Work-Life Balance and the Perceived Value of Rewards When Faculty Consider Promotions in Administration

Judi Waldrip

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WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND THE PERCEIVED VALUE OF REWARDS WHEN
FACULTY CONSIDER PROMOTIONS IN ADMINISTRATION

By

Judi Slaughter Waldrip

A Dissertation
Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education
Major: Higher and Adult Education

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family. To my late parents, Lynette and Alvin Slaughter, thank you for your unconditional love and support throughout my life. You encouraged me to work hard to achieve all my goals. To my husband, Randy Waldrip, thank you for your love, confidence in me, and patience throughout each course and the dissertation process. I appreciate you taking on extra household responsibilities so that I could complete HIAD readings, postings, and projects. To my sons, Justin and Jeremy Waldrip, I appreciate your encouragement when I decided to continue my education. Thank you so much for your helpful tips when I was learning to use new technology.
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between work-life balance and faculty perceptions of promotions in academia using Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation as the theoretical framework. The study was conducted at two universities in the Southeast, and all faculty were invited to participate in an online survey. Multiple regression analysis was used to test three hypotheses relating to expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. These three factors were used for the dependent variables. The same independent variables were used for each regression model, and they included age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children under the age of 18 living in the household, and academic rank. The regression model for expectancy was not statistically significant. The model for instrumentality was statistically significant, and the data suggested that as individuals get older, their perception for advancement opportunities decline. Instructors were less likely to perceive opportunities for advancement than professors. The regression model for valence was also statistically significant, and the results suggested that females valued rewards more than non-female participants. Although, the regression models for instrumentality and valence were statistically significant, the independent variables explained a small percentage of the variability in the dependent variable. These results suggest that other elements account for faculty expectations for work improvement.
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Chapter 1

Introduction

Work-life balance can be challenging for faculty in higher education. As work demands and expectations increase, academic responsibilities overflow into one's time dedicated to family, home, and personal activities. This transition reduces the faculty's balance between work and personal life (Diego-Medrano & Salazar, 2021). Over the last two decades, faculty positions have become more stressful, and work-life balance has become a priority (Fontinha et al., 2019). Many faculty have strong leadership qualities; however, a limited number choose to advance to administrative positions. One reason for this decision is the lack of work-life balance (Vancour, 2023). This study examines work-life balance and faculty perceptions of promotions using Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation as its theoretical framework. This chapter details the background of the study, the theoretical framework, the statement of the problem, the study's purpose, the significance of the study, and the research question.

Background of Study

Since the Great Recession in 2008, colleges and universities have struggled with financial issues such as dwindling endowments, reduced state revenues, and declining federal appropriations, which forced universities and colleges to increase student tuition rates (Luna, 2012; Li et al., 2019). There were also concerns about fewer faculty in the pipeline of potential leaders resulting in a potential leadership gap and difficulty filling higher education administrative positions (Luna, 2012).

DeZure et al. (2014) confirmed that higher education institutions expected a shortage of academic administrators as baby boomers planned for retirement. Research suggested that higher education leaders may leave their administrative posts at a very rapid pace. For example,
according to Pfaff (2019) university and college presidents resign before the end of their fifth year. Approximately 17% of provosts remain in their roles for less than one year, and about 50% only stay two to five years. Deans work in their positions for an average of four years while the turnover rate for education deans is exceptionally high compared to other higher education leaders (Pfaff, 2019; Wepner & Henk, 2022).

As administrators resign or consider retirement and fewer qualified faculty enter the pipeline, developing a succession plan is critical for universities and colleges. Higher education leaders can recruit experienced candidates from other organizations, recruit candidates who have the potential to be successful, develop and train internal candidates, or rotate the existing faculty on an interim basis (Luna, 2014). As the need for academic leadership continues to increase, it is essential to provide preparation and instruction for faculty.

However, Baker et al. (2019) suggest that few universities and colleges have plans to create and support these career programs. Their research confirmed that gaps existed between the faculty's knowledge of administrative leadership duties and available instruction and development. Furthermore, the researchers argued that faculty must be encouraged to develop new skills and prepare for leadership roles to maintain appropriate levels in the academic leadership pipeline.

**Work-Life Balance**

Work-life balance can be challenging, and teaching individuals how to establish or maintain this balance is also problematic. Iyer (2022) asserts separating work and personal life differs for each person, and individuals often struggle to attain it. Researchers explain that the concept of work-life balance began in the late 1930s with the adoption of the Fair Labor Standards Act (Sullivan, 2014). This Act established a minimum wage, banned child labor, and
required employers to pay overtime wage rates when employees' actual work hours exceeded the
standard work week (Federal Labor Standards Act, 1938). Research suggested that work-life
balance was a concern because an imbalance can result in poor employee health and work
performance and unanticipated consequences for employers (Kalliath & Brough, 2008).

Work-life balance is different for all individuals. Therefore, it is difficult to define
(Kallaith & Brough, 2008). In addition, work-life balance can change as individual priorities and
values are modified (Punia & Kamboj, 2013). In this study, work-life balance is defined as
expectancy, instrumentality, and valence based on Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory.

Theoretical Framework

Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation provides a theoretical framework for
understanding how faculty perceive their work-life balance and their decisions to achieve that
balance. Expectancy Theory has been used as a model for research since 1964 (Smith & Hitt,
2005). This theory is an appropriate framework to discuss faculty motivation for work-life
balance as they consider advancement to administrative positions in higher education. Vroom
(1964) explained in his publication, Motivation and Work, that an individual's choices and
behaviors determine one's level of motivation. As people were motivated by their choices, they
were also influenced by their anticipated outcomes (Smith & Hitt, 2005).

Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation focuses on the relationship between
motivation and individual choices. Specifically, this theory examines individual perceptions of
the relationship between the effort involved in performing job duties, actual performances, and
anticipated rewards received in the workplace (Agah et al., 2020). The critical factors in
Expectancy Theory are expectancy, instrumentality, and valence.
Expectancy: The Expectation of Improved Performance

Expectancy is an individual's belief that a specific level of effort will result in better performance (Vroom, 1964). Faculty decide if it is beneficial to increase their effort and participate in various activities to enhance their skills. Buller (2015) explains that faculty should volunteer for leadership roles, participate in accreditation and other service committees, learn more about their university, keep abreast of ongoing academic issues, develop budgetary skills, and attend workshops to enhance skills.

Instrumentality: The Perception of Receiving a Reward

Instrumentality is one's belief that performance will lead to an anticipated reward (Vroom, 1964). Faculty must determine if they believe a reward will be received if their performance increases. In other words, if their performance increases, do they believe there will be an opportunity for advancement in an administrative position at a university? For example, Beardsley (2017) explains that increasing trends show that nontraditional presidents are hired as university presidents. Tenured faculty are not always the preferred candidate for these positions. Nontraditional presidents comprise approximately one-third of the population, and these trends could continue. As nontraditional candidates are successful in the higher education environment, more universities will consider them for hire (Beardsley, 2017).

On the other hand, Sayler et al. (2019) found that universities hire approximately 78% of the associate deans from an internal candidate pool. These participants considered advancement because they wanted to work as deans at their current institution, while others considered dean positions at other universities. Finally, participants pondered leaving the administration and returning to their professorship role while a small number remained in their current capacity.
**Valence: The Value of the Reward**

Valence is an individual's perception of the value of the reward or outcome (Vroom, 1964). This study examines if faculty believe that rewards are valuable. In this study, rewards are based on Chen et al. (2006) outcomes. The rewards range from receiving a salary increase, tenure status, and peer recognition to finding a better faculty position or advancing to an administrative position at a university. The primary reward considered in this study is obtaining a promotion to an administrative position.

**Statement of the Problem**

Work-life balance is a concern for faculty at colleges and universities. To meet the expected demands, Fontinha et al. (2019) found faculty continue to work after regular hours. Studies showed that faculty members worked approximately 54 hours per week which is an additional 14 hours more than the standard 40 hours (Griffith & Altinay, 2020). Additionally, faculty spend extra effort conducting research and scholarship, developing course content, preparing for lectures, grading assignments, and participating in service projects (Sullivan, 2014).

Fontinha et al. (2019) explained that in the past, faculty positions were considered flexible, less stressful than other positions, and more secure after achieving tenure. However, faculty positions became more demanding because of increased research requirements, higher expected service levels, and additional administrative roles. In March 2020, Covid-19 immediately impacted faculty in higher education. According to Tugend (2020), "Many months into the pandemic, faculty members at all levels, from tenured professors to adjuncts, say their workloads are higher, their morale is lower, and their work-life balance is almost nonexistent" (p. 4). This statement is crucial because it identifies the current climate for faculty.
University leaders ask faculty to accept leadership roles, but they seldom offer professional development opportunities that will provide training and support for the new responsibilities. These training options are usually available to and support the higher level positions in the hierarchy, thus leaving the faculty without the necessary skills and experience (Baker et al., 2019).

DeZure et al. (2014) claim that mid-career faculty are not interested in these promotional opportunities because less time would be available for family, and their work-life balance would diminish. Punia and Kamboj (2013) suggest that work-life balance is essential because it improves faculty effectiveness and job satisfaction in student education. The concern of work-life balance for faculty, including those employees who teach part-time without benefits and do not have tenure, is an essential topic in higher education (Willmott, 2020).

**Purpose of the Study**

Approximately two years after the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic, colleges and universities are experiencing many vacant administrative positions that are difficult to fill. Fewer applicants are applying for jobs, the candidate's knowledge and skills are not as strong as in the past, and the salary demands are increasing (Zahneis, 2022).

Boamah et al. (2022) explain that individuals working in higher education are experiencing career burnout because of heavier workloads, greater time demands, higher work expectations, and weak leadership. The Covid-19 pandemic intensified the stress factors for faculty and altered the relationship between one's work and non-work life. As the work demands increase, time decreases for personal activities, resulting in a diminished work-life balance for faculty.
Will faculty be motivated to consider administrative advancement as work-life balance becomes essential to faculty and minimal training and professional development opportunities exist to enhance skills (Buller, 2012; Buller, 2015; Kruse, 2020)? The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between work-life balance and the perceived value of rewards when faculty consider advancing to administrative positions.

**Significance of the Study**

This study may provide important information to the top administration leadership and may offer several potential benefits to higher education institutions. First, colleges and universities are losing administrators because of retirement or advancement to other leadership positions. Also, the candidate pools have fewer qualified applicants due to the lack of interest or limited skill sets. Therefore, higher education institutions must ensure the pipeline has an adequate stream of potential candidates so they can develop succession plans (Luna, 2012). This study examines if faculty perceive if they increase their effort and enhance their skill sets, they may believe that opportunities for advancement will be available. Therefore, the pipeline may have suitable candidates to fill future administrative vacancies.

Second, this research explains if faculty believe a reward would be available if their performance increases. Expectancy Theory does not provide a specific list of rewards because they vary for each individual; however, higher education institutions could create a work environment that motivates faculty to perform better. In these situations, the leadership must understand the source of faculty motivation and the value of the rewards (Parijat & Bagga, 2014).

Third, faculty who advance to administrator positions often experience high demands and stress associated with their new roles (Lindholm and Szélényi, 2008). This stress is often
associated with heavier workloads and insufficient resources in the department (Fontinha, 2019). In addition, faculty are concerned with work-life balance, especially if they have family obligations (Sullivan, 2014). This study examines if there is a relationship between increased faculty performance and the perceived value of specific rewards.

