort at improving the relationship (Del Favero & Bray, 2010) and in some cases their institutions.

In traditional higher education literature there is as much written about successful leadership as there is about college presidential failure. Del Favero and Bray (2010) suggested that leadership through the faculty-administrator relationship might be informed by four frameworks: (1) ambiguity and institutional culture as originally described by Cohen and March (1974), (2) transformational leadership in creating mutual understanding, (3) the type of faculty-administrator relationship and (4) work role problems and concerns.

Ambiguity and institutional culture. Cohen and March (1974, 1986) discussed the problem of leadership in higher education as one of ambiguity -- that in higher education there can be a lack of formal function, power and experience that can make traditional interpretation of leadership more difficult. However, there is opportunity in improving the faculty-administrator relationship by treating ambiguity as a source of

power instead of a dysfunction (Birnbaum, 1988) and focusing on understanding instead of compromising (Bess, 2006).

Because of their different structures, purpose and goals, decision-making processes, and hierarchies of power, corporate and academic cultures differ significantly from each other (Kamery & Lawrence, 2002). Higher education institutions are not controlled under business models, but rather through their missions and purpose. However, differences in their missions account for the different institutional types and the differing role expectations for their leaders (Cote, 1984). If, however, we use the definition of leadership as described by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975), it clearly shows that supervision and management rely on the formal employment contract, while leadership involves the “vertical exchange” that takes place between an administrator and an employee. In this situation the administrator must seek other means for influencing positive behaviors in employees (Dansereau et al., 1975).

Transformational leadership. The quest to understand leadership and management in higher education is wide-ranging and ongoing. Sewell (2003) discussed the difference between management and leadership, the need for both in a healthy organization, and the role that leaders must play in order to balance management and leadership effectively. Scholars emphasize the importance of balancing management (processes) and leadership (people) in organizations.

Burns (1978) also suggested the need to differentiate transactional leaders—those who mediate between competing parties, and transformational leaders—those who bring about real change among those around them. Siegrist (1999) argued for the need to shift conceptualizations of leadership in higher education from traditional business and

organizational management theories and transactional leadership (structure, duty, rewards and punishment) styles to a more transformational leadership role in higher education.

Komives and Woodward (2003) theorized that with transformational leadership developed by Bass (1985) and based on Burns (1978), leaders and employees raise one another to higher levels of motivation. Middlehurst (1993) added to this idea by stating that transformational leaders “seek to build on people’s altruistic motivations and personal ideals to achieve great things” (p. 33).

Krishnan (2005) stated that “the shared prospective of the transformational leader’s idealized vision and its potential for satisfying followers’ needs make the leader likeable” (p.16). Davis (2003) discussed the importance of leadership in creating a shared vision in higher education. That vision is developed when administrators assume the kind of leadership needed to stimulate positive faculty-administrator dialogue (Del Favero & Bray, 2010).

Judge and Piccolo’s (2004) meta-analytic test found an overall validity for the construct of transformational leadership and a consistent correlation between transformational leadership and positive subordinate attitudes, behaviors and overall job performance. What it really comes down to is that “true leadership only exists if people follow when they have the freedom not to” (Collins, 2005, p. 13).

Type of faculty-administrator relationship. In higher education it would be valuable to see what leadership looks like in situations where the faculty-administrator relationship is relatively effective (Del Favero & Bray, 2010). To that end, Del Favero and Bray (2006) suggested a model (Dispositional Contexts Model) that would explore improving the faculty-administrator relationship. The model was based on two factors:

faculty cohesion and the attitudes faculty and administrators have regarding their relationship. Their goal was to provide a discussion point for understanding empirically tested existing relations across higher education, but no further scholarship has been published evaluating the model.

Work role problems and concerns. Understanding the problems of faculty and administrators adds to the ambiguity found within higher education. Del Favero and Bray (2010) found insecurity within this area because of inequitable treatment, lack of information, and tension within the faculty-administrator relationships. Again, there is a need to focus on understanding the different roles and building upon the existing relationships to improve the institutions for all constituents and stakeholders.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

Empirical research has found that transformational leadership has a significant effect on the development of high-quality leader-subordinate relationships (Deluga, 1992; Gertsner & Day, 1997; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Wang et al., 2005). Leader-Member Exchange Theory has been evaluated as one of the most practically applicable theories in management research (Graen, Scandura, & Graen, 1986; Scandura & Graen, 1984). Rather than examining behaviors and traits, LMX emphasizes the quality of relationships formed between employers and their employees (Mardanov, Heischmidt, & Henson, 2008).

LMX suggests that supervisors should treat their employees as individuals, understanding that each person is unique and should be treated as such (Green et al., 2006). Those who think that they are benefiting from the relationship will try to reciprocate by fulfilling the expectations of the other party, thereby facilitating a high

level leader-subordinate relationship (Lam, Huang, & Snape, 2007). This is vital in higher education, since leaders often need to influence and motivate subordinates to increase commitment, effort and the “bottom line” success of a university (Lo, Ramayah, & Ling, 2009). The key to the leader-member exchange is the initiating role of the leader followed by the exchange role of the subordinate (Pearson & Marler, 2010).

Leader-Member Exchange Theory offers a framework for researchers to evaluate the impact of the employer-employee relationship (Gertsner & Day, 1997). The value of the theory is based on the hypothesis that relationship quality is predictive of outcomes at the individual level (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Gertsner & Day, 1997). LMX reflects the one-on-one interpersonal exchange between the leader and direct subordinate (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975).

LMX holds a unique position among leadership theories because it focuses on the dyadic relationship (see Figure 1.1) versus how the leader treats all subordinates (Krishnan, 2005). Positively related to transformational leadership (Krishnan, 2004), LMX refers to the quality of the exchanges that develop between the direct supervisor and the individual employee over time (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997).

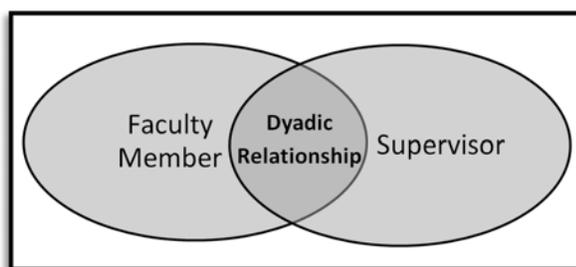


Figure 1.1. Dyadic relationship between faculty member and supervisor.

It is assumed that the leader-subordinate relationship begins with individuals who are strangers, and moves through a process of self-interest to a larger interest; in other words, from a relationship based on transactional leadership to one of transformational leadership (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Research has shown that the leader makes an offer for a positive exchange relationship to the subordinate who chooses to accept or decline the offer based on the subordinate's own needs, sense of obligation, or level of interest (Graen, Scandura, & Graen, 1986). If accepted, these relationships take time to develop between people who have not previously worked together and can change as these new dyadic relationships are challenged (Graen, Hui, & Taylor, 2006).

LMX is grounded in role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) based on the assumption that supervisors' actions can produce feelings of obligation and commitment from the employee towards the organization (Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Pearson & Marler, 2010). LMX is based on the social exchange theory norm of reciprocity, which posits that when an employee is given a resource, he or she will feel compelled to tender a resource in return (Foa & Foa, 1980). Originally conceptualized as a one-dimensional construct, Dienesch and Liden (1986) argued that there is no theoretical or empirical validation for conceptualizing LMX as one-dimensional. Graen, Scandura, and Graen (1986) proposed that leader-subordinate relationships develop as a result of a variety of role-making occurrences. LMX is, therefore, more consistent with a multidimensional perspective (Greguras & Ford, 2006; Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Originally, these leader-subordinate exchanges were all considered to be work related; however, more recently they have been found to be socially related (Maslyn &

Uhl-Bien, 2001) and impacted by other relationships. Venkataramani, Green, and Schneider (2010) found that leaders who had strong leader-subordinate relationships with their supervisors were perceived by their employees as having greater status, and therefore able to form high quality relationships with them.

Exchanges between leaders and subordinates are not limited to material transactions and include social as well as psychological benefits (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Leaders however, do not interact with all subordinates equally, which, over time, can result in the formation of relationships that vary in quality (Mueller & Lee, 2002). Based on the quality of these relationships, the employees (as self-reported) find themselves within an “in-group” or “out-group” situation (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975).

In-group employees have created high quality relationships with their supervisors characterized by mutual trust and respect with a reciprocal relationship which extends beyond their job descriptions (Burns & Otte, 1999; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). These employees are provided with more information, feedback and influence (Northouse, 2001). On the other hand, out-group employees tend to have low-quality or even bad relationships with their supervisors and do only what is required of them (Morrow et al., 2005). They tend to do their jobs and go home (Northouse, 2001). In some cases these out-group employees prefer a more formal working relationship with their supervisors (Green et al., 2006). Mardanov, Heischmidt, and Henson (2008) found that positioning in these two groups preconditions the overall level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Part of this is caused by the finding that in-group members received special benefits and

opportunities, while out-group members tend to receive only standard organizational benefits (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Yukl, 1989).

Employees tend to receive different amounts of resources from the same supervisor and maintain different relationships with subordinates from the same workgroups (Mueller & Lee, 2002). This helps explain the reason why, when employees describe their supervisors, different employees report a wide range of different views of the same manager (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008) and when an employee resigns, he or she usually quits the boss and not the organization (Smith, 2000). A Gallup study surveyed two million employees at 700 organizations and found that dissatisfaction with one's immediate supervisor is the number one reason why employees leave organizations (see Zipkin, 2000 in Jo, 2008) stating that people join organizations and leave managers. Jo's (2008) study also found that as many as half of her study's participants surveyed who left an unnamed Ivy League university did so because of their immediate supervisor. Buckingham and Coffman (1999) found that the length of time an employee remains with an organization is largely a function of the employee-administrator relationship.

The Leader-Member Exchange Theory posits that when leaders and subordinates have high quality leader-subordinate relationships, they share mutual trust, accomplish more, and the overall unit performance is enhanced, creating an improved work atmosphere (Stringer, 2006). This suggests that a high quality leader-subordinate relationship is transformational for both the leader and subordinate (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The leader-subordinate relationship, therefore, holds great potential as a practical tool for increasing workplace outcomes (Mayfield & Mayfield, 1998). It is often the

relationship with one's immediate supervisor which determines how long the employee will remain with the organization (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999).

