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Job involvement of part-time faculty: exploring associations with distributive justice, underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment

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JOB INVOLVEMENT OF PART-TIME FACULTY: EXPLORING ASSOCIATIONS WITH DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE, UNDEREMPLOYMENT, WORK STATUS CONGRUENCE, AND EMPOWERMENT

by

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PH.D. THESIS

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ABSTRACT

For decades, higher education institutions have been increasingly reliant upon part-time faculty. As the role of part-time faculty in colleges and universities has evolved and gained prominence, it is increasingly important to gain a deeper understanding of their perceptions of job involvement considered as potential predictor of turnover and absenteeism.

There are very few studies focusing on part-time faculty. Available research tends to be concerned with inequality in terms of income, benefits, working conditions, and opportunities for career advancement compared to full-time faculty, while perceptions of how distributive justice among part-time faculty members might be associated with their perceived levels of job involvement remain comparatively neglected. This study focused on exploring relationships between job involvement and other job-related variables, including perceived levels of distributive justice; whether or not part-time work status was voluntary or involuntary, or the position was primary or non-primary. Perceived levels of overqualified underemployment and perception of empowerment were also considered.

The study population was drawn from an existing database. The target population of the study was 165 part-time faculty members in the continuing education field at higher education institutions in the United States. OLS regression, ANOVA, and path analysis were utilized to explore the relationships between job involvement and the other job-related variables among part-time faculty in the study.

The analyses revealed that whether or not part-time work was voluntary, and the position was primary or non-primary did not significantly influence levels of job involvement. Furthermore, perceived distributive justice did not affect part-time faculty job involvement significantly. Levels of perceived distributive justice among part-time faculty members only influenced job involvement through empowerment. Empowering

part-time faculty appears to be an essential element in efforts to enhance perceived levels of job involvement among part-time faculty.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES vii

LIST OF FIGURES viii

CHAPTER

I. INTRODUCTION 1

Focus of the Study 3
Research Questions 5
Limitations of the Study 5

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW 7

Theoretical Foundation for the Model of Job Involvement 7
Dependent Variable: Job Involvement 9
Importance of Job Involvement 9
Definitions of Job Involvement 11
Antecedents of Job Involvement 14
Consequences of Job Involvement 16
Job Involvement and Faculty 17
Measures of Job Involvement 17
Intervening Variables 18
Underemployment 18
Work Status Congruence 22
Empowerment 24
Control Variables 26
Distributive Justice 26
Categories of Part-time faculty 29

III. METHODOLOGY 31

Hypothesized Relationships 31
Population and Sample Data 32
Measures Used in This Study 33
Validity, Reliability, and Construction of the Survey Instrument 34
Statistical Methodology 35

IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS 36

Construct Validation of the Instruments 36
Reliability of the Instruments 38
Imputation of Missing Data 38
Demographic Characteristics 41
Descriptive Statistics of Attitudinal Variables 44
Regression Analysis 45
Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) 46
Hypothesis Testing 46
Path Analysis Model 53
Goodness of Fit 57

V. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS 59

Summary of Hypothesis Testing 59
Empowerment and Job Involvement 60
Underemployment and Job Involvement 61
Work Status Congruence and Job Involvement 61
Demographic Variables and Job Involvement 62
Distributive Justice and Job Involvement 62
Implications 63
Framing the Context of Future Inquiry 65

APPENDIX. MEASURES AND DEMOGRAPHICS USED IN THE UPCEA SURVEY 67

REFERENCES 72

LIST OF TABLES

Table

IV-1. Abbreviations of Variables in the Study 36

IV-2. Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation 37

IV-3. Cronbach's Alphas: Comparison of Reliabilities by Factors 38

IV-4. Correlation Coefficients Matrix among distributive justice, underemployment, wsc_schedule, empowerment, emp_mc, emp_s, emp_i, and job involvement 39

IV-5. Missing Data.....40

IV-6. Pattern of Missingness.....42

IV-7. Demographic Variables.....43

IV-8. Descriptive Statistics of Attitudinal Variables 44

IV-9. Regression Analysis (OLS).....45

IV-10. Analysis of Variance 47

IV-11. OLS Regression Equations for Hypothesis 1-3.....53

IV-12. Path Analysis Results 54

IV-13. Summary of Hypotheses Test.....58

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

II-1. Research Model 10

IV-1. Path Analysis Model 54

IV-2. Path Analysis Results 55

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Part-time workers constitute almost 20 percent of the U.S. workforce. The number has increased with the recent recession, but the trend toward higher levels of part-time work is unmistakable. It is not entirely clear what is behind the growth in part-time work. It probably has to do with companies' not having as much need for labor today or, perhaps the desire to avoid paying benefits if they can (Rampell, 2013).