**Research Question**

Due to increased stress levels in professorship positions, minimal professional development, and greater skill levels required for advancement, work-life balance has become a high priority for faculty (Buller, 2012; Kruse, 2020). Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory suggests that as faculty consider advancement to administrative positions, they evaluate the following questions: (1) If I increase my effort, do I believe my performance will increase? (2) If my performance increases, do I anticipate receiving a reward? and (3) If I receive a reward, do I believe it is valuable? Participants in this study will be asked to complete a survey instrument to examine the following research question: Is there a relationship between work-life balance and the perceived value of rewards when faculty consider advancing to administrator positions?

**Summary**

In summary, as economic issues placed financial hardships on higher education institutions and jobs became more stressful with greater demands, work-life balance became a priority for faculty (Lindholm & Szelényi 2008; Luna, 2012; Sullivan, 2014). Employees began resigning or retiring from their administrative positions, and with a weak pipeline, the administrative positions became difficult to fill (Luna, 2012).

This study uses Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory of motivation to determine if a relationship exists between faculty work-life balance and their consideration of advancing to administrator positions. Faculty from two large higher education institutions will be asked about
their beliefs and expectations of advancement opportunities and their perceived value of the rewards. The following chapter provides a literature review detailing Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory of motivation and faculty perceptions of work demands and work-life balance. In addition, Chapter 3 explains the methodology for the research including the population and sample, the survey instrument, variables, and data analysis for this dissertation.
Chapter 2

Literature Review

This literature review provides an overview of Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory, assumptions, strengths, weaknesses, and examples of how this theory is applied to private sector businesses, governmental agencies, and higher education institutions. Furthermore, it offers information regarding faculty consideration of advancement to administrative positions, increased job demands and stress, the steep learning curve for new administrators, and the need for work-life balance. Finally, the Expectancy Theory factors are explained in detail.

Motivation and Expectancy Theories

Researchers use motivation and expectancy theories when studying different areas of higher education including job satisfaction, research, and work-life balance (Chen et al, 2006; Punia & Kamboj, 2013; DeVito et al., 2016; Agah et al., 2020). These studies concentrated on faculty motivation and perceptions of obtaining specific outcomes. Similarly, this study focuses on the relationship between faculty motivation and their desire to advance based on their perceptions of the value of rewards.

Motivation Theories

Two needs based motivation theories are Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and Alderfer’s Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (ERG) theory (Govindaraju, 2018). Maslow’s hierarchy of needs involves different levels of necessities, ranging from the basic essentials such as food, water, and shelter to higher needs relating to social interactions and personal growth. Order matters in this theory where individuals obtain the basic needs first before continuing up the hierarchy (DeVito et al., 2016).
Alderfer’s ERG theory builds on Maslow’s theory and is divided into three categories. The first category is existence, which are the basic needs for survival. The second category is relatedness, which involves personal and social relationships. And the third category is growth needs, which involve self-esteem and self-actualization. According to this theory, order does not matter, and the needs can be obtained simultaneously (Govindaraju, 2018). Agah et al. (2020) studied faculty motivation and considered these needs-based theories as the framework for their research of tenured and non-tenured professors. They studied the need for growth which was determined by individuals’ skills, abilities, and proficiencies as it related to their potential.

**Expectancy Theories**

Expectancy theories involve employee motivation and the perception of anticipated outcomes (Govindaraju, 2018). This section covers the following theories which could be considered for this research: The Georgopolous, Mahoney, and Jones Hypothesis (1957), Vroom’s (1964) expectancy theory, and Porter and Lawler’s (1968) expectancy theory (Miner, 2005).

**The Georgopolous, Mahoney, and Jones Hypothesis (1957).** Georgopolous, Mahoney, and Jones (1957) focused on the relationship between productivity levels and motivation for individuals. The researchers asserted that if individuals believe high productivity levels lead to obtaining specific goals, then individuals would most likely increase their production. Conversely, if individuals believed that low productivity would result in achieving personal goals, then their output would most likely be low. Therefore, as individuals experience barriers in achieving their goals, the relationship between productivity and motivation would be minimal (Miner, 2005).
**Vroom’s Expectancy Theory (1964).** Researchers use Vroom’s Expectancy Theory when studying faculty in higher education (Chen et al., 2006; Estes & Polnick, 2012; Taylor, 2019; Agah et al., 2020). Vroom (1964) asserted motivation is influenced by individual choices. Vroom’s expectancy theory connects motivation with an individual’s work and behavior. This theory indicates that individuals prefer certain rewards over others, and the anticipated valence could be positive or negative (Miner, 2005). In addition, Vroom’s Expectancy Theory does not stipulate what inspires individuals, but it does suggest that there are differences in employee motivation (Lunenburg, 2011).

**Porter and Lawler’s Expectancy Theory (1968).** Porter and Lawler (1968) enhanced Vroom’s Expectancy Theory to include an individual’s skill level and abilities as it related to job satisfaction (Miner, 2005). Porter and Lawler’s theory refines the relationship between one’s performance and outcomes indicating the quality of the rewards would link one’s effort and performance. This theory also includes a variable for feedback where individuals learn from previous performance. If high performance levels do not result in high valued rewards, then employees may not increase their effort in the future (Steers et al., 2004).

This study focuses on faculty perceptions. Therefore, Vroom’s (1964) expectancy theory of motivation is used as the framework. The details are explained in the following section.

**Overview of Vroom’s Expectancy Theory**

Agah et al. (2020) assert Expectancy Theory is a cognitive process associated with employee beliefs and the workplace. It determines the relationship between employees' effort in performing their duties, actual performance, and rewards. If the risk is high that the individual would fail, the motivation would be very low to complete the task. If the risk is too low, the individual might not feel that the task is important enough to complete. Suciu et al. (2013)
suggest that Expectancy Theory attempts to explain motivation, the components that influence it, and the relationship between the components. This motivational force depends on an individual's attitude and performance.

Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory proposes that individuals encounter three factors in determining a course of action: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. Expectancy asks if individuals work harder, will they achieve their goal? Instrumentality asks will achieving the goal result in receiving a reward? And third, valence asks is the reward worth the effort that they must exert? Figure 1 graphically displays Expectancy Theory (Lunenburg, 2011).

**Figure 1**

*Expectancy Theory Diagram*

Assumptions of Vroom’s Expectancy Theory

Vroom’s Expectancy Theory suggests that relationships exist between the effort people apply at work, the performance they realize from the effort, and the rewards they obtain from effort and performance (Lunenburg, 2011). Expectancy Theory assumes that individuals do not always make the best decisions. However, they feel that the choices are the best at that moment (Vroom, 1964).

Suciu et al. (2013) state that Expectancy Theory assumes that a person's behavior is dependent on one's belief that a worthwhile goal is achievable. For example, a self-confident
person would have high expectancy levels, but one who was less self-assured would have lower levels of expectancy. Finally, Lunenburg (2011) explains four assumptions of Expectancy Theory. First, individuals become part of organizations based on their expectations regarding their personal needs, motivations, and previous experiences. Second, individuals focus on conscious choices which originate from their expectations. Third, individuals expect different benefits from organizations such as advancement opportunities, job security, or higher wages. Fourth, individuals want to maximize their outcomes, so they will prefer to make alternative choices at times.

**Strengths and Weaknesses of Expectancy Theory**

Research showed that the theory was intuitive and explained the link between effort, performance, and rewards. Burns et al. (2015) supported Expectancy Theory because it was not complicated and was easy to understand while Parijat and Bagga (2014) evaluated Vroom's Expectancy Theory and found considerable evidence to validate it. For example, organizational leadership could create a work environment and culture that would boost employee motivation after understanding the importance of the outcomes. This theory did not have a specific list of awards, but it allowed employers to determine them based on organizational culture and employee wants and needs. Employees often received rewards due to seniority, job complexity, or skill levels; however, using employee performance would be a more robust validation of Expectancy Theory (Parijat & Bagga, 2014).

In contrast, researchers felt that Expectancy Theory had weaknesses. Parijat and Bagga (2014) explained that individual behavior and attitudes about motivation were subjective and not objective. Employees might not be willing or have the time to dedicate the resources to increase their performance. In addition, the managers or supervisors might not be able to understand or
know what motivated an employee. In some cases, employers provided the same rewards to all employees, but individuals may have different preferences for rewards.

Suciu et al. (2013) asserted that Expectancy Theory was inadequate because it was challenging to define measurable variables that could validate the research. It was also difficult to measure. Furthermore, the primary factors, including performance, effort, and valence, were not defined consistently within each study. Therefore, duplicating the model was not consistent or reliable between the studies (Reinharth & Wahba, 1975; Suciu et al., 2013).

Lloyd and Mertens (2018) agreed that Expectancy Theory was weak because the model was too simple. They argued that the model needed more factors for employee motivation, so they included social context in the equation suggesting that it impacted employee performance. Examples of the social context variables were the employee's perception, the total number of internal relationships, and the impact from the external environment. Their study hypothesized that as employees' social factors increased, their motivation would also increase. Conversely, as employees' social factors decreased, their motivation would decrease. Finally, if the social aspects for employees were zero, the motivation would also be zero.

Lloyd and Mertens (2018) also found that employees interacted with people working in the organization and others outside of their workplace, impacting their beliefs and influencing their motivation and performance. If managers excluded social context from their research, the results could have differed. But despite some researchers suggesting that Expectancy Theory contained issues, the following section provides examples of Expectancy Theory’s usefulness as applied in the private sector, governmental, and higher education.
Expectancy Theory: Private Sector and Government

Researchers have used Expectancy Theory as a framework focusing on various subjects, including entrepreneurial motivation, employee satisfaction, and employee performance evaluations (Suciu et al., 2013; Barba-Sánchez & Atienza-Sahuquillo, 2017; Park & Kim, 2017). Barba-Sánchez and Atienza-Sahuquillo (2017) used Expectancy Theory to explore self-employed individuals and their motivation to maintain their business ownership. The researchers used quantitative analysis to measure expectancy as the probability of the individuals' belief that they could be successful, instrumentality as the confidence that they would receive a reward such as additional income or a feeling of accomplishment, and valence as the anticipation of being satisfied with the outcome. In addition, they gathered data from survey instruments, including the individuals' effort for creating a solid business, their knowledge and experience required to operate a business, and their decision to continue to be self-employed.

Park and Kim (2017) surveyed U.S. federal employees to test if anticipated organizational performance would result in higher employee motivation and increased job satisfaction using Expectancy Theory as their framework. In addition, they focused on supervisory positions and employee salary levels and included control variables such as job classification, gender, age, race, and years of service. Their results also showed that employee expectations for job satisfaction increased when organizational performance was high. If employees anticipated positive rewards, they increased their effort and work performance.

In a study conducted by Suciu et al. (2013), the participants were public sector employees in Romania. These researchers used Expectancy Theory when studying performance evaluations for civil service employees. This international study focused more on the expectancy factor than instrumentality and valence. They looked at the probability of an individual's belief that
increased effort would increase performance. Results showed that most employees felt that a positive evaluation motivated them to perform better, which may result in increased salaries or promotions.

Although these topics were very different, it confirmed that Expectancy Theory could cover a wide range of ideas and diverse topics. This theory has been helpful in predicting work motivation, the effort employees apply at work, and their work performance (Reinharth & Wahba, 1975).

**Expectancy Theory: Higher Education**

Researchers have used Expectancy Theory to study the motivation of faculty at higher education institutions (Chen et al., 2006; Estes & Polnick, 2012; Taylor, 2019; Agah et al., 2020). This section describes the research, applies the factors of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence, and clarifies the use of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

**Faculty Motivating Factors**

Estes and Polnick’s (2012) study involved 24 faculty who worked in the College of Education at a university in Southeast Texas. Their research explained that higher education institutions used Expectancy Theory to determine what factors motivated faculty, how faculty made decisions, and how their behavior influenced choices. Another quantitative analysis involving faculty was conducted by Agah et al. (2020). It included over 10,000 participants who worked at more than 1,000 different universities. They used Expectancy Theory to study motivation related to the productivity of tenured and non-tenured faculty in higher education. Non-tenured faculty expected to transition to tenured positions by completing academic activities and increasing productivity. These activities included teaching, conducting research, writing
articles and grant proposals, presenting papers at conferences, and participating in community activities.