Development of Leader-Member Exchange Theory. Originally labeled the vertical dyad linkage theory or VDL, Leader-Member Exchange Theory was first described over thirty five years ago by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) and Graen and Cashman (1975). LMX challenged previous leadership theories and individualized the relationship between the leader and each subordinate (Green, Craven, Scott, & Gonzales, 2006), instead of applying the same leadership style to all subordinates (Northouse, 2001; Yukl, 2002). LMX is still utilized today as a basis for evaluating supervisor-subordinate relationships and intent to leave in a variety of professional and para-professional fields (Clemens, Milson, & Cashwell, 2009).

Research on Leader-Member Exchange Theory. As seen in Table 3, LMX studies have shown positive correlations between quality leader-subordinate relationships and organizational and employee outcomes in a wide range of non-academic settings. Gertsner and Day (1997) conducted a meta-analysis of 25 years of empirical research on the Leader-Member Exchange Theory. Their study supported the prior research, which demonstrated that quality of leader-member exchanges correlated positively with job satisfaction, performance, and organizational commitment, and intent to stay. Additional research has found quality of leader-member exchanges to be positively related to organizational commitment (Basu & Green, 1997; Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986; Nystrom, 1990).

A literature review of 23 studies found a positive correlation between leader-member exchanges and organizational commitment (Wayne et al., 2009). Although a

meta-analysis reported variations in the strength of that correlation (Gertsner & Day, 1997), it was found that these variations were caused by how employees interpreted the quality of their leader-subordinate relationships. Additional studies have found strong organizational and employee benefits of sustaining positive leader-subordinate relationships (Ferris, 1985; Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982; Scandura & Graen, 1984; Vecchio & Norris, 1996). All of these studies reported positive leader-subordinate relationships to be inversely related to one's intention to leave. Further studies found that quality of leader-subordinate relationships were positively related to job satisfaction (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Han and Jekel, 2011; Lagace, 1990; Scandura & Graen, 1984). Other studies found these relationships to improve work productivity and performance (Graen et al., 1982; Liden & Graen, 1980; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993; Scandura & Graen, 1984; Vecchio & Norris, 1996) and be positively related to innovative behaviors (Sanders et al., 2010). Because of the positive impact of a quality leader-subordinate relationship, supervisor satisfaction is also impacted (Duchon et al., 1986; Lagace, 1990).

More recent studies continue to provide empirical support for the use of LMX in organizational commitment and employee intent to stay. A meta-analysis of 50 studies found leader-subordinate relationships to be linked to a variety of citizenship behaviors (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Hui, 1993). Clemens et al. (2009) found that the quality of the leader-subordinate relationship between school principals and counselors were correlated positively to organizational commitment, intention to stay, and improved program implementation. Mardanov, Sterrett, and Baker (2007) found in the restaurant industry that quality leader-subordinate relationships

correlated positively to job satisfaction and employee motivation. Stringer's (2006) results supported the proposition that quality leader-subordinate relationships correlated positively with higher job satisfaction among firefighters.

Lee and Park (2007) concluded that improving the quality of the leader-subordinate relationship increased open communication and decreased fear and stigma of asking for feedback in the Korean engineering industry. This same result was reported by Lam, Huang, and Snape (2007) using participants from a communications company in China. Aube, Rousseau, and Morin (2007) found that the quality of the leader-subordinate relationships correlated positively with managers' ability to minimize the negative effects of a lack of organizational support in a prison system, while still improving employee commitment. In a more recent study the leader-member exchange theory was again validated using empirical data from the banking industry (Mardanov, Heischmidt, & Henson, 2008).

In sum, LMX has been utilized as a basis for evaluating the outcomes of the leader-subordinate relationship in a multiplicity of professional fields and work environments (Gertsner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The majority of LMX research has examined white-collar employees (Gagnon & Michael, 2004); however, it has been applied only on a limited basis in educational settings (Heck, Bedeian, & Day, 2005; Myers, 2006).

Criticism of Leader-Member Exchange Theory. Northouse (2001) found that while LMX values high quality exchanges and suggests leaders achieve these special relationships with all subordinates, researchers do not recommend how to create them. Another criticism is that not all leaders have the resources to establish quality

relationships with every subordinate (Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975), or that their span of leadership (number of subordinates) is too large to form these dyadic relationships (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). No study has determined the ideal number of subordinates to achieve successful LMX relationships.

When formed, these special (individualized) relationships may cause leaders to appear discriminatory towards members of the out-group who are not receiving any special attention. Bhal (2006) however, posited that if the leader remains transparent and fair, the in-group or out-group membership becomes unimportant. One recent study found that strong leader-subordinate relationship may actually come with an unwanted outcome—higher employee stress. Harris and Kacmar (2006) found with strong relationships versus moderate relationships came greater expectations and obligations, and because of this, higher levels of stress.

The creation and maintaining of quality LMX relationships requires extensive conditions as well as resources in terms of organizational climate, time, expectations, social capital, and commitment. Not all organizations or leaders feel it is necessary or desirable to achieve LMX excellence. To that end, LMX theory does not consider the leader or the subordinate, focusing only on the dyadic relationship between the two individuals (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999).

Purpose of Study and Hypotheses

Colleges and universities can avoid the expense of having to hire new faculty by retaining the talent they already have on staff (Hunjra et al., 2010). This study used a quantitative survey-based approach to examine the following: the faculty-administrator relationship, measured using the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX-7) instrument, and

how it relates to faculty intent to stay, organizational commitment, and pay satisfaction at a career-focused university. Informed by the review of prior scholarship pertaining to faculty careers and LMX summarized above and by my institution's needs, the hypotheses for this study are as follows:

- H₁: Length of time with the current supervisor will predict the perception of the faculty-administrator relationship as perceived by the faculty member and as measured by the LMX-7 score.
- H₀₂: Gender will not predict LMX-7 scores.
- H₀₃: Employment status will not predict the perception of the faculty-administrator relationship as measured by the LMX-7 score.
- H₀₄: Pay satisfaction will not predict the perception of the faculty-administrator relationship as measured by the LMX-7 score.
- H₅: Perception of the faculty-administrator relationship as perceived by the faculty member and as measured by the LMX-7 score will predict faculty intent to stay at the university.
- H₆: Faculty length of time working at the university will predict faculty intent to stay at the university.
- H₇: Faculty age will predict intent to stay at the University.
- H₈: Organizational commitment will positively predict intent to stay at the university.

H₉: Female faculty members with higher LMX-7 scores will have a higher intent to stay than male faculty members and female faculty members with lower LMX-7 scores.

H₀₁₀: Faculty intent to stay will not vary across campuses.

Chapter Three: Method

Setting and Participants

Ryan, Healy, and Sullivan (2009) demonstrated the value of conducting institution-specific analyses to achieve results that are more actionable as well as further refine theories and models related to faculty turnover. Thus, this study focuses on a single institution, Keiser University (KU), and the population of interest is KU's campus-based faculty in the 2012 spring semester.

Keiser University can be viewed as an institution in transition. KU began thirty-five years ago as an unaccredited for-profit technical school in Ft. Lauderdale, Florida. During the past three decades the institution has evolved into a Level VI (four or more doctoral degrees) regionally accredited (Southern Association of Colleges and Schools) degree-granting institution serving 15,000 students. KU now offers all levels of college degrees within many undergraduate and graduate fields. KU maintains 14 campuses in Florida and has a national and international presence through its online division and a campus in Shanghai, China. The institution was the first in the nation to offer online baccalaureate and master's degrees in business administration completely in Spanish. In January of 2011 the institution completed its final transition by becoming a not-for-profit institution.

Due to these changes in structure and mission during the past three decades, faculty characteristics evolved as well. Many faculty who were hired without terminal degrees were required to earn advanced academic credentials (which the institution paid for) or forfeit their employment for not meeting accreditation standards based on the institution's changing mission and structure. Many new faculty members whose backgrounds or

expectations did not always match that of the institution were hired, causing “growing pains” for both the University and the faculty. These included faculty expectations of office space, staff support, office hour requirements, issues with year-round schedules, and administrators being student centered versus faculty centered.

The pool of potential participants for this study included the total population of 1,085 full-time and part-time campus-based undergraduate and graduate faculty within the fourteen Florida-based campuses of Keiser University in spring 2012. The 312 FT/PT faculty who teach only through Keiser’s Online/web-based format were not included in this study. Participation was voluntary and confidentiality and anonymity were assured for all participants. Of the potential 1,085 participants representing the population to be studied the majority were: White Non-Hispanic (68.20%), Female (59.91%), under 50 years old (52.89%), employed full-time by the University (65.16%), and have been at the University for less than five years (73.36%).

Response rate. Of the 1,085 faculty members invited to participate, exactly 423 submitted surveys from all 14 campuses for an overall response rate of 39% (see Table 4). This response rate is above the typical faculty response rate of 28% for mail and online surveys (Cummings & Finkelstein, 2009; Hyman, 2000). Of the 423 respondents 414 (97.9%) completed the survey without exiting before at least viewing every question and clicking the “submit survey” button. One campus (MIA) had a response rate of 75.44%, three campuses (DAY, FTM, WPB) had response rates ranging from 52.78% to 63.41%, nine campuses (FTL, PSL/GOLF, MEL, JAX, TAL, TAM, SAR, LKL and ORL) had response rates ranging from 26.97% to 39.39%, and only one campus (PP) was

lower with a 16.13% response rate. Only 24 respondents (2.21%) omitted the question asking for campus location.

Sample demographics. A breakdown of the demographics for the respondents and population is listed in Table 5. The respondents reflect the actual population in terms of the majority being: White Non-Hispanic (63.40%), Female (58.80%), under 50 years old (53.60%), and have been at the University for less than five years (61.46%). Out of the sample of 423 participants, not more than 26 faculty members left a demographic question unanswered. The only meaningful demographic difference found between sample and population was employment status. Whereas 34.84% of the population is part-time or adjunct, the part-time or adjunct respondents represented 14.30% of the sample. This could have resulted in a desire not to participate in the study or the faculty members may not have been actively teaching during the current term and therefore did not see the email notifying them of the survey.

Measures

A summary of all instruments used in this study can be seen in Table 6.