Similarly, the percentage of part-time higher education faculty in the United States has grown remarkably during the past three decades. According to data from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), in 1975, only 30.2 percent of faculty members were employed part time; in 1999, part-time faculty comprised 38.8 percent of all faculty; by 2005, the proportion of part-time faculty reached approximately 48 percent nationally. These faculty members teach more than 40 percent of classes in credit courses (Clery, 2001). This trend is not confined to the United States. Similarly, part-time faculty teaching has increased in other countries. In light of this increase, it is clear that part-time faculty play a critical role on American campuses, affecting students, faculty, staff, administrators, and the overall culture of higher education institutions (Murphy Nutting, 2003).

Part-time faculty often teach the courses that tenured faculty members do not want to teach, such as large lecture courses, while senior faculty teach small classes (Murphy Nutting, 2003). Colleges and universities often attempt to achieve budget increases and flexibility in terms of course offerings by employing more part-time faculty who work with little job security, low wages, few benefits, and lack of opportunity for professional development or advancement opportunities (Jacobs, 1998).

A large majority of the research, however, focuses only on full-time faculty or neglects differences between full-time and part-time faculty. Moreover, studies of part-time faculty focus, primarily, on racial and gender discrimination as well as inequality in

income, benefits, working conditions, and opportunities for career advancement compared to full-time faculty (Jacobs, 1998; Murphy Nutting, 2003).

Part-time workers can be differentiated from full-time workers not only in terms of their income, benefits, working conditions, and career advancement opportunity, but also in terms of job attitude and behaviors such as job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Sinclair et al., 1999; Shockey & Mueller, 1994; Steffy& Jones, 1990; Wotruba, 1990). Employee attitudes have become an important research interest, given their influence on job behavior (Robbins, 1996).

Miller and Terborg (1979) found that part-time employees were less satisfied than full-time employees. Some studies have also found that part-time employees had lower levels of job involvement (Martin & Hafer, 1995; Wetzel et al., 1990).

Among the various job-related attitudes, job involvement (as a predictor of turnover rate (Blau&Boal, 1987; Fletcher, 1998; Lee & Mitchell, 1991; Lee et al., 1992; Mowday et al., 1979; Steele & Ovalle, 1984), and absenteeism (Blau, 1986; Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Scott & McClellan, 1990; Shore et al., 1990)) is considered to be a key factor influencing important individual and organizational outcomes (Lawler, 1986; Shahbaz & Aamir, 2008) in educational systems attempting to secure high quality employees. Higher turnover rates negatively impacts the organization by increasing the costs of human resource management (Harris et al., 2005).

Closer attention to job involvement in higher education is warranted. Understanding part-time faculty job involvement and its relationship with other variables has significant pedagogical implications. Fostering job involvement is an important organizational objective, because many researchers consider it to be a primary determinant of organizational effectiveness (Pfeffer, 1994) and individual motivation (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). It may also influence job performance ,and other relevant outcomes including turnover and absenteeism (Diefendorff et al., 2002; Shahbaz & Aamir, 2008).

Focus of the Study

The purpose of this study is to conduct an initial exploratory investigation of job involvement among part-time continuing education faculty members in the United States, and to develop a conceptual framework that explores the relationships between job involvement and other job-related attitudinal and behavioral variables, including underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment of part-time faculty. Independent or control variables included distributive justice and selected demographics. Part-time faculty, in this study, refers to part-time supplemental teaching personnel contracted through continuing education units.

This study utilized ordinary least squares (OLS) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) to identify which of the variables were adequate for the research model. The study employed path analysis to investigate job involvement's relationship with independent/control variables and intervening variables. Predictive Analytics Software (PASW) Statistics18.0, and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) Statistics 21 were applied in analyses.

The dependent variable in this study was job involvement (conceptualized as a predictor of turnover rate and absenteeism). Job involvement is defined as "psychological identification with a job" (Kanungo, 1982, p. 97). This definition implies that, for job-involved employees, performance on the job is important for self-esteem (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965); they see their job as "an important part of [their] self-concept" (Lawler & Hall, 1970, p. 311); and they are concerned about their work (Shahbaz & Aamir, 2008).

Underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment are the intervening variables in this study. Underemployment refers to a situation in which people are employed insufficiently in terms of salaries, hours, or level of education and experience (Maynard & Feldman, 2011). It may occur when a part-time faculty member is overqualified. According to Maynard and Feldman, the level of underemployment increases when the job market is weak. Given the current academic job market, it can be

inferred that many part-time faculty are underemployed, and that they may show various levels of job involvement.