In a similar study conducted by Chen et al. (2006), 320 faculty participated from 10 different Carnegie Research Classification II universities. They used Expectancy Theory to study faculty motivation to conduct research in the business department and to test the value of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Their results showed that nontenured faculty were motivated by extrinsic rewards such as receiving tenure, a promotion, or being appointed to a chaired position. On the other hand, intrinsic rewards including peer recognition, personal satisfaction, and making contributions in their field of study motivated tenured professors.

Two studies involving faculty research clearly applied Expectancy Theory to their research model. Taylor (2019) used qualitative analysis to study non-tenure-track faculty and their motivation to complete online and face-to-face professional development sessions at universities and colleges. His results showed that the faculty believed both online and face-to-face training enhanced their teaching and improved student learning. Taylor explained that motivation factors in his research were (1) expectancy, which was the faculty teaching practice; (2) instrumentality, which was the faculty perception that improved performance would result in specific rewards; and (3) valence, which was how the faculty valued the reward as it related to their effort in obtaining the professional development.

In the second study, Estes and Polnick (2012) used Expectancy Theory to predict the influence of productivity of tenured faculty in terms of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. Since the faculty achieved tenure status based on successful publications, they were unlikely to doubt their publishing abilities (expectancy). It was equally improbable that the faculty devalued research (instrumentality). However, since the number of publications decreased, faculty could
consider their benefit less valuable (valence). Although this study had a limited number of participants, the outcomes were similar to previous research. The results indicated that faculty had fewer publications when comparing their current performance to the levels before attaining tenure.

One of the factors of Expectancy Theory is valence, which is the reward for increased performance where individuals determine their value. The rewards could be intrinsic or extrinsic, which was the focus of several studies on faculty. Agah et al. (2020) used quantitative analysis to explain that intrinsic factors such as faculty recognition, job satisfaction, higher self-esteem, and self-confidence and extrinsic factors such as higher wages, grant allocations, advancement opportunities, and tenure status guided faculty productivity. Their results suggested that extrinsic factors were correlated with faculty performance, but intrinsic factors were linked to faculty productivity.

In a quantitative study conducted by Chen et al. (2006), the results indicated that non-tenured faculty were motivated by extrinsic rewards such as pay raises, promotions, and obtaining an administrative assignment. However, tenured faculty were motivated by intrinsic rewards such as peer recognition, obtaining student respect, or contributing to their personal growth or department. Taylor’s (2019) qualitative study focused on intrinsic motivation that benefited faculty by increasing their knowledge, building community, assisting students with learning, improving student outcomes, and cultivating student perception of faculty. In addition, extrinsic rewards including pay increases, and additional funding for teaching or administrative activities were motivating factors for non-tenure track faculty.
As faculty advance to administrator positions, their roles change. They begin to handle responsibilities that are usually outside their fields of study and credentials as faculty (Buller, 2012; Kruse, 2020). For example, the department chair is critical because of its dual role as an academic leader and mid-level manager. Sometimes, this position is rotated among faculty, so the next individual on the rotation list is assigned the responsibility (Wald & Golding, 2020).

As faculty enter the pipeline for advancement, the department chair is often their first leadership position. Currently, there are leaks in the pipeline, and there is a need to increase the number of academic leaders (Baker et al., 2019). Universities and colleges must be proactive, know who is in the pipeline for advancement, and provide appropriate training because one does not immediately become an effective leader (Buller, 2012). Faculty in the initial stages of their careers are less likely to be selected for department chairs. Some leaders argue that faculty should become part of the academic leadership after they become full professors with tenure; however, this process limits the applicant pool. This process would make it challenging to fill administrative positions (Baker et al., 2019). Vroom’s (1964) second factor, instrumentality, can be applied easily to these situations. Do faculty believe if they increase their performance, they will receive a reward? If faculty are interested in becoming department chairs, they may believe there is a positive outcome. If the faculty are at advanced levels, the number of top-level positions is limited, so they may feel that they will not receive a reward.

Norman (2019) studied higher education institutions that reported high satisfaction rates among faculty leadership. These leaders stated that transparency was critical if the individuals were to be successful in their administrative roles. At the large institutions, administrative training opportunities were available to the departmental leaders and the faculty. This process
allowed faculty to obtain training before applying and accepting promotional opportunities in administration. The smaller institutions in this study could not use the same approach because of size limitations and organizational structure. Universities and colleges must develop long-term plans that provide appropriate investment in training faculty.

Buller (2012) recommends that faculty establish a career plan to determine the best path to grow professionally and advance. His research showed that faculty did not feel they had the appropriate training and were not prepared to be in leadership positions. The faculty with mentors and coaches were more likely to advance in the pipeline to leadership roles (Baker et al., 2019). Payne (2016) also suggests that faculty find mentors who can be a resource for developing trustworthy relationships, improving communication, or learning critical skills to enhance academic leadership.

Faculty transition to administrative positions because of different priorities and preferences. According to Wald and Golding (2020), the participants in their research wanted to benefit their staff; therefore, they mentored their team, provided professional development, and encouraged staff to apply for promotional opportunities. The participants also gained personal benefits from working in the lead position, such as improving time management skills, building self-confidence, and increasing further career opportunities. Transitioning from faculty to administrative positions is challenging because there are limited hours in a day (Palm, 2006).

Kruse (2020) explains that the department chair position is critical and extremely difficult. It is unlikely that department chairs received training as part of their education or work experience. On the other hand, faculty could consider higher education leadership positions because of increased pay, a better office, premium parking, professional development, or travel opportunities. These positive aspects are often overpowered by longer work hours, working year-
round, problem-solving, and handling complaints (Buller, 2015). As faculty consider advancement to administrative leadership positions, they need to decide if they value the reward or valence (Vroom, 1964).

**New Demands and Stress**

Stress is common for faculty in higher education. The most prevalent and demanding sources of stress are associated with the amount of work, the limited time to complete assignments, and insufficient financial resources (Lindholm and Szelényi, 2008). Fontinha's (2019) study also confirmed that instructors described greater levels of stress than nonacademic employees in higher education, which was due to heavy work demands and insufficient resources.

Buller (2012) explained that the department chair was a crucial position, but it was also the least valued or respected by others. Because of the dual role as faculty and administrator, the department chairs had to develop skillsets other than teaching, which could create tension for someone new in these roles (Kruse, 2020). This demanding job often included budgeting, course scheduling, and departmental planning. The individual also acted as the liaison between faculty, the department, and campus leadership. These responsibilities could be challenging for faculty because their education and experience were in their particular field of study and not in administration (Buller, 2012).

Kruse's (2020) research also showed that the responsibilities of chairs and other higher education leadership positions were very stressful and overwhelming. His qualitative study suggested that the administrators' work was stressful because they did not have full authority over the department or faculty. However, the administrators were required to work closely with other faculty, contend with university politics, and make departmental business decisions.
Palm’s (2006) study explained that when administrators tried to continue teaching courses in their fields, conducting research, and publishing articles, they were more likely to maintain their faculty relationships with colleagues. Administrators remained optimistic by searching for new funding opportunities or legislative actions that benefited the university, as they supported faculty. Foster (2006) observed that administrative duties could cross several different academic disciplines; furthermore, working with business operations and academic functions could be highly complicated, putting additional stress on the relationships between administrators and faculty.

Coll et al. (2019) also studied the different stress factors that impacted academic deans at higher education research institutions. In addition to their regular academic and administrative responsibilities, deans had to find the best and most efficient ways to identify improvements, recommend changes, and enhance their departments. The researchers used multiple regression analysis to predict the deans’ well-being, over-commitment to tasks, hardiness, and burnout in their leadership positions. The study determined that major stressors included balancing departmental finances, obtaining support from the provost, improving the department's vision, encouraging positive change, and handling resistance when it occurred. The results suggested that faculty obtain professional development and training relating to each stressor. Furthermore, researchers needed to acquire more knowledge and experience from other university leadership.

In contrast, Kruse's (2020) research was optimistic and determined that deans and chairs felt that they were contributing to the universities, departments, faculty, and students. Although their work was stressful and challenging, deans and chairs felt that they positively impacted and made a difference in their department. Being resilient and committing to their work allowed them to manage the pressures and determine the best pathway to target their efforts. However,
administrators needed to reduce academic responsibilities to achieve organizational goals so they could follow the most direct route to improve the quality of their institution (Palm, 2006).

Buller (2012) recommends that faculty research job descriptions and learn about the responsibilities before submitting applications when pursuing upper-level higher education positions. Faculty must also recognize that the job descriptions may differ across institutions. Faculty also have access to training and seminars on advancing in administrative positions which are provided by professional organizations like the American Council on Education.

DeZure et al. (2014) suggests that only full professors should hold administrative positions. Instructors, assistant professors, and associate professors should advance in rank before joining the administration. Because the chair positions are complex and challenging, administrators must learn to balance their work and personal responsibilities (Kruse, 2020).

**Learning Curve**

Faculty experience major adjustments when moving to administrative positions. The steep learning curve requires increased skills in handling budget and financial management issues, human resource functions, and compliance with university policies and state and federal laws (Foster, 2006). DeZure et al. (2014) confirmed that administrators require unique skill sets, such as working and communicating with many people, managing time efficiently, and understanding budget and financial management. Furthermore, administrators must be credible in their field of study, trustworthy, moral, reliable, and hardworking. Transparency and candidness are essential since faculty and administrators must work together.

Seasoned administrators strongly recommend that department leaders obtain help from experts when handling legal or important financial issues (Foster, 2006). Similarly, Buller (2015) recommends that faculty obtain professional development to prepare themselves before
accepting leadership roles in higher education. These actions could include assisting the accreditation committee with reviews or volunteering for other higher education committees. Increasing exposure to campus leaders or finding a mentor who could demonstrate the technical aspects of administrative responsibilities would allow faculty to develop better leadership skills and gain experience.

Faculty must also learn as much as possible about their institution. It is critical for faculty to attend seminars to enhance competencies with budgeting, supervising, and institutional compliance requirements (Buller, 2015). If faculty understand how to set priorities and balance the workload between their regular workload and administrative responsibilities, the learning curve would decline. Reducing the class schedule might be necessary to offset time spent completing administrative duties. Finding a mentor who has worked in a unit with similar characteristics and has experience with an administrator role would benefit the faculty through this transition. Finally, having a comprehensive career plan is critical because faculty may want to continue their administrative pathway or transition back to a teaching position (Buller 2012).

Morris and Laipple (2015) surveyed 1,515 higher education administrators who worked in various dean, chair, and director positions regarding their preparedness for their current jobs. The participants began their careers as tenure-track faculty who advanced to administrative leadership positions with minimal leadership training. The results showed that the administrators required instruction and assistance in finance, metrics, and grievance procedures. The results also confirmed that most of the participants were less interested and less passionate about their current roles when compared to their initial appointments. In addition, about 50% of the participants said their jobs negatively affected their quality of life.
Applying the factors of Expectancy Theory to the study, the faculty may have felt that if they increased their effort, they would improve their performance (expectancy). If they increased their performance, the faculty believed they would get a promotion (instrumentality). Finally, if they received the promotion, the faculty would need to decide if it would be valuable (valence) (Vroom 1964).