Variables of interest. The variables of interest for this research are as follows:

1. Perception of the faculty-administrator relationship (LMX).
2. Intent to stay
3. Organizational commitment
4. Pay satisfaction
5. Demographic variables:
 - a. Gender
 - b. Age

- c. Years at the University
- d. Length of time with current supervisor
- e. Campus

LMX, intent to stay, organizational commitment, and pay satisfaction are each scaled variables based on prior instruments. The psychometric properties of each are discussed below.

Leader-Member Exchange Version 7 (LMX-7). The perception of the quality of the faculty-administrator relationship with their direct supervisor (be it a Dean, Chair, or Program Director) as perceived by the faculty member was measured using the Leader-Member Exchange Version 7 (LMX-7) instrument. Although faculty members have a “dotted-line” to other administrators such as the Vice-Chancellor of Academic Affairs, the “direct-line” faculty-administrator relationship is the most important in this study and was the only one tested.

This current study used Scandura and Graen’s (1984) seven-item LMX scale as recommended by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995, p. 237) for either party of the dyad (see Appendix D). Developed by business school scholars the seven-item questionnaire was designed using a Likert-type 5-point scale that has a range of 1 (negative response) to 5 (strong response) with a possible total point range of 7-35, assuming all questions have a response. The higher the score, the higher the quality of the faculty-administrator relationship. Score sums that fall between 30 and 35 are considered very high, 25-29 high, 20-24 moderate, 15-19 low, and 7-14 very low (Green et al., 2006) .

Over the past thirty-five years several different variations of the LMX instrument have been developed to measure the leader-member relationship (see Table 7):

Dansereau et al.'s. (1975) "negotiating latitude" two-item scale was the first; Liden and Graen (1980) followed with a four-item scale; Graen et al. (1982) utilized a five-item scale by adding one question to the original four items of Liden and Graen, and renamed it LMX; Graen et al. (1982), Seers and Graen (1984) and Scandura and Graen (1984) developed seven-item scales; Ridolphi and Seers (1984) developed a ten-item scale; twelve and fourteen-item scales were used by Wakabayashi and Graen (1984) and Wakabayashi, Graen, and Uhl-Bien (1990) respectively; Kozlowski and Doherty (1989) developed a 13-item scale; and finally, Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, and Tepper (1992) developed a six-item scale. Based on an extensive literature review, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) found that even though different scales were used to test the quality of leader-subordinate relationships, they were all empirically linked with the seven-item version of the scale and produced the same effects. Graen and Uhl-Bien asserted that LMX-7 had the strongest internal reliability (see Table 7).

Psychometric properties of LMX-7. The LMX-7 instrument has been widely used and has been shown to have predictive validity and internal reliability (Cogliser, Schriesheim, Scandura, & Neider, 1999; Lee, 2001). Additional support for LMX-7 was established in Gertsner and Day's (1997) meta-analytic review which confirmed that LMX-7 had the soundest psychometric properties of all LMX instruments reviewed, with an average Cronbach's alpha of .89 for the member scale version. In the Liden et al. (1997) meta-analysis review of 48 studies, 18 studies cited LMX-7 as the instrument of choice to measure the leader-subordinate relationship.

In Addition, various studies reported Cronbach's alpha values of .90 (Greguras & Ford, 2006; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001), and when translated into Chinese, Lam, Huang,

and Snape (2007) found Cronbach's alpha was .87. More recently the LMX-7 scale displayed good internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha of .91) in a study conducted on over 240 participants working in a variety of organizations (Landry & Vandenberghe, 2009). Other recent studies also reported good reliability. Li and Hung's (2009) study using LMX-7 achieved a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .89. In Han and Jekel's (2011) study using LMX-7, Cronbach's alpha was .97 and in Clemens et al.'s (2009) study their Cronbach's alpha was .95. Cronbach's alpha values for the LMX-7 scale are consistently high and indicate excellent internal consistency.

The validity of LMX-7 has been well supported (Stringer, 2006). LMX-7 has been shown to have criterion-related validity being positively related to job satisfaction, performance, organizational commitment, and intent to stay (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). In the current study the LMX-7 produced a high Cronbach's alpha of .94 (see Table 8), which indicates that it is sufficiently internally reliable. Of the 423 participants 9 (2.1%) were excluded because of missing data. The LMX-7 also produced a mean score of 25.92 (*SD* 6.9). High quality relationships are defined within LMX-7 as scores greater than or equal to 25. The participant scores in this study skewed high within the possible range of 7-35.

Criticism of LMX Instruments. Schriesheim and Cogliser (2009) suggested that it may be difficult for a subordinate to complete the measure without their responses being affected by their satisfaction with their supervisor, causing a possible lack of discriminant validity between supervisor satisfaction and subordinate-reported LMX-7. Further, results of leader-member exchange measurements represent employee opinions and attitudes at a given point in time (Gagnon & Michael, 2004) and not longitudinally. It is

noted also that there have been multiple revisions of the measurement, which created different findings and results, bringing into question the validity of the results (Yukl, 2002). Although tested on a limited basis in higher education outside of the United States (Asia and the Middle East), LMX had never been tested in a U.S. institution or in a career-focused university. Another criticism of LMX from Gertsner and Day (1997) is that no scales apart from LMX-2's Negotiating Latitude ask about what must be given in exchange for the reward or benefit received by being a member of the in-group of employees. Still, researchers continue to study the theory and have found the LMX measurements to be valuable tools and have continued using them for the past 35 years.

Intent to stay scale. The faculty's "intent to stay" at Keiser University was assessed using Price and Mueller's (1986) four-question scale, which measures one's intentions to remain employed at the institution (see Appendix E). Intention scores are reported on a Likert-type scale. Scores range from 4 to 20. Cronbach's alpha for the Price and Mueller intent to stay measure have ranged from .85 to .90 (Kim, Price, Mueller, & Watson, 1996; Price & Kim, 1993). There is no published information on validity for this intent to stay measure.

In the current study the intent to stay scale produced a high Cronbach's alpha of .89 (see Table 9), which indicates that it is sufficiently internally reliable. Of the 423 participants 10 (2.4%) were excluded because of missing data. The mean score was 14.71 (*SD* 3.8). A high level of intent to stay within this scale is defined as scores greater than or equal to 14. The participant scores in this study skewed high within the possible range of 4-20.

Organizational commitment. The faculty's self-reported level of organizational commitment was measured by Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) scale as adopted by Daly and Dee (2006) to fit the faculty environment (see Appendix F). Daly and Dee (2006) measured faculty organizational commitment at fifteen randomly selected urban public universities in the United States. The 7-item Likert-type scale includes both positively and negatively phrased items as recommended by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) when using a shorter version of their original 15 item scale. Scores range from 7 to 35. Cronbach's alpha was .90. When Neumann and Finaly-Neumann (1990) adopted the original scale but only asked faculty 4 positively phrased questions their Cronbach's alpha scores ranged from .81 to .86. With respect to concurrent validity, organizational commitment was positively correlated with intent to stay (Daly & Dee, 2006).

In the current study the organizational commitment scale produced a high Cronbach's alpha of .92 (see Table 10), which indicates that it is sufficiently internally reliable. Of the 423 participants 12 (2.8%) were excluded because of missing data. The scale also produced a $M = 27.73$, $SD = 5.7$. High organizational commitment is defined within this scale as scores greater than or equal to 25. The participant scores in this study skewed high within the possible range of 7-35.

Pay satisfaction. Recognizing that pay satisfaction is a core element of job satisfaction is not new (Judge, 1993); in developing the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) Heneman and Schwab (1985) found that pay satisfaction is also multidimensional in nature with different factors having different outcomes. Reliance on a single measure of overall pay satisfaction may provide limited information about the causes of pay dissatisfaction, and may mask potential problems (Judge, 1993).

The faculty's self-reported level of pay satisfaction was measured using Neumann and Finaly-Neumann's (1990) adoption of the PSQ to fit the faculty environment (see Appendix G). In their study all items were pre-tested for relevance and followed a similar approach for studying faculty pay satisfaction used by Locke, Fitzpatrick and White (1984). As recommended by Heneman (1985) the components covered: pay level (external competitiveness), pay structure (internal consistency), and individual pay (employee compensation). Cronbach's alphas ranged from .80 to .87 with an average of .85. Scores range from 3-15.

In the current study the pay satisfaction scale produced a high Cronbach's alpha of .86 (see Table 11), which indicates that it is sufficiently internally reliable. Of the 423 participants 19 (4.5%) were excluded because of missing data. The scale produced a $M = 9.26$, $SD = 2.83$ which is in the neutral range for this pay satisfaction scale causing no skewness in the scores.

Demographic data. Nine questions provided demographic data and control variables, such as ethnicity, age, campus location, years with the organization and length of time with current supervisor (see Appendix H).

Procedures

The present study was conducted during the spring term of 2012 immediately after receiving IRB approval on March 14, 2012 (see Appendix A). The actual timeframe was selected to gain an optimal response rate. There was a higher likelihood of reading emails on a more regular basis and willingness to take the survey when the University was not on a class break or during exam weeks. The survey questionnaire took approximately seven minutes to complete and was self-administered. Faculty were

informed that the survey would be available online for seven days. However, the survey questionnaire remained available for an additional two days before closing to allow for late participation. No faculty members completed the survey beyond the notification date provided.

The survey was completed via an online link created through Survey Monkey Online Surveys and Polls (www.surveymonkey.com) providing convenience, anonymity, and confidentiality for the participants. One feature of a premium Survey Monkey account is its SPSS integration which prevents data entry errors through a direct download. A private premium account was established to administer the survey and secure the data by limiting access to anyone except the primary researcher. Once the survey was closed, the data were downloaded to Microsoft Excel and SPSS on a private computer and password protected. The survey was then deleted from the Survey Monkey online account.

All 1,085 active, campus-based faculty were initially approached via the Keiser University email exchange server. All faculty members being asked to participate had access to a computer on campus or could use any computer at any location they chose. Faculty received an email with a link to the website where they could anonymously complete the survey questionnaire. Faculty were familiar with the use of Survey Monkey through student evaluations and employee surveys, and the fact that the link is exactly the same for each person with no identifiable data. Information regarding the purpose and use of the study (see Appendix B), informed consent, time needed to complete the survey, the offer of the luncheon as a motivator (The two campuses with the highest response rate as a percentage of its total faculty population were provided with a catered

luncheon as a motivation to secure a high response rate), and a deadline of seven calendar days to take the survey questionnaire was included in the email. One reminder email was sent on day four following the original request (see Appendix C), again asking for voluntary participation.