This study hypothesized that lower levels of underemployment and as well as higher levels of work status congruence and empowerment will be associated with higher levels of job involvement.

This study examined demographics (Gender, Age, Race, Education, Type of Institution, Field, Primary/ Non-primary position, Voluntary/Involuntary, Hours of work), and distributive justice, categories of part-time faculty as independent and control variables.

Part-time employees encounter low wages and benefits, as well as weak job security. As previously stated, most studies (Jacobs, 1998; Maureen et al., 2003) about part-time faculty focus mainly on inequality in terms of their income, benefits, working conditions, and career advancement opportunities compared to full-time faculty. These inequalities may be broadly considered through the distributive justice variable. The study inquires into the question of distributive justice in terms of the extent of association with the intervening and dependent variables in the research model.

Part-time faculty members are not a homogeneous group. Individuals may be drawn to different types of part-time work arrangements which may, in turn, have an influence on their job involvement through the intervening variables. Part-time faculty were categorized in three groups: 1) Need for specialists (Visiting, clinical, and in-residence); 2) Need for temporary instructional assistance; and 3) Both.

Demographics of part time faculty were also tested to determine if they influenced the relationship between intervening variables and job involvement. Demographics, including gender, age, race, education, type of institution, field, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, and hours of work, were considered as control variables.

Employees' attitudes, like job involvement, may be influenced by the type of organization in which they work, since all organizations have unique norms and value in

addition to distinct authority and power structures (Schein, 1980). This study tested the influence of part-time faculty member's institutional type on the intervening variables and dependent variables in the research model.

Research Questions

Within this conceptual framework, the following research questions will guide the study in testing for significant relationships in the research model.

1. Which variables will be included in the path model as control or independent variables among demographic variables (gender, age, race, type of institution, degree, field, primary/non-primary position, voluntary-involuntary, hours of work, years of work, and years of full-time position), type of part-time employment, and distributive justice?
2. Which independent/control variables and intervening variables (underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment) influence levels of job involvement among part-time faculty?

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations of this study. The first limitation is related the generalizability of the results. The participants are part-time faculty involved in continuing education at colleges and universities in the United States. Results of this study may not be extended to other academic fields in higher education institutions. Furthermore, the findings may not apply to faculty members in other countries.

The second limitation is related to the response rate of the survey. The response rate of the survey was low; not atypical for online surveys (Baldauf et al., 1999; Tomaskovic-Devey et al, 1994). The characteristics of the targeted sample might not be fully reflected in the results.

Additionally, participation in this study was voluntary. Employees who were less involved in their job may have been less likely to participate in the study; especially

where the level of involvement may have made them feel uncomfortable in terms of completing a survey; a potential source of sample bias (Moye, 2003).

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Aside from the introduction, this chapter is divided into four major sections. The first section of this chapter includes the theoretical foundation for the research model of this study. The second section provides a review of traditional approaches to the conceptualization of job involvement, the dependent variable of this study, and focuses on its antecedents and consequences. In the third section, intervening variables are reviewed. This section includes theories of underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment. The last section explores the interrelationships and linkages between distributive justice and job involvement.

Theoretical Foundation for the Model of Job Involvement

This study focused on part-time faculty job involvement for several important reasons. Over the past three decades, considerable pressure has been placed on institutions to use part-time faculty members more effectively (Biles & Tuckman, 1986), and to improve the status of part-time faculty (Gappa & Leslie, 1993) to make them more effective and responsive to students' needs. These efforts primarily focused on eliminating or reducing the discrimination and inequality between full-time and part-time faculty (Maureen et al., 2003; Jacobs, 1998). Little effort has been made, however, to understand how part-time instructional employees' work motivation and performance in higher education could be strengthened through attitudinal means; including strengthening their job involvement by enhancing empowerment and work status congruence.

This dissertation explored the role of attitudinal and behavioral variables including underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment on part-time faculty members' job involvement, since job involvement is a powerful driving force of employees' work motivation and goal directed behaviors (Diefendorff et al., 2002;

Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Kahn, 1990; Lawler & Hall, 1970). According to Dewhirst (1973), employees' job involvement is important to an organization, since it improves organizational effectiveness and enhances desirable organizational phenomena. Job involvement is also considered an important factor not only from an organizational perspective, but also in terms of individual employees' personal growth and satisfaction in the workplace (Brown, 1996). Explorations of job involvement, therefore, constitute a necessary initial and significant step in developing appropriate strategies and informed policies for part-time faculty; especially where changes of employees' attitudes toward their jobs or organizations is recognized as a fundamental step toward inducing desirable changes in behavior.