**Work-Life Balance**

According to Sullivan (2014), the concept of work-life balance began in 1938 when Roosevelt signed the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA). This Act set the minimum wage rate, banned child labor, and required employers to track employee hours, ensuring overtime hours were paid when the actual work hours exceeded the standard workweek (Fair Labor Standards Act, 1938). As more women became employed in the 1960s and 1970s, families became dependent on two incomes, and the need for employees to balance work life and personal life became a common theme. In the 1980s and 1990s, U.S. employers began to implement policies such as maternity leave and flexible work schedules, allowing for a better work-life balance; however, research conducted in 2007 suggested that the programs were more generous in other countries (Sullivan, 2014). Tugend (2020) conducted a study that found in March 2020, Covid-19 had affected faculty work-life balance. The survey results from this research indicated that 74% of female faculty and 63% of male faculty felt their work-life balance deteriorated at the beginning of the Coronavirus pandemic.

Kallaith and Brough (2008) defined work-life balance as “the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual’s current life priorities” (p. 326). This definition parallels Expectancy Theory because balance is based on the perception of what an individual believes about work and personal life.
Punia and Kamboj (2013) explain that the definition of work-life balance varies for individuals because priorities and values change. This definition aligns with Lunenburg’s (2011) fourth assumption of Expectancy Theory because individuals may make alternate decisions to maximize their perceived rewards. Today, more employers work to improve employees’ work-life balance by providing flexible work hours, leave policies, and wellness programs to increase their competitiveness in the market (Sullivan, 2014).

Neville and Brochu (2019) explain that understanding the differences in the generations was critical in higher education. They studied traditionalists, baby boomers, generation Xers, and millennials and suggested that generation Xers created the concept of work-life balance. Higher education institutions must understand the decisions leading to choices people make. For example, baby boomers believed that work-life balance meant that individuals understood work limits. Generation X participants thought it was best to take care of themselves, and it would improve both work and life. Millennial participants believed that work and personal life should be completely separate. At the end of the workday, millennials felt it was important to leave the office and concentrate on their personal lives. This research suggested differences between the generations as they define work-life balance.

Work-life balance is also a concern at higher education institutions for faculty, especially regarding family obligations (Sullivan, 2014). Faculty positions have become more demanding over the last 20 years because of the growth in student enrollment and increased workload for instructors (Fontinha et al., 2019). Punia and Kamboj’s (2013) research suggested that work-life balance was important because it improved faculty effectiveness and job satisfaction in terms of student education; furthermore, a positive work-life balance resulted in better faculty health and
improvement in student behavior. Some full professors did not want to give up their work and family balance or reduce teaching and research hours (DeZure, 2014).

Sullivan (2014) found that some faculty believe using family-related programs may hurt their reputation at work, so they perceive there are no work-life balance concerns or issues. He further explained that it was difficult for those individuals, who were not working in academia, to understand the amount of work completed outside of standard classroom hours. These responsibilities included research, service, class preparation, grading, student meetings, and administrative work.

Fontinha et al. (2019) suggest that university and college instructors performed more duties outside of regular work hours than other groups of professional employees. Because of the overwhelming workload, it is difficult for faculty to transition to administrative roles suggesting that balancing their personal and professional life is challenging. In addition, there is a lack of training for the administrative positions. Faculty must learn to manage their responsibilities at work to overcome these challenges (Kruse, 2020). Buller (2015) suggested that before faculty transition to an administrative leadership position they should ask themselves questions: would I accept the job at the same rate of pay; how would I handle complaints; do I like attending meetings; and do I have problem-solving skills? In other words, one can ask faculty if they believe that receiving the reward of a promotion to administrator position is valuable.

**Key Factors: Expectancy, Instrumentality, and Valence**

Vroom (1964) developed Expectancy Theory when studying individuals and their decision-making process, suggesting that their specific wants and needs determined outcomes. He explained the formula for Expectancy Theory with the following equation: \( \text{motivation} = \text{expectancy} \times \text{instrumentality} \times \text{valence} \). Expectancy, instrumentality, and valence influence a
person's motivation if looked at separately, but it becomes compelling when the research combines the three factors. When these factors interact, they create the motivation which influences an individual's behavior (Estes & Polnick, 2012).

**Expectancy**

The first factor in this equation is expectancy, which Vroom (1964) defined as an individual's belief concerning the probability of an action or performance resulting in a specific outcome. The outcome was achieved by the individual's choices and events outside of one's control. For example, if one chose to purchase a lottery ticket, there would be no guarantee of a positive result or that the individual would prefer the prize.

Expectancy was also explained as the probability that employees believed they would successfully implement and complete a specific task, indicating that the employee's effort was directly correlated with their performance (Vroom, 1964). If there was an increase in the effort, then it was expected that there would be an increase in performance (Agah et al., 2020).

McGiboney's (2018) study clarified that expectancy was the effort individuals displayed when obtaining outcomes that originated from previous life experiences, personalities, levels of self-confidence, and emotional wellbeing. The value of the expectancy probability range is between 0, where there are no expectations and 1, where there is an absolute or total expectation (Suciu et al., 2013; Parijat & Bagga, 2014; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018). Lunenburg (2011) clarifies that if an individual believes there is no chance that the effort would provide the desired outcome, the probability would be 0. Furthermore, the probability would equal 1 if the individual thought that the effort would give the desired result.
**Instrumentality**

The second factor, instrumentality, is defined as a person's belief that a specific level of performance would lead to the desired outcome (Lunenburg, 2011; Parijat & Bagga, 2014; Burns et al., 2015). Instrumentality is what individuals use to assess the probability of successful performance that results in obtaining rewards (McGiboney, 2018). The value of instrumentality is between 0, where there is no expectation of the anticipated outcome, and 1, where the probability of the outcome is expected (Parijat & Bagga, 2014; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018; Agah et al., 2020). When there is a lack of instrumentality and individuals feel vulnerable, employee actions would not be the preferred result. In other words, if employees do not believe the extra effort would result in positive outcomes, they may not choose to improve their performance (Burns et al., 2015).

**Valence**

The third factor is valence defined as the anticipated reward or the value that an individual associates with the outcome of the performance (Burns et al., 2015; McGiboney, 2018). Vroom (1964) referred to valence as an individual’s preference for specific outcomes, favoring one reward over another, or having no preference. Valence, the measurement of the value of the outcome, can be positive or negative depending on the expected fulfillment from a reward (McGiboney, 2018). In other words, the absolute satisfaction of the valence is the value of the outcome (Vroom, 1964). This variable is measured using a scale between -1 and 1 (Parijat & Bagga, 2014; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018; Agah et al., 2020). A positive valence occurs when an individual wants to receive the reward. In contrast, a negative valence could happen when the individual does not wish to obtain the reward or does not feel it is valuable (McGiboney, 2018). An example of an extreme negative valence from increased effort or performance could be stress...
or fatigue; however, when researching the importance of motivation, the total of all valences must be a positive number (Parijat & Bagga, 2014). A zero valence would occur when the reward has no value to the individual (McGiboney, 2018).

Summary

Since the Great Recession, higher education institutions have experienced financial difficulties, including reductions in endowments, state revenues, and federal appropriations (Luna, 2012). During the same period, baby boomers were considering retirement, and there were concerns about shortages of higher education administrators (DeZure et al., 2014). As faculty transition to administrative positions, there are greater work demands that can cause an increase in stress levels (Buller, 2012; Kruse, 2020). In addition, faculty experience steep learning curves because of new responsibilities such as budgeting, human resource functions, and compliance with university policies and state and federal laws (Foster, 2006; DeZure et al., 2014). Research showed that some faculty were not interested in the additional duties and stress because they preferred to have a better work-life balance (Punia & Kamboj, 2013; Sullivan, 2014).

Vroom's Expectancy Theory of motivation has been used as a model for research to determine the relationship between one's perceived effort, performance, and rewards in the workplace (Agah et al., 2020). This theory describes motivation as the product of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. Expectancy is the probability that one believes that if effort increases, then performance will also increase. Instrumentality is the belief that if performance increases, one will receive a reward. Valence is the perceived value of the outcome or the reward (Vroom, 1964).

Expectancy Theory was used as a framework in several research areas in higher
education relating to faculty motivation (Estes & Polnick, 2012; Taylor, 2019; Agah et al., 2020). In addition, researchers have studied the increased work demands for higher education administrators, the stress associated with the positions (Buller, 2012; Kruse, 2020), and work-life balance (Punia & Kamboj, 2013; Sullivan, 2014). However, there is a gap in the literature, and this study examines if there is a relationship between work-life balance and the perceived value of rewards when faculty consider advancement to administrator positions using Expectancy Theory as the framework. This study is critical because universities and colleges must understand if faculty prefer work-life balance over transitioning to administrative positions.
Chapter 3

Methodology

This quantitative study examined the relationship between work-life balance and the perceived value of rewards when faculty consider advancing to administrator positions using Vroom's Expectancy Theory of Motivation as the framework. Multiple regression analysis was used to verify if specific independent variables predicted the outcomes. This study included the following independent variables: age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children under 18 years old living in the household, and rank. The outcomes, referred to as dependent variables, included expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. This chapter covers the following sections: Population, Sample, Survey Instrument, Data Collection, and Data Analysis.

Population

This study was conducted at two four-year public universities in the Southeast. The first university was a large, urban research institution with approximately 22,000 students and 900 faculty. The male population exceeded the female population by about 4%. Approximately 22% of faculty were professors, 28% were associate professors, and 27% were assistant professors. Also, 65% of the faculty were tenured or working in tenure-track positions (U. S. Department of Education, 2022).

The second university was the state's largest public university, with almost 32,000 students and 1,700 faculty. The male population exceeded the female population by 8%. Approximately 32% were professors, 23% were associate professors, and 21% were assistant professors. Also, 840 faculty had tenure, and 291 were working in tenure-track positions (U. S. Department of Education, 2022).
Sample

The sample for this study included faculty from both universities, comprised of those who have tenure, work in tenure track positions, and work in non-tenure track positions. In addition, faculty from all disciplines were invited to participate. This study asked faculty to consider future expectations for advancement to administrator positions, including those already working in administrative roles. For example, if faculty members were currently working in a managerial role, their responses would reflect their interest in advancing to higher level positions.

Both universities required researchers to secure approval from the institution’s IRB to protect the human rights of the participants before conducting the research. This process also ensured compliance with state and federal laws. The IRB reviewed the electronic application and approved the study as exempt because they did not anticipate participant identification or harmful issues. Participants provided their consent before completing the survey instrument. Online surveys were anonymous and did not collect personal information such as names or specific identification data. Completed surveys were uploaded into SPSS to generate descriptive statistics for all participants.

Survey Instrument

Chen et al. (2006) studied business faculty and their motivation to conduct research using Vroom’s Expectancy Theory as the framework. They created a questionnaire to determine the value of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards for publishing, faculty expectations of receiving a reward, and faculty perception of the impact of the research. The Chen et al. (2006) questionnaire was used as a guide for this study. Each author granted permission for the use of
their questionnaire with the understanding that modifications may be needed. The survey instrument for this research was divided into five sections.

**Section One: Demographics**

The first section requested demographic information about each participant. Chen et al. (2006) included the following data, which was also collected for this study: faculty discipline, gender, rank, and tenure status. In addition, this current survey instrument included age, race, marital status, number of children who are under 18 years old living in the household, years of service, and the number of faculty in the department. The additional data may be used to test if motivation and expectations are different based upon age, ethnicity, and family or work status.