The Office of the Chancellor at KU was assured that the study would follow all required guidelines to insure strict confidentiality and anonymity for all respondents. Keiser University has the option of not having its name used or any identifiable data reported if publication is sought outside of the University of Miami.

Chapter Four: Results

Preliminary Analyses

SPSS (Version 18.0) was used to calculate the statistical analyses. There was very little missing data (see Table 12) and an independent t-test showed no statistically significant difference between participants with missing data and valid cases $t(421) = -0.32, p = .85$; therefore, no analytic adjustments were deemed necessary in any of the variables to account for the missing data.

First, individual participant's scores were calculated by taking the mean of each participant's score on each item within the LMX-7 instrument (see Table 8), Intent to Stay (see Table 9), measures of Organizational Commitment (see Table 10), and Pay Satisfaction (see Table 11). Descriptive statistics were then calculated for each variable and relationships between each variable were computed using correlations, a one-way ANOVA and a t-test. Table 13 displays the mean, standard deviation, range, skewness and kurtosis for each continuous variable, and Pearson correlations between the continuous variables. Relationships between gender and the continuous variables were explored with t-tests. The t-tests found no significant results. Cronbach's alpha was calculated to test the internal consistency reliability for all scales. LMX-7 was .94, Measure of Intent to Stay was .89, Measure of Organizational Commitment was .92 and Pay Satisfaction was .86.

Second, a series of independent-sample t-test analyses were conducted to determine if the two part-time statuses-adjunct and part-time could be combined into one category because the n in each of these subsamples was relatively low ($n = 35$ and $n = 24$, respectively). Independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare LMX-7, pay

satisfaction, organizational commitment and intent to stay scores between the adjunct and part-time statuses. There was not a significant difference in LMX-7 scores between part-time faculty ($M = 3.74, SD = 1.03$) and the adjunct faculty ($M = 4.02, SD = .67$); $t(57) = -1.29, p = .07$. There was not a significant difference in pay satisfaction for the part-time faculty ($M = 3.21, SD = .92$) and the adjunct faculty ($M = 3.32, SD = .76$); $t(57) = -0.52, p = .687$. There was not a significant difference in Organizational Commitment for the part-time faculty ($M = 3.73, SD = .98$) and the adjunct faculty ($M = 4.07, SD = .81$); $t(57) = -1.47, p = .99$. There was also no significant difference in Intent to Stay for the part-time faculty ($M = 3.57, SD = .87$) and the adjunct faculty ($M = 3.76, SD = .80$); $t(57) = -0.87, p = .88$. It was decided to combine the two part-time faculty statuses (adjunct/part-time) because t-tests showed no statistically significant differences between the two.

Primary Analyses

In order to have a more elegant statistical design to test the hypotheses, three blocked hierarchical regressions were used to test the first nine research hypotheses. A one-way Analysis of Variance was used to test the final research hypothesis related to differences in intent to stay across the fourteen KU campuses. In preparation for the regression analyses, Levene's tests were performed to test homogeneity of variance, given the skewness and kurtosis in the variables years teaching at KU and length of time with current supervisor. Levene's tests showed that the equal variance assumption was not violated for any variable used in analysis. Collinearity diagnostics were run also. Variance inflation factors (VIF) all ranged between 1.00 and 1.36, except with OC (VIF = 2.59) and Intent to Stay (VIF = 2.75) when LMX is the dependent variable. There was no multicollinearity found in the testing.

The regression models were constructed based on the theoretical and conceptual framework relating to the LMX Theory. The first block contains individual variables (mostly demographic). The second block includes variables related to the supervisor and the third block includes variables related to the organization. The design answered two research questions: First, which factors predict faculty perceptions of the faculty-administrator relationship? And second, which factors predict faculty Intent to Stay?

Predictors of LMX. To address the first research question (hypotheses one through four) a hierarchical regression used LMX-7 scores as the dependent variable. Block one included four control variables: years teaching at KU, age, employment status, and gender. Block two included one additional theory-related, supervisor-level variable, length of time with current supervisor. The final block included three additional variables relating to the organization: Organizational Commitment, Pay Satisfaction, and Intent to Stay. This method was used to examine how these groups of independent variables of interest explain the variance in LMX-7 scores (see Table 14). The model accounted for 27% of the variance in predicting faculty perception of the LMX relationship. An omnibus test confirmed that the model of the independent variables moderately predicted LMX-7 scores, $R^2 = .27$, $F(8, 373) = 17.32$, $p < .001$.

Organizational Commitment had a positive, moderate statistically significant relationship with LMX-7 scores, $\beta = .34$, $t(373) = 4.80$, $p < .001$ after controlling for the individual and supervisor variables. Review of the beta weights in Table 14 found Pay Satisfaction ($\beta = .16$) to be positively statistically significant, while Intent to Stay ($\beta = .06$) was not significant. The model therefore predicts that, *ceteris paribus*, for each standard deviation (*SD*) unit increase in Organizational Commitment, faculty members'

LMX-7 scores are expected to increase by 0.34 *SD* units, after controlling for the other variables. Also, for each *SD* unit increase in pay satisfaction, expected faculty members' LMX-7 scores are expected to increase by .16 *SD* units, after controlling for the other variables.

Similarly, length of time with current supervisor had a positive relationship with LMX-7 scores such that for each additional year spent with the supervisor, LMX-7 scores increase by 0.14 *SD* ($\beta = .14, t(373) = 2.69, p = .01$). Employment status $\beta = .05, t(373) = 1.03, p = .30$ was not significant, nor was gender $\beta = -.06, t(373) = -1.22, p = .22$, or age $\beta = .00, t(373) = .09$. Years teaching at KU had a significant negative relationship $\beta = -.21, t(373) = -3.69$ to the LMX-7 scores. Therefore, based on the hierarchical regression analysis, Hypothesis One, length of time with current supervisor predicted the perception of the faculty-administrator relationship $\Delta R^2 = .21, \beta = .14$. For Hypothesis Two, the null hypothesis was supported; gender did not predict LMX-7 scores. For Hypothesis Three, the null was supported; employment status did not predict the perception of the faculty-administrator relationship as measured by the LMX-7 scores. For Hypothesis Four, the null hypothesis was rejected; Pay Satisfaction did predict the perception of the faculty-administrator relationship as measured by the LMX-7 scores, $\Delta R^2 = .21, \beta = .16$.

Predictors of intent to stay. To address the second research question (hypotheses five through nine) two hierarchical regressions used Intent to Stay as the dependent variable. In the second regression analysis (see Table 15) block one included the same four individual variables as in the first regression model: years teaching at KU, age, employment status, and gender. Block two added one structural and one subjective

variable, both of which related to the relationship with one's supervisor: length of time with current supervisor and LMX-7 score. The final block added two additional variables related to the organization: Organizational Commitment and Pay Satisfaction.

The model accounted for 65% of the variance in predicting Intent to Stay. An omnibus test confirmed that the model of the independent variables significantly predicted faculty Intent to Stay, $\Delta R^2 = .43$, $F(8, 373) = 85.66$, $p < .001$. Review of the beta weights in Table 15 specify that Organizational Commitment $\beta = .70$, $t(373) = 19.30$, $p < .001$ significantly contributed to the model. Pay satisfaction $\beta = .13$, $t(373) = 4.00$, $p < .001$ was also significant, as well as length of time teaching at the University $\beta = .17$, $t(373) = 4.27$, $p < .001$. The LMX-7 score, $\beta = .03$, $t(373) = .79$, $p = .43$ was not significant nor was Age, $\beta = .05$, $t(373) = 1.64$, $p = .10$ employment status $\beta = .03$, $t(373) = .99$, $p = .32$, gender, $\beta = -.05$, $t(373) = -1.65$, $p = .10$, or length of time with supervisor, $\beta = -.02$, $t(373) = -.43$, $p = .67$.

The model therefore predicts that, *ceteris paribus*, for every *SD* unit increase in Organizational Commitment, faculty members' Intent to Stay scores are expected to increase by *.70 SD* units. The model also predicts that for every *SD* unit increase in pay satisfaction, faculty members' Intent to Stay scores are expected to increase by *.13 SD* units, as well as a *.17 SD* unit increase in Intent to Stay for each *SD* increase in years teaching at KU. Based on the second hierarchical regression, Hypothesis Five, faculty perception of the faculty-administrator relationship (LMX-7) as a predictor of Intent to Stay, was rejected. Hypothesis Six, length of time working at the university as a predictor of faculty Intent to Stay was supported, $\Delta R^2 = .43$, $\beta = .17$. Hypothesis Seven, faculty age as a predictor of Intent to Stay was rejected. Hypothesis Eight,

Organizational Commitment as a predictor of Intent to Stay, was supported, $\Delta R^2 = .43$, $\beta = .70$. It is interesting to note that when Organizational Commitment, which is highly correlated with and conceptually similar to Intent to Stay, is not in the regression equation, LMX-7 is a significant predictor of Intent to Stay (see Block 2 of Table 15).

Interaction and intent to stay. The third regression analysis (testing Hypothesis Nine) added an interaction between gender and LMX-7 scores to determine if gender and LMX-7 scores together explained any of the variance in Intent to Stay (see Table 16). Hypothesis Nine stated that female faculty members with higher LMX-7 scores would have a higher Intent to Stay than male faculty members and female faculty members with lower LMX-7 scores. An interaction term for gender and LMX-7 scores was included in the faculty Intent to Stay regression. An omnibus test indicated that although the overall model of the independent variables continued to predict faculty intent to stay, the interaction of LMX-7 and gender ($\beta = .16$, $t(372) = 1.01$, $p = .31$) (see Table 16) had no statistical significance. Hypothesis Nine was therefore rejected.