Literature in psychology, sociology, business management, business administration and education was reviewed in an effort to better delineate, to the extent possible, the interrelationships and linkages among the dependent variable, intervening variables, and independent/control variables. Based on the literature review, a research model was suggested for this study. As shown in Figure II-1, job involvement of part-time faculty is the dependent variable in this research model.

There are three intervening variables: underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment. According to previous studies, these three variables hold potential for influencing job involvement. Studies were reviewed in the next part of this chapter.

Demographics (gender, age, race, education, etc.) and non-attitudinal variables such as type of job, and distributive justice were included as control variable in the suggested model. Effects of demographic variables on job involvement have been studied with inconsistent finding. In some research (Hollon & Gemmill, 1976; Morrow et al., 1988; Newman, 1975; Saal, 1978; Sekaran, 1982; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981), male employees showed higher levels of job involvement than females. In other inquiries (Blau & Boat, 1989; Edwards & Waters, 1980; Newton & Keenan, 1983; Rabinowitz &

Hall, 1981; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981; Stevens et al., 1978), gender was not related to job involvement.

Some research has found that age is positively related to job involvement (Aldag & Brief, 1975a, 1975b; Baba & Jamal, 1976; Blumberg, 1980; Newman, 1975; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981). In Lefkowitz's study (1974), however, age was negatively related to job involvement. Age was not related to job involvement in Batlis's (1979), Edwards & Waters' (1980), Jans' (1989), and Lodahl and Kejner's(1965) studies.

The influence of education on job involvement is also contended. Education has been shown to be positively related to job involvement (Clenland et al., 1976; Newman, 1975; Stevens et al, 1978), negatively related to job involvement (Aldag & Brief, 1975a, 1975b; Baba & Jameal, 1976; Saal, 1978; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981), and not at all related to job involvement (Edwards & Waters, 1980; Hammer et al., 1981; Lee & Mowday, 1987; McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977; Siegel & Ruh, 1973; Steers, 1975).

Considering the mixed findings and content of prior research, this study elected to subject certain demographic variables, categories of part-time faculty and distributive justice to testing, and include them in the research model as control or independent variables.

Dependent Variable: Job Involvement

Based on the literature review, this section describes the importance of job involvement, various conceptualizations of job involvement, antecedents and consequences of job involvement, and the job involvement of faculty.

Importance of Job Involvement

Job involvement is an important work-related attitudinal variable that may influence organizational effectiveness and productivity (Brown, 1996). Employees with high levels of job involvement tend to significantly benefit the organization (Diefendorff et al., 2002), and are likely to be satisfied with their jobs as well as highly committed to their careers and their organizations (Brown 1996; Carson et al., 1995; Cohen, 1995).

Moreover, they rarely intend to leave the workplaces (Brown, 1996), and believe that their goals and the organizations' goals are compatible (Chay & Aryee, 1999). It is not unexpected, consequently, that employee job involvement has become a target of inquiry in several related research fields. Increasing employee job involvement can enhance work engagement, and perceptions of meaningfulness of the work (Brown, 1996; Lawler, 1992; Pfeffer, 1994).