**Section Two: Valence**

The second section of the survey instrument measured valence, the anticipated value of a reward, which was slightly modified from the Chen et al. (2006) questionnaire. Valence questions were measured with a Likert scale, ranging from very important to not important at all. Researchers used this method to measure participants' attitudes and opinions, providing an odd number of selected responses to each question (Zaman et al., 2020). Faculty were asked if they believed specific rewards were valuable. These rewards related to tenure status, faculty rank, chaired professorships, peer recognition, teaching load, personal needs, and employment opportunities. One additional reward added to this research was one’s belief in being promoted to an administrator position at a university.

**Section Three: Expectancy**

The third section of the survey instrument measured expectancy. Modifying a question from the Chen et al. (2006) questionnaire, the participants were asked about their experiences and expectations regarding their effort as it related to performance. The detailed list of activities
associated with this question was obtained from Buller’s (2015) research as he explained that faculty should be knowledgeable and complete specific activities if they want to pursue a career as a dean or provost. These activities included volunteering for leadership assignments and accreditation committees, enhancing their knowledge about how their university or college works, keeping abreast of higher education issues, developing skills and acquiring budgetary experience, and obtaining professional development in academic leadership. The responses for each question included the following choices: strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree.

**Section Four: Instrumentality**

The fourth section of the survey instrument measured instrumentality. Based on Expectancy Theory, typical research questions were asked about participants’ beliefs regarding their performance and opportunity for rewards (Vroom, 1964). For example, Reinhart and Wahba (1975) studied motivation of job satisfaction, and their survey instrument included questions relating to the availability of rewards if the participants worked harder and the availability of a promotion at the participants’ current work location. In this study, participants were asked about the impact of advancement after achieving any or all of the suggested actions noted in Buller’s (2015) publication. Faculty were asked to select one of the following options: strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, neutral, somewhat agree, and strongly agree.

**Section Five: Other**

This section included two additional questions for the participants. The survey instrument inquired about the participants’ willingness to spend additional time obtaining training or professional development to improve their skill set required for administrative roles. Faculty chose one of the following options: zero hours, 1-2 hours, 3-4 hours, 5-6 hours, or more than 7
hours. In addition, faculty were asked about the next leadership level they may want to undertake. These choices included different levels of administrative positions and professorship.

**Pilot Testing**

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), reliability "refers to the consistency or repeatability of an instrument" (p. 154). They suggest that pilot testing is critical to ensure the survey's reliability and confirm if consistency exists. Furthermore, pilot testing indicates if the survey instructions or questions need improvement or modifications and determine how long participants need to complete the survey. Creswell and Creswell (2018) also state that each participant testing the survey instrument should be asked to provide feedback and offer suggestions which should be incorporated into the final version of the survey instrument. Afterwards, the modified survey instrument should be sent to the study participants.

In this study, once the initial survey instrument was created, a few faculty members who work at another public university, not included in this study, were asked to pilot test the survey instrument. The faculty completed the survey instrument in less than ten minutes and recommended clarification of several questions. Next, the survey instrument was updated based on the faculty feedback. This process clarified questions and ensured that the survey instrument flowed smoothly.

**Data Collection**

The survey instrument was developed using Qualtrics. After approval from the Institutional Review Board, an email explaining the research was sent to the faculty at the two higher education institutions. Distributing survey instruments via email is an appropriate method to contact participants. In addition, it may be necessary to send reminder emails several weeks later to increase the participation rate (Nardi, 2018). In this study, emails were forwarded directly
to the faculty at one university. At the other university, the chief academic officer was asked for assistance in forwarding the email and survey instrument to faculty. The email to the faculty included a link to the Qualtrics survey. In addition, it explained that all surveys were anonymous, and that no identifiable information would be requested. Faculty provided their consent at the beginning of the survey. After the first week, a second reminder email was submitted. After two weeks, the data was downloaded to a usable format for SPSS for review and analysis. Any missing data were identified and explained prior to the initial stage of the analysis.

**Dependent Variables**

Since this study defined work-life balance based on the factors of Expectancy Theory, three separate regression equations were run using expectancy, instrumentality, and valence as dependent variables. Each factor was set up as a continuous variable and measured using a Likert scale, as described in the Survey Instrument section.

**Independent Variables**

The independent variables in this study included age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children under 18 years old living in the household, and academic rank.

**Age.** This study included age as an independent variable in the regression analysis. This variable was used to describe the participants in higher education studies of faculty work-life balance (Fontinha et al., 2015). In addition, age was included in studies relating to faculty preparing for and working in administrative roles (Morris & Laipple, 2015; Coll et al., 2019).

**Gender.** Gender was set up as a dichotomous variable where male equals 0 and female equals 1. This variable was used in several higher education research studies, including Tugend’s (2020) study. The results showed that work-life balance declined more for women than men since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic. Similar studies suggested that female faculty
experienced lower work-life balance than their male counterparts (Diego-Medrano & Salazar, 2021; Franco et al., 2021; Denson & Szelényi, 2022). Furthermore, women were more likely to choose a different career path because of the lack of work-life balance (Franco et al., 2021).

**Tenure Status.** Tenure status was set up as a dichotomous variable where faculty who were not tenured equals 0 and tenured equals 1. Agah et al. (2020) used tenure status as a variable when studying faculty motivation for publishing research. Diego-Medrano and Salazar (2021) studied tenure status and faculty perception of obtaining work-life balance. These results showed that tenured faculty struggle with work-life balance because of the demands and stress of their position. Furthermore, their hope and expectations were that the issues would be resolved on their own.

**Marital Status.** Marital status was set up as a dichotomous variable where married equals 0 and not married equals 1. Diego-Medrani and Salazar (2021) found that if faculty did not have an acceptable work-life balance, then it could impact the quality of their marriage and their relationship with their spouses. Denson and Szelényi (2022) also studied marital relationships and work-life balance for faculty in higher education.

**Children Under 18 Years Old.** Children under the age of 18 living in households was set up a dichotomous variable where faculty living with children under 18 was 0 and without children was 1. Denson and Szelényi (2022) cited two studies that used the age of children living with faculty parents. The first study showed that faculty living with children spent less time at work than those who did not have children. The second study provided more detailed results, which showed that female faculty with children worked 53 hours per week versus women without children who worked 59 hours each week.
**Rank.** Rank was an ordinal variable and consisted of the following: professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor. In this study, rank was converted to dummy variables that were dichotomous when included in the regression model. Agah et al. (2020) used rank as a variable in their research and determined that faculty rank was a predictor of faculty motivation for publishing. Punia and Kamboj (2013) conducted a study on work-life balance for faculty in higher education and used rank as a variable.

**Data Analysis**

All data collected from the survey instruments were converted to a database file and uploaded into SPSS for analysis. Each variable was examined to ensure they were correctly coded, and the observations were checked for missing data. In addition, by observing the data, one determined if outliers existed, which could impact the results.

**Regression Analysis**

Chen et al. (2006) used this technique when studying faculty motivation to conduct research. Denson and Szelényi (2022) used ANOVA and regression analysis to study work-life balance and its relationship with faculty marital and family status. Furthermore, Agah et al. (2020) used the ordinary least squares regression analysis to reduce the error in the model when studying tenured and non-tenured faculty and their motivation to produce scholarly research.

Multiple linear regression was the appropriate technique for this study to determine if the selected independent variables had a relationship with faculty work-life balance. According to Urdan (2017), “the purpose of regression analysis is to make predictions about the value of the dependent variable given certain values of the predictor variable” (p. 183). The dependent variable is referred to as an outcome variable. There must be at least two independent variables, called predictor variables. A common type of regression used in quantitative analysis is ordinary
least squares (OLS). The best fit line is drawn through the data points showing the least amount of error for each observation (Urdan, 2017).

**Assumptions**

After the multiple linear regression was completed in SPSS, the model was tested for the five assumptions of multiple regression: normally distributed data, linear relationship between each predictor variable and the outcome variable, independent observations, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. These assumptions are detailed as follows:

**Normality.** The first assumption to validate the model is to confirm that the variables are normally distributed. Data are checked for skewness and kurtosis, and these values are included in the SPSS output. The Shapiro-Wilk test is another course of action to confirm normality. In addition, the data are checked for outliers. The normality test is also visually examined using the histogram and Q-Q plot of the residuals (Stevens, 2007).

**Linearity.** The second assumption confirms the linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables. This assumption is verified by viewing the scatterplot of the residuals, ensuring that the observations are not curvilinear (Stevens, 2007).

**Independence.** In the initial stages of research, multiple linear regression assumes that each observation in the dataset is independent of each other (Stevens, 2007). The Durbin-Watson test verifies the assumption of independence. This statistic ranges between zero and four, but a value close to two confirms that the assumption is met (Freund et al., 2006).

**Homoscedasticity.** The fourth assumption is homoscedasticity, which means that the residuals are distributed evenly. Homoscedasticity can be checked visually using the scatterplot, which is included in the SPSS output. This assumption is not met if the residuals are shaped like a fan or cone (Osborne & Waters, 2002).
Multicollinearity. The last assumption is to check the variables for multicollinearity, which can be tested using the variance inflation factor (VIN). If the value of the VIN is greater than 10, then steps must be taken to mitigate the high correlation. If the independent variables are highly correlated, it could produce unreliable test results (Stevens, 2007).

Hypotheses Tested

One regression was run for each Expectancy Theory factor: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. The same independent variables were used when testing each dependent variable. In a standard research project, the null and alternative hypotheses are determined at the beginning of the research process, and a statistical significance level of .05 is often used (Stevens, 2007).

Expectancy Hypothesis. The following hypotheses were used for expectancy:

$H_0$: There is no relationship between expectancy and age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and rank.

$H_1$: There is a relationship between expectancy and age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and rank.

Instrumentality Hypothesis. The following hypotheses were used for instrumentality:

$H_0$: There is no relationship between instrumentality and age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and rank.

$H_1$: There is a relationship between instrumentality and age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and rank.

Valence Hypothesis. The following hypotheses were used for valence:

$H_0$: There is no relationship between valence and age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and rank.
There is a relationship between valence and age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and rank.

**Reliability and Validity**

In quantitative analysis, it is essential to consider the reliability and validity of the survey instrument and data. Reliability refers to a measure of consistency that should provide repeatable results; thus, similar studies should produce like results. Cronbach’s Alpha is a test for this precision and accuracy (Mellinger & Hanson, 2020). This test ensures that participants answer survey questions similarly. The survey items are reliable if the alpha level is .70 or higher. The highest value of Cronbach’s Alpha is 1 (Urdan, 2017). The survey instrument for this research should produce reliable results since it is based on the questionnaire developed by Chen et al. (2006).

Validity is often viewed in broad categories, including content, construct, and criterion (Mellenger & Hanson, 2020). Content validity indicates that researchers can obtain meaningful and valuable inferences from the data. It allows researchers to confirm that the survey items depict the data as intended (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2018). Mellenger and Hanson (2020) explain that content validity uses theory to describe an appropriate awareness and understanding of a specific theory. Construct validity refers to the extent or degree to which the measures relate to the tested concept. Criterion validity emphasizes the degree of correlation between the measures of the research (Khalid et al., 2012). The data for this research should be valid as it is based on Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation. The survey items focus on faculty beliefs and perceptions and use terminology associated with the theory.
Regression Models

The SPSS output produced the results of the three regression models beginning with the descriptive statistics. Using the ANOVA table in the output, the statistical significance of the models was verified. Once confirmed that the assumptions were met, a further review of each model was completed. The assumptions are discussed in detail in Chapter Four, Results. Afterwards, the SPSS output was analyzed, including the statistical significance of the variables, practical significance of the model, and a comparison of the variables and the coefficients.