Relationship between campus location and intent to stay. The final analysis of the second research question (Hypothesis Ten) used a one-way ANOVA to compare scores on Intent to Stay across the 14 KU campus locations. Null Hypothesis Ten stated that Intent to Stay would not vary across campuses. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the hypothesis. The one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant mean difference on dependent variable Intent to Stay across the different campuses $F(13, 385) = 3.10$, $p < .001$. Because of the significant result, post hoc analyses with Bonferroni correction were conducted (see Table 17). The post hoc analyses showed significant differences in Intent to Stay between one campus (MIA) and

six other campuses of KU (PP, WPB, TAL, TAM, SAR and ORL). The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. No other differences between the campuses were identified in the analyses.

Post-hoc data collection. For each campus of KU, resignation rates were obtained for the six month period following the close of my survey (March 22, 2012 through September 22, 2012). Table 18 shows a clear relationship between the mean Intent to Stay score and percent of faculty who resigned across the fourteen campuses of Keiser University. These findings are consistent with the notion that intent is the immediate precursor to actual turnover behavior (Hom & Hulin, 1981; Ryan, Healy, & Sullivan, 2009; Smart, 1990; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

Overall, the campuses with the highest intent to stay had the lowest percentage of actual resignations, and those campuses with the lowest mean Intent to Stay scores had the highest overall percentage of resignations. Out of fourteen campuses only three were anomalies (see Table 18): LKL had zero resignations with a $M = 3.77$, FTM with a $M = 3.97$ had a 6.67% resignation rate caused by a single faculty member leaving the campus, and DAY with a $M = 3.81$ had a resignation rate of 9.76%.

Chapter Five: Discussion

The purpose of this research was to explore one possible cause of faculty turnover at Keiser University -- the faculty administrator relationship. This chapter summarizes, evaluates, and interprets the findings of the research, offering conclusions, directions for future research, implications for practical application, and the improvement of faculty Intent to Stay at the institution.

Summary of Findings and Contribution to the Literature

Leader-Member Exchange Theory. LMX research is predicated upon the assumption that high quality dyadic supervisor-subordinate relationships are predictive of essential organizational outcomes. Although the Leader-Member Exchange Theory has been widely tested in “white collar” professional settings using the LMX-7 scale, this was the first time it was tested at a career-focused university or with any college level faculty in the United States. This research has therefore added to the body of knowledge and current literature on the Leader-Member Exchange Theory and the LMX-7 scale.

The first question addressed in this study was to identify variables that would predict faculty perceptions of the faculty-administrator relationship as measured by the LMX-7 score.

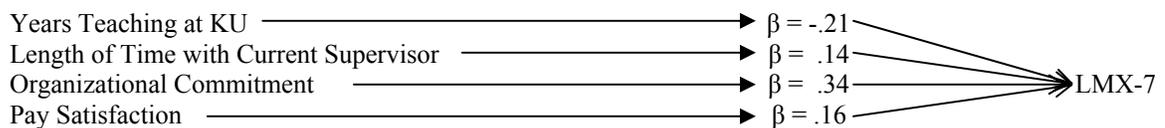


Figure 5.1. Independent variables predicting LMX-7.

Length of time with current supervisor. As seen in Figure 5.1, the results indicated a positive relationship between length of time with current supervisor and perception of the relationship. This finding is consistent with the studies of Graen, Hui, & Taylor (2006) and Johnsrud and Rosser (1999). Both studies found that when administrator and faculty turnover is high, this does not provide the time needed to establish strong relationships.

Years teaching at KU. One interesting finding is that at this institution the longer faculty are at the University, the less happy they are with their current supervisors (see Figure 5.1). One possible cause of this is faculty tenure (years) at KU. This study found that 52% of the faculty reported working with their current supervisor one year or less, while 28% of the faculty reported working at the University less than two years.

Another reason may be the institution's structure and governance. Research in higher education posits that faculty turnover is higher at institutions whose governance patterns tend to be more autocratic than democratic (Bowen & Schuster, 1986). Career colleges and universities are different from traditional institutions in terms of governance. Faculty who come to the University from traditional institutions may feel marginalized, disempowered, or not "heard" in university matters. This phenomenon was identified by Del Favero and Bray (2010); the situation can create tension between faculty and administrators and a sense that they are being taken for granted by administrators. It may also be that administrators do not understand the importance of the LMX relationship and as the "honeymoon period" ends neither the supervisor nor employee engage in activities that strengthen the dyadic relationship.

Pay satisfaction. Another independent variable found to be a predictor of LMX was pay satisfaction. The results of this study indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between pay satisfaction and the faculty–administrator relationship (see Figure 5.1). This finding would be expected, recognizing that pay satisfaction is a core element of job satisfaction (Judge, 1993) and satisfaction with administration (Del Favero & Bray, 2006). As noted by Del Favero and Bray (2010), faculty may be less trusting of administrators if they believe they were unfairly compensated, or were taken advantage of during the negotiation process by virtue of the market conditions.

Organizational commitment. This study’s findings were consistent with Wayne et al.’s (2009) review of twenty-three previous studies which found a positive relationship between leader-member exchanges and organizational commitment (see Figure 5.1). Lawrence, Ott and Bell (2011) also found a positive relationship between faculty organizational commitment and the perception of departmental leadership.

This study found positive relationships between LMX-7, OC, Intent to Stay and Pay Satisfaction. It is a logical assumption to assume these variables would have strong positive correlations. It is how employees interpret the quality of their LMX relationships, identify and accept the organization’s goal and values, and believe their pay is equitable that builds upon their organizational commitment and determines if they maintain employment or seek opportunities elsewhere.

Faculty intent to stay. The second research question addressed in this study was to identify independent variables that would predict faculty Intent to Stay at the University. The independent variable of most interest to me was LMX-7. Would it predict faculty Intent to Stay at Keiser University?

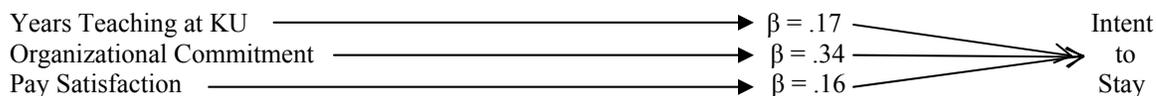


Figure 5.2. Independent variables predicting intent to stay.

The LMX relationship. The results indicated that there is no significant relationship between LMX-7 and Intent to Stay after controlling for other variables most importantly, Organizational Commitment. These findings deviate from all previous studies of LMX, which found that LMX was in fact, a strong determinate of Intent to Stay in other “white collar” professions. This research may have demonstrated that in a college setting, where a more traditional supervisor-employee relationship does not exist within the faculty ranks, LMX is much less applicable in predicting Intent to Stay. Perhaps the LMX-7 measure provides predictability only within a more traditional leader-follower role and setting. It may also be that in this educational setting LMX-7 did not measure what it purports to measure. Certain LMX-7 questions such as would your supervisor “bail you out,” or issues of “job problems” may not apply well to faculty perception of faculty and administrator roles at the University. Some faculty may not perceive certain LMX-7 questions or activities as being part of a high quality relationship that would be present in a more traditional employer/employee relationship. Anecdotally, post hoc discussions with faculty found that many faculty stated that they responded to the survey exactly as requested (i.e., immediate supervisor) and not to the person whom they truly believed to be their supervisor, such as the relationship they may have with their Campus President or Dean.

Years teaching at the university. Another independent variable studied as a possible predictor of faculty Intent to Stay was years teaching at the University. Results indicated that there was a significant positive correlation between length of time at the university and Intent to Stay (see Figure 5.2). It would be expected that as faculty remain at an institution there is a greater bond to the organization as seniority and pay rise and relationships deepen. All of these variables impact organizational commitment which was found in this study to be the strongest predictor of faculty Intent to Stay.

This study was consistent with the findings of Rosser and Townsend (2006), which concluded that having been in a position for a shorter period of time had a significant positive relationship to intent to leave. There is likely to be a correlation between years teaching at the institution and faculty age. Older faculty members are also less likely to leave an institution (Pfeffer and Lawler, 1980; Mobley, 1982; Smart, 1990; Xu, 2008a) to start over at a new college or university. Finally, additional years teaching at the institution result in increased interactions between faculty and their campuses which develops stronger organizational commitment (Lawrence, Ott & Bell, 2011) which has been found to increase Intent to Stay.

Pay satisfaction. Pay Satisfaction was an independent variable studied as a possible predictor of faculty intent to stay. Although Del Favero and Bray (2010) found that faculty are not necessarily driven by their salaries, and therefore pay is not necessarily a root of tension between faculty and administrators, possible lower starting salaries based on market conditions is compounded over time (Perna, 2001). This may cause faculty to believe they were taken advantage of, and that they continue to be unfairly compensated (Del Favero & Bray, 2010) through minimal annual increases.

As with the relationship between Pay Satisfaction and LMX, there was a significant positive relationship between Pay Satisfaction and Intent to Stay (see Figure 5.2). In past studies pay satisfaction was found to positively influence organizational commitment to the extent that faculty believe their pay is fair and equitable (Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990). Similarly, while Pay Satisfaction was correlated with Organizational Commitment, Organizational Commitment was the strongest predictor of Intent to Stay in this current study.

Organizational commitment. Organizational Commitment was an independent variable studied as a possible predictor of faculty intent to stay. Lawrence, Ott, and Bell (2011) found organizational commitment to be essential in understanding faculty attitudes and behaviors and demonstrates an overall attachment to the organization. Because it is more global and multifaceted than other variables, which may represent only a single factor, organizational commitment reflects a general affective response to the institution as a whole (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). This transcends passive loyalty (Gardner & Quigley, 2010). This global aspect of organizational commitment is demonstrated in the findings of this current study, which found Organizational Commitment to be the strongest variable in predicting both LMX-7 and Intent to Stay (see Figures 5.1 and 5.2). Consequently Organizational Commitment is probably a more important determinant of Intent to Stay than general job satisfaction, because it is more stable over time. Longitudinal evidence supports this view (Mowday, et al., 1979).