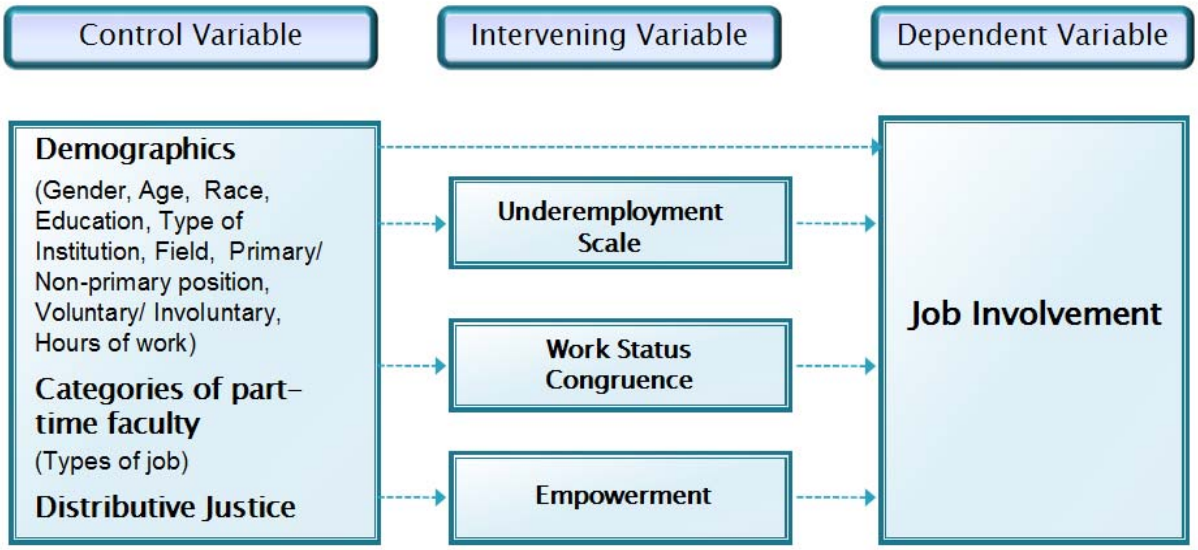

Figure II-1. Research Model

Theoretically, job involvement has been viewed as one of the most important job attitudes in the workforce because job related attitudes, such as job involvement, have been associated with important work behaviors including absenteeism, turnover, and work performance. Previous research has shown that job involvement may influence job performance, absenteeism, turnover, success, and organizational commitment (Baba, 1989; Cheloha & Farr, 1980; Jaskolka & Beyer, 1985; Kanungo, 1982b; Stevens et al., 1978; Vlau & Boal, 1987).

Studying job involvement is also very practical, since higher levels of job involvement can significantly impact managerial and operational costs. Mirvis and Lawler (1977) found, for example, that higher levels of job involvement could substantially influence profits by reducing absenteeism and turnover.

Definitions of Job Involvement

The definition of job involvement has been conceptualized in many ways, and modified over the past decades due to the complexity of the construct (Robbins, 1996). Researchers debate whether job involvement is a one-dimensional or multi-dimensional concept, as well. Allport (1943) defined it in terms of the degree to which employees participated in their job. The concept is also related, it is asserted, to the degree to which the job met the individual's needs for, for example, prestige and autonomy.

Dubin (1956) later defined the concept of job involvement as the degree to which the individual's job was a "central life interest." According to Dubin, job involvement refers to the extent to which the totality of one's job situation is considered an important aspect of personal satisfaction (Dubin, 1956).

Gurin and colleagues' (1960) work has provided a third conceptualization of job involvement. They suggested that job involvement refers to the extent to which a person seeks self-expression and actualization via his or her employment situation.

Vroom (1962) defined job involvement as the degree to which the individual perceives performance as consistent with his/her existing self-concept. According to Vroom (1962), the self-esteem of someone showing high levels of job involvement would increase with good performance and decrease with poor performance. Later, Vroom (1964) developed another definition of job involvement. The centrality of job performance to the individual was the key difference from his earlier approach. He conceptualized job involvement as the extent to which individuals' perceptions of their job performance were consistent with their existing concepts of themselves.

French and Kahn's (1962) definition is similar to those of Gurin et al. (1960) and Vroom (1962) in that it views centrality of job performance as a key determinant in job involvement.

Bass (1960) viewed job involvement as the employee's ego involvement in the job. His definition in approach is similar to that of Allport (1943). In Bass' conceptualization, employees' job involvement would increase with recognition, achievement, self-determination, and feeling in terms of the extent to which they perceived that they were are making important contributions to the job.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) defined job involvement as "the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image" (pp. 24-25). Their conceptualization is similar to Dubin's (1956) in that job involvement is related to how work performance affects an individual's total sense of self. In this view, the job is a central part of life, and is tied to self-image for job-involved employees. Framed as such, job involvement refers to "the internalization of values about the goodness of work or the worth of a person"(Lodahl & Kejner, 1965, p. 24). They also found job involvement to be a multi-dimensional concept.

Lowler and Hall's (1970) conceptualization of job involvement is more akin to Dubin's (1956) approach than Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) definition. They viewed job involvement as the degree to which an individual perceives the total work situation to be an important part of life, and a central focus linked to the opportunity to meet important needs. In this view, job involvement is implied to be a cognitive state of the individual where he or she is involved in the job (Lawler& Hall, 1970).

Saleh and Hosek (1976) also viewed job involvement as a multi-dimensional construct. They found that job involvement has four dimensions, and viewed a person as involved: 1) when work to him is a central life interest; 2) when he actively participates in his job; 3) when he perceives performance as central to his self-esteem; 4) when he perceives performance as consistent with his self-concept (p. 215).

Blau (1985) concluded that job involvement is one-dimensional, whereas Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Saleh and Hosek (1976) viewed job involvement as multi-dimensional. He examined 25 job involvement items representing different conceptualizations of job involvement. He found that only the psychological identification conceptualization was empirically independent among four common job involvement factors: decision influence, skill utilization, performance self-esteem, and psychological identification. He also operationalized job involvement as "the degree to which the job is central to the person and his/her psychological identity"(p. 33).