Summary

Universities and colleges have experienced financial struggles, including reduced endowments and lower state and federal resources (Luna, 2012). In addition, faculty have faced an increase in work demands and higher stress levels in their current roles (Buller, 2012; Kruse, 2020). Achieving work-life balance is challenging for faculty whether they are tenured, non-tenured, male, female, married, or not married (Diego-Medrano & Salazar, 2021; Denson & Szelényi, 2022). Therefore, studying the work-life balance for faculty and their perception of rewards as they consider advancing to administrator positions in higher education is essential.

In this study, faculty from two four-year universities were asked to participate in a Qualtrics survey, and data were reviewed and analyzed using SPSS. The next step of this process discusses the findings from the research, including the descriptive statistics, the validity of the assumptions, and the regression analysis results for each dependent variable. The final chapter of the dissertation includes a discussion of the research question, any limitations, and recommendations for future research involving faculty and work-life balance.
Chapter 4

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine work-life balance and faculty perceptions of advancement in academia. The sample included 2,526 faculty from two large universities in the Southeast. Faculty from all departments were invited to participate. The first university provided email addresses, and each faculty received information explaining the research and a link to the online survey instrument. The Faculty Senate at the second university distributed the email, including the survey link to their faculty via the listserv. The responses were returned anonymously via Qualtrics, and no identifiable information was received. One hundred ninety-eight faculty responded to the survey, resulting in a 7.8% response rate. Seventeen faculty did not complete it, and one person chose not to consent. Therefore, 180 faculty finished the survey, and these data were used for the statistical analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

The faculty included in this study consisted of 78 males (43.3%), 98 females (54.4%), and three non-identified (1.7%). Sixty-nine of the faculty worked in academia for less than 10 years, while 72 participants worked between 10 and 19 years. Thirty-nine participants worked 20 years or more as faculty. The academic rank breakdown was as follows: professor \(n = 44, 24.4\%\), associate professor \(n = 61, 33.9\%\), assistant professor \(n = 52, 28.9\%\), and instructor \(n = 23, 12.8\%\).

The tenure status was moderately even, with 52.8% of the respondents having tenure \(n = 95\), and 47.2% who did not \(n = 85\). The age of the participants ranged between 27 and 76, resulting in a mean age of 46.9. Fifty-nine participants were less than 40 years old, 61 were between the ages of 40 and 49, and 58 participants were 50 or older. Approximately 76.0% of the
participants were White ($n = 137$), while 24.0% were Non-White ($n = 43$). Almost seventy-seven percent of the participants were married/partnered ($n = 138$), and 22.0 % were single ($n = 40$). In addition, 82 faculty had children under the age of 18 living in the household, while 96 faculty members had no children under the age of 18 living at home. These details are shown in Table 1 below.

**Table 1**

*Demographic Data for Faculty Promotions Study*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 40</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 +</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>32.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>54.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Female</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married/Partnered</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>76.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-White</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>76.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenured</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>52.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Tenured</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>47.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children Under 18 Living in the Household</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>53.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Survey Results

All faculty were emailed information regarding the study and a link to the Qualtrics survey instrument. The survey was divided into multiple sections, including a faculty member’s willingness to work additional hours for advancement and their next potential leadership position. The results found that over 41% of the participants were not willing to work any additional hours to obtain training and professional development in order to advance to an administrative position. Approximately 17% of the participants were willing to work additional hours for each of the following time frames when asked about advancement: 1-2 hours, 3-4 hours, or more than seven hours.

Faculty were also asked about the next level of leadership they may want to undertake. Over 21% of the participants did not respond to this question, and over 49% wanted to advance in the different ranks of professorship. Approximately 23% of the participants indicated that their preference was to advance in administrative positions, while only 6% were interested in both professorship and administrative positions.

The following sections provide an overview of the hypotheses, methodology, assumptions, and results for the dependent variables of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. Regression analysis was performed for each of the dependent variables. When the results were statistically significant, an ANOVA was run for the independent variable of rank, testing the mean differences of the scores.

Expectancy – Hypotheses, Methodology, Assumptions, and Results

Multiple regression analyses were conducted for each of the dependent scale variables of expectancy, valence, and instrumentality to determine if there was a statistically significant
relationship between each scale variable and independent variables of age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and faculty rank. The first relationship tested was for the scale variable expectancy.

Faculty were asked to evaluate the impact of specific activities on advancement to operationalize the variable expectancy. The responses were averaged to calculate one value for expectancy, which became the dependent variable in the first regression equation. The independent variables included age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children under 18, and rank. These independent variables were used throughout the entire study. Before the statistical tests were performed, rank was transformed into four new yes/no dichotomous variables for professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor for the regression model. Next, the assumptions for multiple regression were examined.

**Assumptions.** The histogram and Q-Q plots indicated that there were deviations due to outliers. Stevens (2007) states regression analysis is robust to violations of normality. An examination of skewness (-0.67) and kurtosis (0.03) were found to be within the acceptable limits. Morgan et al. (2013) explained that the skewness statistic should be between -1 and 1, and the kurtosis statistic should be between -3 and 3. The scatterplot displayed a linear relationship, indicated by the figure's best-fit line. The assumption of independence was met and confirmed by the Durbin Watson statistic (2.11). The Durbin Watson statistic tests for autocorrelation, and the acceptable range is between 0 and 4 (Freund et al., 2006). The scatterplot showed that the residuals were evenly distributed, confirming the assumption of homoscedasticity. Also, the variance inflation factor (VIF) for each independent variable was less than 10, indicating that the assumption of multicollinearity was met (Stevens, 2007).
Results. The multiple regression analysis indicated no statistically significant relationship between the dependent variable expectancy and any of the independent variables ($F_{(8, 167)} = .76, p = .635$). An ANOVA was conducted to examine the difference in expectancy among the four groups of faculty rank. An additional assumption of homogeneity or equal variances was tested using the Levene’s statistic (Stevens, 2007). Since the significance level was greater than .05, the assumption of homogeneity was met ($F_{(3, 176)} = .363, p = .780$). As in the multiple regression model, there was no statistically significant difference in the mean scores for expectancy among the four groups of faculty ($F_{(3, 176)} = .518, p = .670$).

Instrumentality – Hypotheses, Methodology, Assumptions, and Results

The next analysis conducted was to determine if a significant relationship existed between the scale variable instrumentality and the predictor variables of age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and rank. Only one question on the survey instrument was related to instrumentality, and it was included as the dependent variable for this part of the research. Multiple linear regression was also performed on the instrumentality hypotheses; therefore, the same assumptions were tested as in the previous section.

Assumptions. The histogram and Q-Q plots confirmed that outliers existed, but skewness (-.153) and kurtosis (-.953) were between the acceptable limits (Morgan et al, 2013). Since regression analysis is robust to violations of normality, testing of the other assumptions continued (Stevens, 2007). The scatterplot, including the best-fit line, confirmed that a linear relationship existed between the dependent and independent variables. The Durbin Watson statistic was 1.979. The scatterplot showed that the residuals were evenly distributed, and the VIF for each independent variable confirmed that they were not highly correlated.
Results. The regression model for instrumentality was statistically significant ($F_{(8, 167)} = 2.987, p = .004$). The R square showed that the independent variables explained 12.5% of the variability in the dependent variable with the predictor variables of age ($\beta = -.815, F = -3.695, p < .001$) and instructor ($\beta = -1.176, F = -2.283, p = .024$) being statistically significant. Age and instructor had negative impacts on instrumentality with an increase by one unit of instrumentality resulting in a decrease in faculty perception of one’s opportunity of advancement to an administrative position. These details are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>R Sq. Change</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
<th>Durbin Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>1.186</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>2.987</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>1.979</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the results indicated a negative relationship between age and instrumentality, it is important to review the literature. Baker et al. (2021) explained that mid-career faculty are the future academic leaders. They continued by explaining that professional development is an essential part of the process for these faculty becoming successful as they take on these administrative roles.

An ANOVA was also conducted to further examine the difference in instrumentality among the four groups of faculty rank. The assumption of homogeneity was also met for the dependent variable of instrumentality ($F_{(3, 176)} = 2.501, p = .061$). The ANOVA analysis indicated a statistically significant difference in the mean of instrumentality ($F_{(3, 176)} = 2.934, p = .035$). The partial eta squared for rank (partial $\eta^2 = .048$) was a small to medium effect size which means that 4.8% of the variability in instrumentality was explained by rank.
A Tukey Post hoc test was then conducted to determine which groups of faculty rank were statistically significant. The Tukey Post Hoc test determined statistically significant differences between the following levels of rank: professor and instructor ($p = .049$) and associate professor and instructor ($p = .026$). These results suggested that faculty perception of instrumentality was much higher for professors and associate professors than instructors. These details are displayed in Table 3.

**Table 3**

*Test of Between-Subjects Effects for Instrumentality*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>13.078</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.359</td>
<td>2.934</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>1432.771</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1432.771</td>
<td>964.415</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>13.078</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.359</td>
<td>2.934</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>261.472</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>1.486</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2023.00</td>
<td>180</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>274.550</td>
<td>179</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Valence – Hypotheses, Methodology, Assumptions, and Results**

The final regression model conducted was to test if a significant relationship existed between the scale variable valence and the predictor variables of age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and rank. The survey questions relating to valence were averaged to calculate one value for valence, which was used as the dependent variable in this regression equation.

**Assumptions.** The five assumptions for multiple linear regression were met when testing for valence. The histogram and Q-Q plots confirmed the presence of outliers, and skewness and kurtosis were (-.767) and (1.484), respectively. The scatterplot including the best-fit line,
confirmed a linear relationship between the variables. The Durbin Watson statistic was 1.582. The scatterplot showed that the residuals were evenly distributed. The same independent variables were used in this regression and were not highly correlated.

**Results.** The regression equation confirmed that the results were statistically significant in the presence of all the independent variables \( F(8, 167) = 3.074, p = .003 \). The R square showed that the independent variables explained 12.8% of the variability in the dependent variable with the predictor variable of gender being statistically significant \( (\beta = .176, F = 2.109, p = .036) \). The details are shown in Table 4. These results differ from the Chen et al. (2006) study as their results suggested that gender was not a good predictor of faculty research productivity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary for Valence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, an ANOVA was conducted to determine if a statistically significant difference between the groups of faculty rank existed for means of the scale variable valence. The ANOVA for valence indicated unequal variances \( F(3,176) = 4.438, p = .005 \). In addition, the difference between valence and a participant’s rank was statistically significant \( F(3,176) = 5.653, p = .001 \). The partial eta squared for rank \( \eta^2 = .088 \) was a medium effect size which means that 8.8% of the variability in valence was explained by rank.

The Games-Howell Post Hoc test was conducted because of the unequal variances, and the multiple comparisons indicated statistically significant differences between the following levels of rank: professor and instructor \( (p < .001) \), associate professor and instructor \( (p = .005) \),
and assistant professor and instructor \((p = .006)\). These results suggested that professors, associate professors, and assistant professors indicated that the rewards were greater than instructors. These results are detailed in Table 5.

**Table 5**

*Test of Between-Subjects Effects for Valence*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>4.786</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.595</td>
<td>5.653</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>2081.027</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2081.027</td>
<td>7373.319</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>4.786</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.595</td>
<td>5.653</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>49.674</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2496.510</td>
<td>180</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>54.460</td>
<td>179</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In another study, researchers used Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory to examine the relationship between faculty status and motivation to publish. Their results were similar to this research as tenure status and rank did not predict faculty motivation. The researchers concluded that other factors must have contributed to this outcome (Agah et al., 2020).