Limitations

Although this current study's design has several limitations which may influence the application and generalizability of the results, the actual findings added to the body of

literature and produced recommendations for the University to improve faculty intent to stay. Recommendations for future research based on the limitations will also be presented. First, the study focuses on a single institution and participation was voluntary, thereby limiting the generalizability of the results. Although Ryan, Healy and Sullivan (2009) demonstrated the value of conducting institution specific analyses to achieve actionable results, one sample may not be sufficient to evaluate a fully hypothesized model (Kaplan, 2000). Second, only campus-based faculty were recruited for this study. None of the 312 (22.3% of the total KU faculty) online, internet-based faculty were surveyed, thereby limiting generalizing to all Keiser faculty. These online faculty members are located throughout the United States which offers limited face-to-face contact with their supervisors. This is an opportunity for a separate survey of internet-based faculty. Third, this study is not longitudinal so it will not be known if intent to stay is related to actual behavior at the individual level. This study was able to resolve this limitation by performing post hoc analysis on data provided by the Human Resources Department for all faculty resignations during a six month period following the survey results. Fourth, personal biases of the study participants towards their supervisors may have impacted their interpretation of the survey questions. Fifth, respondents were anonymous, so descriptions of nonresponders are not possible. Sixth, the use of correlation does not answer the question of causation. Therefore, I cannot test whether variability in any of the variables is causing the variability in any other variables. Seventh, although no multicollinearity was found, some of the questions within the measures were skewed towards the moderately high range, which limits the variability in the data. Eighth, as suggested by Schriesheim and Cogliser (2009) it may be difficult for

a subordinate to complete the LMX measure without their responses being affected by their satisfaction with their supervisor, causing a possible lack of discriminant validity between supervisor satisfaction and subordinate-reported LMX-7. Ninth, results of leader-member exchange measurements represent employee opinions and attitudes at a given point in time (Gagnon & Michael, 2004) and not over time.

Directions for Further Research

Based on the results and limitations of the current study, additional research is warranted. New research might include a cross-section of career-focused universities and possibly a broader range of institutions to assist in generalizing the results. With the growth of internet-based faculty and those campus-based who now also teach in the online environment, this offers opportunities for additional research and understanding in the area of intent to stay. The online environment offers faculty the opportunity to teach from any location in the world without relocating; this offers faculty greater mobility, options, and choice. The online environment also provides an avenue for faculty to increase their overall income by teaching for multiple institutions at the same time. These factors increase the importance of understanding changes in overall organizational commitment and faculty relationships with their institutions.

A longitudinal study may also be appropriate to determine which variables change over time and their impact on faculty Intent to Stay as a precursor to actually staying or leaving the organization. Having faculty take a single survey at one point in time does not demonstrate if responses are being affected by personal biases, opinions, and attitudes that are short-term versus long-term, which may impact organizational commitment.

A better understanding of the leader-member dynamics is needed to understand why the faculty perception of the faculty-supervisor relationship became negative with time. This could be achieved by surveying both faculty and administrators and possibly even matching the two together, by including open-ended questions allowing faculty to explain in more detail their responses or by using a qualitative study. It is possible that LMX-7 does not measure what it posits to measure in all types of settings. It may also be possible that in this study faculty were asked to rate the wrong person by requiring them to rate the relationship with their “direct supervisor” versus allowing them to choose the administrator they believe represents their “true” supervisor. Additional exploration of LMX-7 in universities is therefore warranted.

Faculty turnover and intent to stay remains an important aspect of higher education research. Additional research using longitudinal studies to determine the stability of intent to stay and whether that intent becomes a precursor to actually resigning would benefit all types of educational institutions.

Implications for Theory

The current study added to the research on LMX, Organizational Commitment, and Pay Satisfaction as predictors of Intent to Stay. This study added to the literature on the importance of these variables as demonstrated for the first time within a career-focused university. This was the first time in over thirty years that LMX did not demonstrate the same results in a professional setting. Although LMX was a significant variable predicting Intent to Stay in Step 2, it became insignificant when Organizational Commitment was included. LMX Theory could be modified to test the dynamics found in higher education.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this study have several practical implications for Keiser University and possibly for other career-focused colleges and universities or institutions that do not offer tenure or long term contracts and wish to improve faculty retention. Since Organizational Commitment has been found to be the most important variable impacting the LMX relationship and Intent to Stay at the University, this should be the focus in working to improve faculty retention at campuses with high turnover.

My personal observations suggest that faculty need to perceive that they are an important part of the campus beyond being in the classroom. Interaction with administrators, serving on committees, opportunities to participate in decision making processes and being used as a source of information are some ways to accomplish this. Faculty who wish to move up the ranks at the University should know how this is accomplished. This should be a transparent process which has steps and goals that can be achieved. The administration may also want to consider a role for a faculty member on the Board of Trustees. These types of opportunities may increase commitment to the institution.

In addition, this research has found that, overall, the longer faculty remain at Keiser University, the more likely they intend to stay, while at the same time the less happy they are with their immediate current supervisors. This appears to be a campus-based issue. This phenomenon offers the institution an opportunity to improve faculty-administrator relations through appropriate mentoring for faculty members and administrators. The data revealed that faculty intent to stay varied across campuses. The University can learn from campuses with high intent to stay rates and use that knowledge for

interventions with campuses with lower intent to stay rates. By understanding what is important to the institution's faculty, action plans can be developed that will build greater organizational commitment and overall faculty retention.

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Table 1

Predictors of Faculty Intent to Stay

Studies	Predictors
Rosser and Tabata (2010)	Perception of one's work
Smart (1990)	Organizational satisfaction, job satisfaction & individual characteristics and demographics
Ryan, Healy and Sullivan (2009)	Strong relationships with administration
Cotton and Tuttle (1986)	Satisfaction with supervisor and the organization
Price (1977), Price and Mueller (1986)	Perception of the current work environment with the external work environment
Daly and Dee (2006); Johnsrud and Rosser (2002); Madron, Craig, and Mendel (1976)	Perception of the work environment on morale
Cameron, Whetten and Kim (1987)	Institutions facing declining enrollment
Bowen and Schuster (1986); Madron, Craig & Mendel (1976); Wilhelm, Herd and Steiner (1993)	Faculty member's current supervisor

Table 2

Characteristic and Demographic Predictors on Faculty Intent to Stay

Studies	Characteristics and Demographics
Menges and Exum (1983)	Men have lower attrition than women
Johnsrud and Heck (1984)	Women have higher attrition than men and based on the relationship with their chair impacted the decision to stay or leave more than men.
DeAngelo, et al (2009); Gardner (2012)	Top predictor in women's consideration was positive interaction with administrators and/or a perception of consistent and quality leadership
Blix et al (1994); Witt and Lovrich (1988); Xu (2008)	Women consider leaving more than men because of stress and high expectations
Smith (1979)	Opportunities for advancement for both genders
Rosser and Townsend (2006)	Being full-time or in the position for a longer period of time.
Barns, Agago and Coombs (1998)	The amount of time commitment for males and being tenured for men and women
Smart (1990)	Tenured females had stronger intentions to stay than tenured males.
Olsen, Maple and Stage (1995)	Women and male faculty of color had higher rates of attrition than White males.
Rosser (2004) Zhou and Volkwein (2004)	Minorities were more likely to leave. Being female and an ethnic minority had smaller impacts on faculty departure than expected.
Xu (2008); Zhou and Volkwein (2004)	Departure intentions do not vary by academic discipline except at research institutions.
Xu (2008)	Although women have higher turnover intentions than men. They do not depart more often than their male counterparts.
Pfeffer and Lawler (1980); Mobley (1982); Smart (1990); Xu (2008a)	Older faculty members were less likely to leave across all disciplines.

Table 3

Outcomes of Positively Perceived LMX Relationships

Studies	Outcome
Stringer (2006)	Improved Work Atmosphere
Mayfield & Mayfield (1998)	Improved Workplace Outcomes
Basu & Green (1997); Clemens, et al. (2009); Duchon, Green, & Taber (1986); Gagnon & Michael (2004); Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995); Nystrom (1990)	Increased Organizational Commitment
Clemens et al. (2009); Ferris (1985); Gagnon & Michael (2004); Graen, Liden, & Hoel (1982); Scandura & Graen (1984); Vecchio & Norris (1996)	Increased Intent to Stay
Graen & Cashman 1975); Graen, Linden, & Hoel (1982); Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp (1982); Lagace (1990); Han and Jekel (2011); Scandura & Graen (1984). Mardanov, Sterrett, and Baker (2007); Stringer (2006)	Improved Job Satisfaction and Motivation
Graen et al.(1982); Liden & Graen (1980); Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell (1993); Scandura & Graen (1984); Vecchio & Norris (1996)	Increased Work Productivity and Performance
Sanders et al.(2010)	Increased Innovative Behaviors
Duchon et al. (1986); Lagace (1990)	Increased Supervisor Satisfaction
Gagnon & Michael (2004); Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson (2007); Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Hui (1993)	Improved Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
Burns & Otte (1999); Gagnon & Michael (2004); Linden & Maslyn (1998); Stringer (2006)	Increased Trust and Respect
Lam, Huang, and Snape, (2007); Lee and Park (2007)	Increased Open Communication

Note. All studies are through traditional business organizations.
(Edited from Keller & Dansereau, 2001)

Table 4

Faculty Response Rate by Campus

Campus	Total faculty	Participated	Percent (%)
MIA	57	43	75.44
DAY	41	26	63.41
FTM	30	16	53.33
WPB	72	38	52.78
LKL	66	26	39.39
TAL	70	26	37.14
MEL	75	27	36.00
FTL	230	76	33.04
ORL	102	31	30.39
JAX	50	15	30.00
SAR	90	27	30.00
TAM	51	14	27.45
PSL/GOLF	89	24	26.97
PP	62	10	16.13
Campus omitted	NA	24	2.21
	1085	423	39.00

Table 5

Population and Respondent Demographics

Demographic Item	Population	Sample
Total faculty	1085	423
Years teaching at KU		
0 to 1.99	44.70%	28.13%
2.0 to 4.99	28.66%	33.33%
5.0 to 9.99	22.12%	28.13%
10.0 to 14.99	4.06%	5.43%
15 and higher	0.46%	1.18%
Skipped the question	NA	3.78%
Gender		
Female	59.91%	58.80%
Male	40.09%	41.20%
Skipped the question	NA	4.70%
Ethnicity		
American Indian or Alaska Native	0.37%	0.70%
Asian	3.78%	2.00%
White Non-Hispanic	68.20%	63.40%
Hispanic or Latino (any race)	10.88%	9.50%
Black/African American	14.93%	6.80%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	0.18%	0.20%
More than one race	1.66%	3.40%
Preferred not to answer	NA	13.90%
Skipped the question	NA	3.00%
Employment Status		
Full-time	65.16%	85.60%
Part-time/Adjunct	34.84%	14.30%
Skipped the question	NA	2.83%
Age group		
20-29	3.59%	4.80%
30-39	20.18%	18.10%
40-49	29.12%	30.70%
50-59	27.47%	30.70%
60 and over	19.63%	15.60%
Skipped the question	NA	6.14%