Blau and Boal's (1987) working definition of job involvement focuses on the degree to which an individual identifies psychologically with the job performed and considers performance as important to his or her self-worth. Robbins' (1996) approach is similar to Blau and Boal's (1987). In their view, a job-involved person considers work as an important part of his or her psychological life.

Paullay and colleagues (1994) conceptualized job involvement as the degree to which individuals are cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with their present job (p 224). They also viewed job involvement as a multidimensional construct that consists of two components: 1) involvement in specific tasks that make up employees' jobs, and 2) perceiving the tasks in their present job environment as engaging (Paullay et al., 1994). Both of these components are required for individuals to have high levels of job involvement.

Among these various conceptualizations, Kanungo's (1982) definition was adopted for this study. As previously stated, Kanungo viewed job involvement as a generalized cognitive state of psychological identification with the individual's cognition about his or her identification with work (1979, p. 131) and strong support of the self-image definition of job involvement (1979; 1981; 1982a; 1982b). There are three advantages related to adopting the self-image definition: 1) it is a better predictor than self-esteem conceptualization (Newton & Keenan, 1983); 2) it is predicted best by the individual and

situational variables (Saal, 1981); and 3) it can be distinguished from other work-related behaviors (Blau, 1985; Jans, 1982, 1985).

Antecedents of Job Involvement

Most empirical research related to job involvement has focused on exploring the causes of job involvement. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) concluded that job involvement was attributed to three categories of factors: personal characteristics, situational characteristics, and work outcomes. Several researchers (Lance, 1991; Smith & Brannick, 1990; and Hackman & Oldman, 1980) studied job characteristics as antecedents of job involvement.

Demographic characteristics examined in this study include gender, age education etc. The relationships between demographic variables and job involvement have generally been inconsistent and, at times, conflicting in past research. Demographic variables, therefore, will be controlled.

The research on the relationship between gender and job involvement has been mixed. Hollon and Gemmill (1976), Morrow, McElroy, & Blum (1988), and Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) found that gender differences were related to job involvement. They hypothesized that, given gender roles, men would be more job-involved than women. Seigel (1969) discussed the view that, traditionally, women would be less likely to value work than men. Women would thus be more concerned with satisfaction from their job rather than with earning a living (Seigel, 1969). Other researchers (Blau& Boat, 1987; Edwards & Waters, 1980; Newton & Keenan, 1983; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1981; Saal, 1978; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981; Stevens et al., 1978) did not find a significant relationship between gender and job involvement.

The findings related to research on the relationship between age and job involvement are inconsistent. Some researchers (Aldag & Brief, 1975a, 1975b; Baba & Jamal, 1976; Blumberg, 1980; Lorence, 1987; Morrow & McElroy, 1988; Newman, 1975; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981) found a strong relationship between age and job involvement.

According to Kalleberg and Loscocco (1983), age differences in work involvement can be explained in terms of one or more of three factors: 1) cohort effects, 2) job specific factors, and/or 3) adult development.

Batlis (1979), Edwards & Waters (1980), Jans (1989), Knoop (1986), and Lodahl and Kejner (1965), however, found no evidence of a relationship between job involvement and age. Knoop (1986), in his study of teachers, concluded that teachers have sufficient autonomy and continuous challenges, including new curriculum development, that tends to keep them more involved at any age.

The effect of education on job involvement is also controversial. Aldag and Brief (1975a, 1975b), Baba and Jameal (1976); Saal (1978), Sekaran and Mowday (1981) found that job involvement was negatively related to educational level. Education, however, has been positively related to job involvement in other studies (Clenland, Bass, McHugh, & Montano, 1976; Newman, 1975; Stevens et al, 1978). Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) explained that marginal relationships between job involvement and education may be associated with restrictions in the range of education level of any given sample.

Morrow and McElroy (1987) and Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) concluded that the length of one's service or organizational tenure influences job involvement. Hall and Mansfield (1975), however, found no evidence of a relationship between tenure and job involvement in their study of scientists and engineers. Additionally, Wagner (1987) proposed a curved relationship between job involvement and organizational tenure.

Participation in decision making is reported to have increased job involvement in most studies (Beehr et al., 1976; Gardell, 1977; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Jans, 1985; Ruh et al., 1973; Ruh et al., 1975; Saleh & Hosek, 1976; Sekaran, 1989; Siegel & Ruh, 1973; Steers, 1975; White, 1978; White & Ruh, 1973). It is asserted that employees who directly participated in decision making were more involved in their jobs than their counterparts.