**Summary**

This study examined work-life balance and faculty perceptions of advancement in higher education. Faculty from two large universities in the Southeast were asked to take part in an online survey. Of the 2,526 faculty included in the sample, 198 responded, resulting in a 7.8% response rate. Most participants were White (76.0%) and married/partnered (77.0%). The percentage of participants were moderately even in terms of gender (female, not female), tenure status (tenured, not tenured), academic rank (professor, associate professor, and assistant
professor), and children under the age of 18 living in the household. The average age of the participants was approximately 47.

Three separate regression models were developed for this study with dependent scale variables calculated for expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. The same independent predictor variables were used for each regression model, including age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children under 18, and the different levels of faculty rank. The results from the expectancy regression equation were not statistically significant. However, the results for the instrumentality and valence regression models were statistically significant.

Additional testing continued for these two dependent variables by groups of faculty rank. An ANOVA was performed to examine the statistically significant differences in the rank levels. Based on the Tukey Post Hoc test, the results were statistically significant between the academic ranks of professor and instructor as well as associate professor and instructor. The partial eta squared for rank (partial $\eta^2 = .048$) was small to medium for instrumentality. Also, the Games-Howell Post Hoc test for valence indicated significant statistical differences in all levels of professorship and instructor. The partial eta squared for rank (partial $\eta^2 = .088$) was medium for valence. Additional discussions on the findings, future research, and conclusions will be highlighted in Chapter 5.
Chapter 5

Discussion

The final chapter discusses the findings, implications for higher education, study limitations, and potential future research. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between work-life balance and faculty perceptions of advancement using Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation as the theoretical framework. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if faculty demographic information predicted work-life balance. Work-life balance was defined as expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. The independent variables used to predict work-life balance included age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and faculty rank. Furthermore, ANOVAs were conducted by faculty rank groups for the three dependent variables of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. This test compared the mean scores between the various levels of rank, which provided more information on the statistical significance of the variable.

Overview of the Study

This study examined work-life balance and faculty perceptions of advancement in higher education. Faculty have had challenges with work-life balance because of increasing work demands and expectations that merged with the time needed to handle personal life and family activities (Diego-Medrano & Salazar, 2021). Vancour (2023) explained that many faculty who displayed strong leadership skills did not choose to consider advancement in administration because of the lack of work-life balance. In other words, those faculty chose personal life over work life.

Expectancy Theory focuses on the relationship between individual perceptions and the effort one exhibits in performing their job, actual work performance, and anticipated rewards. The
critical factors of this theory are expectancy, instrumentality, and valence (Agah et al., 2020). This study used multiple regression analysis to examine work-life balance and faculty perceptions of advancement in higher education using Vroom’s (1964) theory as the framework guided by the research question: Is there a relationship between work-life balance and the perceived value of rewards when faculty consider advancing to administrator positions?

**Interpretation of Findings**

This section provides an overview of the Expectancy Theory factors. In addition, it offers an interpretation of the findings after the regression analyses and ANOVAs were performed. The following is a discussion of the three measures of work-life balance. Additional survey results showed that a large percentage of faculty were not willing to work additional hours to acquire training or professional development. Also, most faculty preferred to remain in professorship positions or did not respond to opportunities for administrative advancement.

**Expectancy**

Vroom (1964) defined expectancy as an individual’s perception that a specific level of effort will result in better performance. The regression model for expectancy found none of the independent variables were statistically significant in predicting expectancy. Further, the results indicated there was no statistically significant difference in the mean scale scores among faculty member groups. This suggested that other factors play a greater role in determining a faculty member’s expectation for work improvement.

**Instrumentality**

Instrumentality explains that if a person’s performance reaches a certain level, it would lead to a preferred outcome (Lunenburg, 2011; Parijat & Bagga, 2014; Burns et al., 2015). In other words, instrumentality is used to assess the probability of successful performance and
obtaining rewards (McGiboney, 2018). The regression model for instrumentality found that age and the dichotomous instructor variable had a statistically significant inverse relationship to instrumentality. The reward in this regression equation included the opportunity for advancement in administration at a university. This data suggests that as individuals get older, the perception of the opportunity for advancement declines. Furthermore, professors may be more likely to believe that opportunities for advancement would be available than instructors, who are generally not tenure track (Mbuva, 2019).

Valence

Valence is the third factor associated with Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation. It is defined as a measure of the value of the reward, which is different for each individual. Valence is positive if the reward is valuable or negative if the reward is not valued (Burns et al, 2015; McGiboney, 2018). The valence regression model found statistically significant results for the predictor variable gender. This suggests that females may value rewards more than non-female participants.

Implications for Higher Education

The findings from this study can provide universities information to help them understand work-life balance and faculty perceptions of the opportunity for advancement and the value of leadership positions. Universities should establish best practices and policies that create a work environment that provide appropriate avenues for training, recruitment, and succession planning for faculty who wish to advance. Administrative leadership may consider the following implications in order to develop and enhance faculty perceptions.
Implication One

The results indicated that as individuals aged, their perception of rewards declined. Research showed that younger employees preferred rewards, including advancement in career opportunities, than older employees (Maurer, 2015). Engaging faculty under the age of 45 may encourage them to transition to higher education leadership. For example, universities could identify faculty who exhibit these interests and create programs where they can build the skillsets to become successful administrators. This study also indicated that faculty who were over 45 were less likely to consider opportunities for advancement in higher education leadership. Universities should remind these faculty that they are valuable resources, and they can provide great benefit to faculty who want advancement opportunities. Programs can be put in place to allow the faculty to remain active in current academic practices and technologies in higher education.

Mid-career faculty are the future academic leaders. However, they need specific professional development in order to be successful in leadership positions (Baker et al., 2019). Baker and Manning (2021) recommended that mid-career faculty obtain training in “core higher education functional areas that are essential to the effective operations of institutions” (p. 174). Furthermore, they suggested establishing mentoring programs would provide additional professional development and personal growth, preparing mid-career faculty for administrative positions. The implementation of these recommendations supports this study to engage younger faculty and show faculty over 45 that they can still provide a positive role in guiding those who wish to advance.
Implication Two

The regression analysis for valence indicated that women saw more value in rewards than their male counterparts. These results contradicted other research that suggested gender was not a good predictor of faculty motivation for publishing (Chen et al., 2006). Nakitende (2019) explained that for many years, women have valued helping other women. She further explained that as women advance in leadership positions, more opportunities could be available for future female leadership. Higher education administration should consider re-evaluating their recruitment policies and practices, focusing more effort on women than they have done in the past. Longman and Madsen (2014) recommended that universities establish policies and practices that encourage the recruitment of qualified women, creating a diverse pool of qualified leadership candidates.

Research showed that women were underrepresented in higher education leadership positions (Nakitende, 2019). It is important that administrators do not assume women are less interested in advancement because women prefer a higher level of personal life in work-life balance. If women are more interested and there are jobs available, why are women not getting these jobs? Research suggested that reasons for this advancement gap included collegial relationships, work environment, and hiring processes. It also showed that men outnumbered women in leadership positions such as chancellors, vice chancellors, and deans (Cañas et al., 2019). Further research showed that women were interested in acquiring professional development and achieving personal growth (Nakitende, 2019). Leadership development opportunities can assist women in developing skills and building networks which are essential for career advancement (Cañas et al., 2019).
Implication Three

This study found that faculty 45 or younger recognized that opportunities existed for obtaining rewards. Therefore, universities could institute a policy regarding succession plans for specific positions for these groups. A detailed and inclusive succession plan provides for a smoother transition when the current leader leaves the organization. Organizations are more stable when there is a plan in place for a leadership change, especially if internal candidates are provided the opportunity to develop skillsets for these positions (Ritchie, 2020). Baker et al. (2019) determined that universities had difficulty filling administrative leadership positions because there were leaks in the pipeline. In addition, they confirmed that faculty had negative perceptions regarding leadership positions. Those faculty who have the highest potential to hold these positions are being discouraged to consider the advancement opportunities (Baker & Manning, 2021). Therefore, a successful succession plan should also show the value administrative leaders bring to the faculty, staff, students, and academic programs. Establishing policies and practices for implications one and two above could create a pool of viable internal candidates who would be engaged in advancement and have the skillset to handle the leadership responsibilities.

Limitations

One limitation of this study is geographical boundaries. The participants in this study were faculty who work at two universities in the Southeast. The statistical results could vary from state to state or by region of the U.S. In addition, expanding the geographical area would also increase the study population. Although there were over 2,500 faculty in the sample for this study, only 198 responded to the survey. Increasing the geographic boundaries may result in additional faculty participation.
Another limitation may be due to the size and type of the higher education institutions selected for this survey. The universities included in this study were both large public universities. The results may vary if faculty work at smaller or private universities or community colleges. Faculty responses regarding work-life balance and the perception of faculty advancement could be much different depending on the university's size and type.

Finally, when analyzing the results of the regression models, it is essential to review the statistical and practical significance. In this study, a limitation could be due to the practical significance of the regression models. Although they were statistically significant, the independent variables only explained a small percentage of the variability in instrumentality and valence.

**Future Research**

After reviewing many articles on Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation and work-life balance, the topic for this study was adapted to faculty perceptions of administrative advancement. Since then, the study was conducted using multiple regression analysis and ANOVA. Once the study was completed, several topics surfaced for future research. Listed below are three possibilities for continued studies in this area.

First, new research on work-life balance and faculty perceptions could include a closer review and analysis of gender. This independent variable was statistically significant in the valence regression model. This study found that female faculty members were interested in advancement. Therefore, it may be possible to include variables relating to women transitioning into these leadership roles. Since men are more often hired in higher education leadership positions, future research could include the barriers women face when applying for these positions (Cañas et al., 2019).
Second, new research could focus more on age. In this study, age was statistically significant in the instrumentality regression model, suggesting that younger faculty perceived opportunities for advancement in an administrative position. Age was set up as a dichotomous variable, testing only two age ranges. A further review of this independent variable may show different results with multiple age ranges.

Third, this study developed three regression equations, one for each factor of Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory. Each regression model used the same faculty demographic data for independent variables. The models for instrumentality and valence were statistically significant but not for expectancy. However, the independent variables for instrumentality and valence explained only a small percentage of faculty’s perception of opportunity and value of advancement in administration. Researchers should investigate whether other factors may be better predictors for the regression models.

Summary

This study examined the relationship between work-life balance and faculty perceptions of advancement in academia. Statistical analyses were performed using the three factors of Expectancy Theory as the dependent variables. The independent variables included age, gender, tenure status, marital status, children in the household under the age of 18, and faculty rank.

The findings indicated that the expectancy model was not statistically significant. However, the models for instrumentality and valence were statistically significant. The practical significance of these models was low, suggesting that other variables may be better predictors of work-life balance. Universities can use these findings to establish policies and best practices relating to training, recruitment, and succession planning. This study also provided opportunity
for future research by focusing more on faculty age and gender, as well as other factors relating to work-life balance and faculty advancement.
References


doi:10.1177/1741143220953601


Osborne, J. W. and Waters, E. (2002). Four assumptions of multiple regression that researchers should always test. Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation, 8(2), 1-5. doi:https://doi.org/10.7272/r222-hv23


Pfaff, T. J. (2019, June 26). Getting the big hires right. Recommendations for hiring the best deans, provosts and presidents (opinion) (insidehighered.com)


EKA-


https://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/


doi:10.1080/03075079.2019.1578736


doi:10.20547/jms.2014.2007204
Appendix A

From: [Redacted]
Sent: Sunday, July 17, 2022 6:29 PM
To: Judi Slaughter Waldrip (jbslghtr) <jbslghtr@memphis.edu>
Subject: Re: [External] Requesting Permission to Use Questionnaire

Judi:

Best wishes on your academic progress.