Table 6

Summary of Study Instruments

Instrument	Description	Variable Examined	Data Source	Previous study alphas
Scandura and Graen's (1984) LMX-7 Scale	7 questions on a 5-point multiple choice scale	Perception of the faculty-administrator relationship	Faculty members self-report	.87 - .97
Price and Mueller's (1986) Measure of Intent to Stay	4 questions on a 5-point multiple choice scale	Intent to stay at the institution	Faculty members self-report	.85 - .90
Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1979) Measure of Organizational Commitment as adopted by Daly and Dee (2006)	7 questions on a 5-point multiple choice scale	Organizational commitment	Faculty members self-report	.81 - .86
Heneman & Schwab's (1985) Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire as adopted by Neumann and Finaly-Neumann (1990).	3 questions on a 5-point multiple choice scale	Faculty members' satisfaction with their pay	Faculty members self-report	.80 - .87

Table 7

Leader-Member Exchange Scales

LMX Question	LMX-2	LMX-3	LMX-4	LMX-5	LMX-6	LMX-7
Do you know where you stand with your immediate supervisor?					√	√
How well does your immediate supervisor understand your job problems?					√	√
How well does your immediate supervisor recognize your potential?					√	√
What are the chances your immediate supervisor would be inclined to use his/her power to help you solve your problems at work?	√		√	√	√	√
What are the chances your immediate supervisor would "bail you out"?		√	√	√		√
Would defend and justify your supervisor's decisions even if he/she were not present?						√
How would you characterize your working relationship with your immediate supervisor?		√		√		√
How flexible is your supervisor about evolving changes in your job?	√		√	√		
How often do you take suggestions to your supervisor		√	√	√		
My supervisor would say that my work goals and his/her goals are...					√	
I feel that my work goal and those of my supervisor are...					√	
Date developed	1975	2001	1980	1982	1992	1984
Alpha coefficients (employee)	.59	.71	.74	.80	.82	.89

Note. All other LMX versions fail to provide appropriate psychometric data for comparison.

(Edited from Keller & Dansereau, 2001)

Table 8

Psychometric Properties of LMX-7 in Present Study

Item	M	SD	Alpha if item deleted
How well does your immediate supervisor understand your job problems and needs?	3.80	1.83	.93
Do you know where you stand with your immediate supervisor...do you usually know how satisfied your immediate supervisor is with what you do?	3.82	1.21	.93
How well does your immediate supervisor recognize your potential?	3.75	1.14	.93
Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances your immediate supervisor would be inclined to use his/her available power to help you solve problems at work?	3.80	1.12	.93
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your immediate supervisor has, what are the chances your immediate supervisor would "bail you out" at his/her expense if you really needed it?	3.12	1.22	.94
I have enough confidence in my immediate supervisor's decisions that I would defend and justify his/her decisions even if he or she were not present to do so.	3.78	1.08	.93
How would you characterize your working relationship with your immediate supervisor?	3.84	1.03	.93
Scale Statistics	25.92	6.85	.94

Table 9

Psychometric Properties of Intent to Stay Scale in Present Study

Item	M	SD	Alpha if item deleted
I plan to leave this university as soon as possible (R)	4.21	.96	.87
Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this university before I retire	2.95	1.24	.89
I would be reluctant to leave this university	3.72	1.10	.83
I plan to stay at this university as long as possible	3.83	1.07	.83
Scale Statistics	14.71	3.78	.89

Table 10

Psychometric Properties of Organizational Commitment Scale in Present Study

Organizational Commitment item	M	SD	Alpha if item deleted
I speak highly of this university to my friends	4.16	.91	.90
I am not dedicated to this university (R)	4.35	.92	.91
I am proud to tell others I am part of this university	4.11	.93	.90
This university inspires the very best job performance in me	3.76	1.10	.91
This university's values are not the same as mine (R)	3.21	1.17	.91
I don't care about the fate of this university (R)	4.55	.73	.92
This university is the best of all possible places to work.	3.60	1.11	.92
Scale Statistics	27.73	5.72	.92

Table 11

Psychometric Properties of Pay Satisfaction Scale in Present Study

Intent to Stay item	M	SD	Alpha if item deleted
My pay is fair as compared to my own expectations	3.00	1.16	.85
My pay is fair in relation to the rest of the university	3.22	1.03	.80
My pay is fair relative to other members of my department	3.05	1.01	.76
Scale Statistics	9.26	2.83	.86

Table 12

Number of Missing Cases per Variable

Variable	Missing Cases
LMX-7	9
Pay Satisfaction	19
Organizational Commitment	12
Turnover Intention	10
Years teaching at the college level	9
Years teaching at KU	16
Gender	20
How do you describe yourself	70*
Educational background	16
Employment status	12
Campus	24
Length of time with current supervisor	17
Age	26

Note. * Includes 57 responding "prefer not to answer".

Table 13

Pearson Correlations and Frequency Statistics between Variables of Interest

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. LMX-7 ^a	1.00	.46***	.39***	.30***	.03	-.11*	.10*	-.07
2. Org. Commitment ^a	.46***	1.00	.76***	.36***	.11*	.01	.17***	-.01
3. Intent to Stay ^a	.39***	.76***	1.00	.40***	.19***	.18***	.20***	-.08*
4. Pay Satisfaction ^a	.30***	.36***	.40***	1.00	.03	.04	.09*	-.02
5. Age Group ^b	.03	.11*	.19***	.03	1.00	.24***	.13**	-.19***
6. Yrs at KU ^{ac}	-.11	.01	.18***	.04	.24***	1.00	.53***	-.05
7. Length of time with current Supervisor ^{ac}	.10*	.17***	.20***	.09*	.13**	.53***	1.00	.01
8. Gender ^d	-.07	-.01	-.08*	-.02	-.19***	-.05	.01	1.00
Mean	3.72	3.96	3.67	3.08	3.34	4.02	2.22	
SD	.98	.81	.94	.94	1.09	3.43	1.97	
Skewness	-.75	-.82	-.67	-.18	-.21	1.40	1.60	
Kurtosis	-.18	.21	.09	.21	-.67	2.08	2.08	
Range	4	4	4	4	4	19	10	1

Note. LMX-7, Organizational Commitment, Intent to Stay and Pay Satisfaction have a range between one and five.

^a High scores denote more of the construct.

^b Age does not have a true mean score because of grouping into age brackets.

^c Years at KU and length of time with supervisor are skewed positive. This means many more faculty were new to KU.

^d Males scored as one; females as two.

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 14

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting LMX-7 (N = 382)

VARIABLE	Block 1: Individual			Block 2: Supervisor			Block 3: Organizational		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Constant	3.73	.27		3.64	.27		1.58	.31	
Years Teaching at KU	-.03	.02	-.10	-.07	.02	-.23***	-.06	.02	-.21***
Age Group	.05	.05	.05	.05	.05	.05	.00	.04	.00
Employment Status	-.11	.08	.07	.11	.08	.07	.08	.07	.05
Gender	-.10	.10	-.05	-.12	.10	-.06	-.11	.09	-.06
Length of Time with Current Supervisor				.11	.03	.24***	.07	.03	.14**
Organizational Commitment							.40	.08	.34***
Pay Satisfaction							.16	.05	.16**
Intent to Stay							.06	.08	.06
R ²		.02			.06			.27	
ΔR^2					.04			.21	
F(ΔR^2)		2.00			15.70***			35.95***	

F (overall model) = 17.32***

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Table 15

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Intent to Stay (N = 382)

VARIABLE	Block 1: Individual			Block 2: Supervisor			Block 3: Organizational		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Constant	3.15	.26		1.73	.29		-.25	.22	
Years Teaching at KU	.05	.01	.18***	.05	.02	.19***	.05	.01	.17***
Age Group	.12	.04	.14**	.10	.04	.12*	.05	.03	.05
Employment Status	.09	.08	.05	.05	.07	.03	.05	.05	.03
Gender	-.10	.10	-.05	-.06	.09	-.03	-.10	.06	-.05
Length of Time with Current Supervisor				.03	.03	.06	-.01	.02	-.02
LMX-7				.38	.05	.38***	.03	.04	.03
Organizational Commitment							.80	.04	.70***
Pay Satisfaction							.13	.03	.13***
R ²		.07			.22			.65	
ΔR^2					.15			.43	
F(ΔR^2)		6.74***			36.83***			226.24***	

F (overall model) = 85.66***

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Table 16

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Intent to Stay with interaction of LMX-7 with Gender (N = 382)

VARIABLE	Block 1: Individual			Block 2: Supervisor			Block 3: Organizational		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Constant	3.15	.26		1.81	.64		.14	.44	
Years Teaching at KU	.05	.01	.18***	.05	.02	.18**	.05	.01	.16***
Age Group	.12	.04	.14**	.10	.04	.12*	.05	.03	.06
Employment Status	.09	.08	.05	.05	.07	.03	.05	.05	.03
Gender	-.10	.10	-.05	-.11	.36	-.06	-.34	.24	-.18
Length of Time with Current Supervisor				.03	.03	.06	-.01	.02	-.01
LMX-7				.35	.16	.36*	-.08	.12	-.08
Interaction (LMX-7 & Gender)				.01	.09	.03	.06	.06	.16
Organizational Commitment							.81	.04	.70***
Pay Satisfaction							.13	.03	.13***
R ²		.07			.22			.65	
ΔR^2					.15			.43	
F(ΔR^2)		6.74***			24.50***			226.74***	

F (overall model) = 76.26 ***

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Table 17

Significant Pairwise Comparisons Between Campuses on Intent to Stay

Campus	Campus	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	LL	95% CI ^a UL
MIA	PP	1.19*	.31	.02	.10	2.28
	WPB	.71*	.20	.03	.02	1.40
	TAL	.80*	.22	.03	.03	1.57
	TAM	1.03*	.27	.02	.08	2.00
	SAR	.82*	.22	.02	.06	1.59
	ORL	.74*	.21	.05	.06	1.47

Notes. CI = Confidence interval; LL = Lower limit, UL = Upper limit

Higher numbers denote more Intent to Stay.