Consequences of Job Involvement

Consequences of job involvement are significant in terms of their influence on work-related behaviors that impact organizational effectiveness and performance. Job involvement has been positively associated with desirable organizational behaviors, such as organizational commitment (Brown, 1996; Stevens et al., 1978), work effort (Brown & Leigh, 1996;), and job performance (Kanungo, 1982 b). Organizational commitment has been found to be a consequence of job involvement (Stevens et al., 1978). According to these authors, job-involved individuals tend to make a commitment to their organizations. Brown (1996) discovered that there are inter-correlated relationships between organizational commitment and job involvement. Brown and Leigh (1996) examined the relationship between job involvement and the work effort of employees. They found that involvement and effort were positively related. Employees who have lower levels of job involvement have displayed efforts at an adequate level (Price, 1997). Job involvement has been found to increase the level of work effort (Hall & Foster, 1977; Hall et al., 1978; Lawler & Hall, 1970; Wiener & Vardi, 1980). It has been shown to be a strong predictor of work hours (Mantler & Murphy, 2005), and related to job performance as well (Batlis, 1978; Breaugh, 1981; Edwards & Waters, 1981; Hall et al., 1978; Hall & Foster, 1977; Hall & Lawler, 1970; Shore et al., 1990; Vroom, 1962; Wiener & Vardi, 1980; Wood, 1980).

Job involvement has been negatively associated with undesirable organizational behaviors, such as absenteeism (Baba, 1989; Blau, 1986; Blumberg, 1980; Hammer et al., 1981; Saal, 1978, 1981; Scott & McClellan, 1990; Shore et al., 1990; Wood, 1980), intention to leave (Beehr & Gupta, 1978; Parasuraman & Nachman, 1987; Wiener &Vardi 1980), and turnover (Blau & Boal, 1987; Cammann et al., 1983; Farris, 1971; Orpen, 1979; Siegel & Ruh, 1973). Individuals with high levels of job involvement have also been observed as less likely to demonstrate forms of withdrawal behavior.

Job Involvement and Faculty

Faculty job involvement is essential to maintaining the quality of education provided by a college (Hornish & Creamer, 1985). Faculty members tend to have high job involvement, since work is a core aspect of their personal identities (Kanugo, 1982). According to Kanungo (1982), faculty members tend to be drawn to and preoccupied with their work; and they often think about work-related issues during non-work hours.

Mantler and Murphy (2005) studied faculty members' job involvement. They randomly selected 1,000 faculty members from ten Canadian universities. The mean level of job involvement was 3.02 (on a scale of 1-5), and the standard deviation of job involvement was .79. There were no significant differences in levels of job involvement by gender or rank (Mantler & Murphy, 2005).

Measures of Job Involvement

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) developed a 20-item measure of job involvement, and it is one of the most frequently used in research on job involvement (Cook et al., 1981). They also developed a 6-item short-form version of their job involvement scale. The short version of the scale is often used in research. Through their study of nurses and engineers, the six items were selected which had the highest loading on a principal component analysis. Lawler and Hall (1970) provided additional support for the measure, suggesting that the specified six items represented the psychological identification dimension of job involvement.

Even though the Job Involvement Scale is frequently utilized, it is apparent that items on Lodahl and Kejner's scale (1965) were differentiated. The items represent both job involvement and intrinsic motivation. The scale also contains items that represent both a cognitive and a positive emotional state (Cook et al, 1981; Kanungo, 1982). Several items on Lodahl and Kejner's scale seem to measure the central life interest type of involvement (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977).

Saleh and Hosek (1976) developed a job involvement scale, using studies of insurance sales people and college students. They combined 65 items used in research were included in factor analyses. They identified three dimensions of job involvement: psychological identification, performance self-esteem, and career involvement. The Saleh and Hosek's scale contains items that represent three different concepts: 1) casual conditions of job involvement, 2) effects of job involvement, and 3) job involvement itself.

Kanungo's (1982b) job involvement scale was developed to avoid the blending of conceptual meanings in the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and the Saleh and Hosek (1976) scales, as well as to avoid ambiguities and measurement inadequacies; even though many of Kanungo's items are based upon the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) job involvement scale. Kanungo's job involvement measure may be viewed as more of a pure job involvement scale than the other measures (Blau, 1985), and was also necessarily distinguished from organizational commitment and career commitment (Morrow, 1993). Kanungo's job involvement scale, therefore, is the measure employed in this study.

Intervening Variables

Underemployment

Underemployment occurs when a worker is employed inadequately, underutilized, underpaid, overeducated, overskilled, and overqualified. In other words, underemployed workers are employed in a job that is inferior by some standard (Harvey, 2011).