Yining Chen:

Yining.chen@wku.edu

290-745-2982

Yes, you have my permission to use our expectancy theory “survey”.

Leon

Sent from my iPhone

Re: [External] Requesting Permission to Use Questionnaire
Chen, Yining <yining.chen@wku.edu>
Sat 7/16/2022 5:02 PM
To:

- Judi Slaughter Waldrip (jbslghtr) <jbslghtr@memphis.edu>

Judi,

You should feel free to use the questionnaire. Proper citation is recommended to avoid copyright issues.

My best wishes to your dissertation.

Yining

Yining Chen, Ph.D., CPA, Nixon Professor of Accounting
Department of Accounting, Grise Hall 510
Gordon Ford College of Business, Western Kentucky University
1906 College Heights Blvd. #11061, Bowling Green, KY 42101-1061
Tel: 270-745-2982 Fax: 270-745-3893

From: Judi Slaughter Waldrip (jbslghtr) <jbslghtr@memphis.edu>
Sent: Saturday, July 16, 2022 10:20 AM
To: Chen, Yining <yining.chen@wku.edu>
Subject: Fw: [External] Requesting Permission to Use Questionnaire
Hello Dr. Chen,

Please see the email thread below. Dr. Gupta gave me your email address.

My name is Judi Waldrip, and I am a graduate student working on a doctorate in Higher and Adult Education at the University of Memphis. My dissertation topic is about work-life balance and the perceived value of rewards as faculty transition to administrative positions using Vroom’s expectancy theory as the framework. While researching my topic, I discovered the attached publication, *Factors that motivate business faculty to conduct research: An expectancy theory analysis*, that you co-wrote with Ashok Gupta and Leon Hoshower. The questionnaire at the end of the publication is very appropriate for my research, and I am requesting permission to use it in my dissertation. There may be slight modifications to the questions and required APA citations will be included.

I appreciate your consideration.

Thanks,
Judi

---

**From:** Judi Slaughter Waldrip (jbslghtr) <jbslghtr@memphis.edu>
**Sent:** Saturday, July 16, 2022 10:15 AM
**To:** Gupta, Ashok <gupta@ohio.edu>
**Subject:** Re: [External] Requesting Permission to Use Questionnaire

Dr. Gupta,

Thank you again. I appreciate your follow up.

Judi

---

**From:** Gupta, Ashok <gupta@ohio.edu>
**Sent:** Saturday, July 16, 2022 10:12 AM
**To:** Judi Slaughter Waldrip (jbslghtr) <jbslghtr@memphis.edu>
**Subject:** Re: [External] Requesting Permission to Use Questionnaire

You are welcome. I found Dr Chen’s email at

yining.chen@wku.edu

---

Ashok Gupta
Ohio University
Thank you so much, Dr. Gupta. I appreciate your quick response.

Judi

Hi Judy. Best wishes for your dissertation. We are glad that you find our work helpful.

Please feel free to use the questionnaire and cite our work. I don't have contact info for Dr Chen. You might be able to google her.

Dr Hoshower can be reached at [redacted]

Ashok Gupta
Ohio University
Athens, OH 45701
Phone: 740 707 9008

Use caution with links and attachments.

Hello Dr. Gupta,

My name is Judi Waldrip, and I am a graduate student working on a doctorate in Higher and Adult Education at the University of Memphis. My dissertation topic is about work-life balance and the perceived value of rewards as faculty transition to administrative positions using Vroom's expectancy
theory as the framework. While researching my topic, I discovered the attached publication, *Factors that motivate business faculty to conduct research: An expectancy theory analysis*, that you co-wrote with Yining Chen and Leon Hoshower. The questionnaire at the end of the publication is very appropriate for my research, and I am requesting permission to use it in my dissertation. There may be slight modifications to the questions and required APA citations will be included.

Also, do you know how I can contact Dr. Chen and Dr. Hoshower for their approval?

I appreciate your consideration.

Thanks,

Judi
Appendix B

Faculty Promotions Survey Instrument

Q1 Consent for Research Participation
You are being asked to participate in a research study about faculty perceptions and advancement in academia. Judi Waldrip, Lead Investigator (LI) of the University of Memphis, Department of Leadership is in charge of the study. Her faculty advisor is Dr. R. Eric Platt. There may be other research team members assisting during the study. The members of the research team do not have a financial interest, and/or a conflict of interest related to the research.

The details below highlight key information for you to consider when deciding if you want to participate.

Voluntary Consent: You are being asked to volunteer for a research study because you are a faculty member at a university. It is up to you whether you choose to participate or not. It is also ok to decide to end your participation at any time. There will be no penalty or loss of benefit to which you are otherwise entitled if you choose not to participate or discontinue participation. Participants will not be compensated for taking part in this research.

Purpose: The purpose of this research is to determine if there is a relationship between work-life balance and the perceived value of rewards as faculty seek advancement opportunities in higher education. Information collected for this research will be analyzed and the results will be included in the Lead Investigator’s dissertation.

Duration: It is expected that your participation will last less than 10 minutes.

Procedures and Activities: If you agree, you will be asked to complete a survey instrument which will be divided into multiple sections. The survey instrument will include demographic information and questions relating to your perception of promotional opportunities in academia. You can skip any question that makes you uncomfortable, and you can stop any time. The data from the survey instrument will be shared with the LI’s advisor and methodologist. Statistical analyses will be performed on the data, and it will not be used for future research.

Risk: Since this is a short online survey that can be taken at a location of your choice, there is minimal risk. In addition, no personal data will be collected. There will be no audio or video recordings or photographs.

Benefits: There are no costs associated with participation in this research study. There is no direct benefit to the participant, but the researcher hopes to learn about faculty perceptions when seeking advancement in academia.

Alternatives: Participation is voluntary, and the only alternative is to not participate.

Individuals and organizations that monitor this research may be permitted access to inspect the research records. This monitoring will not include access to your private information. These
individuals and organization include the Institutional Review Board. At the end of the survey, you may download a copy your responses including the consent form if you want to maintain it for your records.

**Statement of Consent:**

I have had the opportunity to consider the information in this document. I have asked any questions needed for me to decide about my participation. I understand that I can ask additional questions through the study. By clicking “Yes, I consent” below, I volunteer to participate in this research. I understand that I am not waiving any legal rights. I have been given a copy of this consent document. I understand that if my ability to consent for myself changes, my legal representative or I may be asked to consent again prior to my continued participation.

- Yes, I consent. (1)
- No, I do not consent. (2)

Skip To: End of Survey If Consent for Research Participation You are being asked to participate in a research study about f... = No, I do not consent.
Q2 Gender
  o Male (1)
  o Female (2)
  o Other (3)

Q3 What is your age?
  o Age (1) _________

Q4 Marital Status
  o Single (1)
  o Married/Partnered (2)

Q5 Race
  o African American (1)
  o American Indian/Alaska Native (2)
  o Asian (3)
  o Hispanic/Latino (4)
  o Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (5)
  o White (6)
  o Other (7)

Q6 How many children under the age of 18 are living in your household?
  o Number of Children (1) _________

Q7 Current Academic Rank
  o Professor (1)
o Associate Professor (2)
o Assistant Professor (3)
o Instructor (4)
o Other (5)

8 Tenure Status

o Tenured (1)
o Tenure Track (2)
o Non-Tenure Track (3)

Q9 How many years have you been in a faculty position?
   o Number of Years (1) _______

Q10 How many faculty members are in your current department?
   o Number in Department (1) _________

Q11 Discipline
   o Arts and Sciences (1)
o Business (2)
o Communications (3)
o Engineering (4)
o Health Sciences (5)
o Law (6)
o Other (7)
Q12 As a faculty member, please evaluate the importance of the following rewards using a scale from 1 to 5, with 5 being very important and 1 being not important at all. (This question measures valence.)


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reward</th>
<th>Not Important At All (1)</th>
<th>Somewhat Not Important (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Somewhat Important (4)</th>
<th>Very Important (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Receiving or having tenure (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Being full professor or receiving faculty promotion (2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Getting better salary raises (3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Getting an administrative assignment (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Getting a chaired professorship (5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Getting a reduced teaching load (6)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Achieving peer recognition (7)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Score</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfying my need to contribute to higher education (8)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfying my need for creativity or curiosity (9)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Having satisfying collaborations with others (10)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfying the need to stay current in my field (11)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Finding a better faculty position at a university (12)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Being promoted to an administrator position at a university (13)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Q13 Based on your experience and expectations of your university's environment, please evaluate the impact of the following activities on advancement using a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being strongly agree and 1 being strongly disagree. (This question measures expectancy.)


The list below was obtained from Buller, J. L. (2015). *The Essential Academic Dean or Provost.* Jossey-Bass.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer for leadership roles (1)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer for accreditation review</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>committees (2)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Learn in detail how my institution works</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stay apprised of ongoing issues in</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>academia (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gain budgetary experience (5)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attend workshops for academic leadership</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
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</table>
Q14 Based on your perception, please evaluate the impact on advancement after achieving any of the items in the previous question (volunteer for leadership roles, volunteer for accreditation review committees, learn in detail how my institution works, stay apprised of ongoing issues in academia, gain budgetary experience, attend workshops for academic leadership) using a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being strongly agree and 1 being strongly disagree. (This question measures instrumentality.)


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I believe I will have the opportunity for advancement to an administrator position at a university. (1)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q15 I am willing to work additional hours to obtain the training and professional development in order to have the opportunity to advance to an administrator position.

- o Zero Hours (1)
- o 1-2 Hours (2)
- o 3-4 Hours (3)
- o 5-6 Hours (4)
- o 7+ Hours (5)
Q16 What is the next level of leadership you may want to undertake?

- Full Professor (1)
- Associate Professor (2)
- Assistant Professor (3)
- President, Provost, Vice President (4)
- Dean (5)
- Associate Dean (6)
- Assistant Dean (7)
- Department Chair (8)
- Other (9)
- Not Applicable (10)
Appendix C

From: do-not-reply@cayuse.com <do-not-reply@cayuse.com>
Sent: Tuesday, December 20, 2022 3:54 PM
To: Judi Slaughter Waldrip (jbslghtr) <jbslghtr@memphis.edu>; Karen Westerman Kitchens (kkitchens) <kkitchens@memphis.edu>; Ronald Eric Platt (replatt) <replatt@memphis.edu>
Subject: PRO-FY2023-190 - Initial: Approval - Exempt

CAUTION: This email originated from outside of the organization. Do not click links or open attachments unless you recognize the sender and trust the content is safe.

Institutional Review Board
Division of Research and Innovation
Office of Research Compliance
University of Memphis
Admin Bldg Memphis, TN 38152-3370

December 20, 2022

PI Name: Judi Waldrip Co-Investigators:
Advisor and/or Co-PI: Karen Kitchens, Ronald Platt
Submission Type: Initial
Title: Work-Life Balance and the Perceived Value of Rewards When Faculty Consider Promotions in Administration
IRB ID: #PRO-FY2023-190
Exempt Approval: December 20, 2022

The University of Memphis Institutional Review Board, FWA00006815, has reviewed your submission in accordance with all applicable statuses and regulations as well as ethical principles.

Approval of this project is given with the following obligations:
1. When the project is finished a completion submission is required
2. Any changes to the approved protocol requires board approval prior to implementation
3. When necessary submit an incident/adverse events for board review
4. Human subjects training is required every 2 years and is to be kept current at citeprogram.org.
For any additional questions or concerns please contact us at irb@memphis.edu or 901.678.2705.
Thank you,
James P. Whelan, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board Chair
The University of Memphis.