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

^a adjustment for multiple comparisons:

Bonferroni.

Table 18

Response Rate, LMX-7, Intent to Stay, and Resignation Rate by Campus

Campus	Response Rate(%)	LMX-7		Intent to Stay		Resignation (%)*
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
MIA	75.44	3.98	.89	4.24	.14	1.75
PSL/GOLF	26.97	3.96	.99	4.01	.18	1.12
FTM	53.33	4.40	.45	3.97	.22	6.67
DAY	63.41	3.30	1.27	3.81	.18	9.76
FTL	33.04	3.89	.84	3.77	.10	5.65
LKL	39.39	3.61	.98	3.77	.18	0.00
MEL	36.00	3.86	1.16	3.58	.17	5.33
WPB	52.78	3.55	.86	3.53	.14	5.56
ORL	30.39	3.72	.98	3.51	.16	5.88
TAL	37.14	3.59	.73	3.44	.18	8.57
JAX	30.00	3.51	1.08	3.43	.23	12.00
SAR	30.00	3.92	.78	3.42	.17	13.33
TAM	27.45	3.46	.59	3.21	.24	13.73
PP	16.13	3.03	1.26	3.06	.28	16.13

Note. Range for both LMX-7 and Intent to Stay is between one and five.

Higher numbers denote more of the construct.

*Actual resignations during the six month period after the survey closed.

Appendix A

IRB Approval Letter

**UNIVERSITY
OF MIAMI**



University of Miami
Human Subjects Research Office (M809)
PO Box 016980, Miami, Florida 33101
1500 NW 12 Avenue, Suite 1002, Miami, Florida 33136

Ph: 305-243-3195
Fax: 305-243-3328
www.hsro.miami.edu

EXEMPT – CONFIRMATION

March 14, 2012

Margaret Crosbie-Burnett, Ph.D.
University of Miami
Department of Education and Psychological Studies
Coral Gables Campus, Locator Code: 2040
Merrick Building, Room 319 A
Coral Gables, FL 33124

HSRO STUDY NUMBER: 20120190

STUDY TITLE: FACULTY INTENT TO STAY AND THE PERCEIVED
RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERVISOR AT A CAREER-FOCUSED
UNIVERSITY

IRB ACTION DATE: 3/14/2012

FWA #: FWA00002247

On 3/14/2012, an IRB Chair determined that the above referenced protocol
qualifies for exemption from IRB review.

APPROVAL INCLUDES:

New Research Protocol
Research Materials (English Versions Only)
Faculty Recruitment Letter
Assessment Tools

NOTE: Translations of IRB approved study documents, including informed consent documents, into languages other than English must be submitted to HSRO for approval prior to use.

Please remember that the Human Subjects Research Office (HSRO) must be notified of any proposed changes in research activities. Changes must receive IRB review and approval prior to implementation. Upon completion of the study, submit a closure report via eProst.

Sincerely,

[This is a representation of an electronic record that was signed electronically and this page is the manifestation of the electronic signature]

Amanda Coltes-Rojas, MPH, CIP
Director
Regulatory Affairs & Educational Initiatives

/jc

Appendix B

Email to potential pool of participants

University of Miami
Consent to participate in a research study
Faculty Intent to Stay and the Perceived Relationship with Supervisor
at a Career-focused University

Dear Keiser University faculty member:

Many of you may know of me through my position and 13 years at Keiser University. However, I am contacting you in my role as a doctoral student at the University of Miami, where I am earning my Ed.D. in Higher Education Leadership. Currently I am conducting my dissertation research and need your assistance. I am asking you to participate in my research study.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the faculty-administrator relationship and faculty members' intentions to stay at Keiser University. If successful, this study will expand the "body of knowledge" relating to the Leader-Member Exchange Theory by testing it for the first time in a career-focused university. My second goal is to use the information to improve administrators' performance at Keiser University.

The survey is internet based (You may click on the link listed below.) and may be completed from any computer with internet access. Your individual responses will be kept confidential and no identifying information will be collected. Also, you may skip any question that you feel may identify you. No attempt will be made to match research participants with their supervisors. The

information will be used to inform and improve training for administrators in general. No employee's job is in jeopardy and this has nothing to do with my work role at Keiser University.

There are 30 Likert-scaled questions and it should not take more than 16 minutes to complete. The survey will remain open until March 21, 2012. You are in no way required to participate in this research. You may decline by simply not participating, and you can stop your participation at any time, if you wish to do so, without any negative consequences to you. Also, you may skip any question. Completion of this survey signifies your voluntary agreement to participate and for me to use your responses for purposes of this study.

I know that everyone is extremely busy, but I hope that you will spare 16 minutes of your time to help me complete my research and achieve my educational goals. To show my appreciation for your time, I will be providing a catered lunch to the two campuses with the highest response rate as a percentage of their total faculty (the survey does include a campus location question). The luncheon will be scheduled through your Dean's office with enough notice to provide opportunity for your attendance.

If you have any questions with regard to this letter, please feel free to contact me at 305-596-2226 or via email at garym@keiseruniversity.edu or the University of Miami's Human Subjects Research Office (HSRO) at 305-243-3195. You do not need to provide your name if you so choose.

Thank you in advance,

Gary A. Markowitz, MS.Ed.

Miami Campus President

Keiser University

305-596-2226

garym@keiseruniversity.edu

By clicking on the link to the survey you are consenting to participate in the research study being conducted by Gary A. Markowitz, as part of his doctoral research project at the University of Miami. You understand that you are free to withdraw your participation at any point in the survey, and there is no penalty for deciding not to participate or withdrawing participation. You authorize the use of your responses for the purpose of this study by clicking on the link.

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/markowitzUMdissertation>

Appendix C

From: Gary Markowitz

Sent: Mon 3/19/2012 8:52 AM

To: @Faculty College of Golf; @Faculty Daytona; @Faculty Fort Lauderdale; @Faculty Fort Myers; @Faculty Jacksonville; @Faculty Lake Land; @Faculty Melbourne; @Faculty Orlando; @Faculty Pembroke Pines; @Faculty Port St. Lucie; @Faculty Sarasota; @Faculty Tallahassee; @Faculty Tampa; @Faculty West Palm Beach; @Graduate Instructors

Subject: Reminder

Hello Everyone,

Three days remain to participate in my doctoral survey and assist me in earning my degree. The longest time to complete the survey registered under 7 minutes. For those who provided a campus location the top 4 campuses responding are:

Miami

Ft. Myers

Daytona

Melbourne

Thank you for participating and assisting me in earning my degree!

Gary

Appendix D

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX-7) Instrument

Please respond to each statement with regard to the relationship between you and your immediate supervisor (Dean, Chair, or Program Director).

1. How well does your immediate supervisor understand your job problems and needs?

Not a Bit **A little** **A Fair Amount** **Quite a Bit** **A Great Deal**
()1 ()2 ()3 ()4 ()5

2. Do you know where you stand with your immediate supervisor...do you usually know how satisfied your immediate supervisor is with what you do?

Rarely **Occasionally** **Sometimes** **Fairly Often** **Very Often**
()1 ()2 ()3 ()4 ()5

3. How well does your immediate supervisor recognize your potential?

Not at All **A Little** **Moderately** **Mostly** **Fully**
()1 ()2 ()3 ()4 ()5

4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances your immediate supervisor would be inclined to use his/her available power to help you solve problems at work?

None **Small** **Moderate** **High** **Very High**
()1 ()2 ()3 ()4 ()5

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your immediate supervisor has, what are the chances your immediate supervisor would "bail you out" at his/her expense if you really needed it?

None **Small** **Moderate** **High** **Very High**
()1 ()2 ()3 ()4 ()5

6. I have enough confidence in my immediate supervisor's decisions that I would defend and justify his/her decisions even if he or she were not present to do so.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your immediate supervisor?

Extremely Ineffective	Worse Than Average	Average	Better Than Average	Extremely Effective
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

Appendix E

Price and Mueller's (1986) Measure of Intent to Stay

1. I plan to leave this university as soon as possible. (R)

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

2. Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this university before I retire.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

3. I would be reluctant to leave this university.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

4. I plan to stay at this university as long as possible.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

Appendix F

Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1979) Measure of Organizational Commitment as used by Daly and Dee (2006).

1. I speak highly of this university to my friends.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

2. I am not dedicated to this university. (R)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

3. I am proud to tell others I am part of this university.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

4. This university inspires the very best job performance in me.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

5. This university is the best of all possible places to work.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

6. I don't care about the fate of this university. (R)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

7. This university's values are not the same as mine. (R)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

Appendix G

Heneman & Schwab's (1985) Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire as adopted by

Neumann and Finaly-Neumann (1990).

1. My pay is fair as compared to my own expectations.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

2. My pay is fair relative to other members of my department.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

3. My pay is fair in relation to the rest of the university.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
()1	()2	()3	()4	()5

Appendix H

Demographic Questionnaire

1. What is your gender?
 - male
 - female

2. How do you describe yourself?
 - American Indian or Alaska Native
 - Asian
 - White Non-Hispanic
 - Hispanic or Latino (may be any race)
 - Black/African American
 - Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
 - More than one race
 - Other
 - prefer not to answer

3. What is your educational background (highest earned degree)?
 - AA/AS
 - Bachelor's
 - Master's
 - Professional (JD, MD)
 - Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., DBA)

4. What is your employment status with KU?
- Full-time
 - Permanent Part-time
 - Adjunct (≤ 3 classes a calendar year)
5. How many years have you been teaching at the college level? [] years
6. At which campus do you work? (if at more than one use your home-base campus).
- MIA PP FTL WPB PSL/GOLF MEL DAY
 - JAX TAL TAM SAR LKL FTM ORL
7. How many years have you been teaching at KU? [] years
8. How long have you worked for your current supervisor? [] years
9. What is your age group?
- 20-29
 - 30-39
 - 40-49
 - 50-59
 - 60 and over