Underemployment is a multidimensional construct. Feldman (1996) identified five dimensions of underemployment: 1) overeducation or underutilization of education; 2) job field underemployment; 3) skill or experience underutilization; 4) hours underemployment, or involuntary part-time work; and 5) pay or hierarchical underemployment. Recent research appended additional dimensions on the underemployment variables, indicating that underemployment encompasses both

objective and subjective evaluations (Feldman et al., 2002; Maynard, Joseph, et al., 2006; Mckee-Ryan et al., 2009).

Overeducation, or underutilization of education occurs when employees possess more education than the job requires (Maynard, Joseph, et. al., 2006). Job field underemployment reflects a person involuntarily being employed in a job outside of his or her area of formal training or education (Burke, 1997). Skill (or experience) underutilization occurs when an individual possesses skills that are not required or utilized in the job (Feldman et al., 2002). Hours underemployment, or involuntary part-time work, represents workers who are involuntarily employed less than full-time: part-time, temporary, or intermittently (Creed & Moore, 2006; Wilkins, 2007). It is important to note that the number of hours is relative, but 'involuntarily' being employed in a part-time position is what distinguishes this type of underemployment. Pay (or hierarchical) underemployment represents workers who earn twenty percent or less than one's occupational cohort (Feldman, 1996). Finally, subjective underemployment encompasses both perceived overqualification and relative deprivation. Perceived overqualification occurs when workers consider themselves overqualified and/or having more education or skills than their jobs require (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Maynard, Joseph, et al., 2006). Relative deprivation means that an employee perceives that his/her job is lower by some standard and that the job should be better than it is (Feldman et al., 2002; Feldman &Turnley, 2004; Mckee-Ryan et al., 2009).

Past studies usually do not include all of the dimensions, and instead choose one or some of these dimensions when examining underemployment measures (Harvey, 2011).

Even though the relationships between demographic variables and underemployment are more complex than predicted by Feldman (1996), research (Clogg, 1979; Clogg & Sullivan, 1983; Lichter, 1988; Slack & Jensen, 2002) consistently indicates that demographic characteristics, including gender, race, age, and education are antecedent of underemployment. Concerning gender, more women are underemployed

than men as a consequence of career disruptions, reentry into the work force after breaks, the tendency to be disproportionately laid off, and/or the tendency to settle for lower salaries and positions (Mau & Kopischke, 2001; Jefferson & Preston, 2010; Jensen & Slack, 2003).

Past studies demonstrate that underemployment is more common among racial minorities compared to white employees (De Jong & Madamba, 2001; Jensen & Slack, 2003; Madamba & De Jong, 1997; Slack & Jensen, 2002). De Jong and Madamba (2001) explained that discrimination and employer bias may explain the increased likelihood of underemployment among racial minorities.

Age is also an antecedent of underemployment. Tam (2010) found that underemployment has a U-shaped pattern along age categories. He explained that employees whose age range is between 18 and 24 are underemployed more than other age categories, and that older workers also face underemployment at disproportionate levels. Harvey (2011) asserts that further research needs to investigate the U-shaped pattern of underemployment because younger and older workers are most likely to experience underemployment.

Findings regarding the relationship between underemployment and education are mixed. Some researchers (Holtom et al., 2002; Mason, 1996; Weststar, 2009) have found that education level was positively related to underemployment. Weststar (2009) demonstrated that highly educated employees are more likely to experience higher levels of underemployment, because they are not likely to be employed in jobs that are commensurate with their education. On the other hand, Johnson and Johnson (2000a, 2000b) found no significant relationship between the two variables.

A number of study results reveal that underemployment is negatively related to a spectrum of job attitudes including job involvement. Negative associations between underemployment and job attitudes may be explained via four major theoretical perspectives:1) human capital theory, 2) person-environment or person-job fit, 3) relative

deprivation theory, and 4) coping and control theory model of reemployment (Harvey, 2011).

According to human capital theory (Becker, 1993), effective labor utilization and labor market efficiency occur when the human capital of employees matches the jobs which they hold. Individuals tend to invest in education and training to attain human capital; organizations employ workers based on their human capital (Lepak & Snell, 1999). Therefore, underemployment is associated with inefficiency in outcomes for individual employees, organizations, and the broader labor market, because of mismatch between the worker's human capital and the job requirements.

Person-job fit represents the association between employees' knowledge, skills, abilities, other qualifications and the demands of the job (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). A greater degree of fit between employees and their jobs is linked to more positive outcomes (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). This theory suggests that underemployment is associated with various negative job outcomes, because of discrepancies between employees' abilities and their job requirements.

Relative deprivation theory is related to the subjective beliefs of underemployed workers (Feldman et al., 1997; Feldman et al., 2002; McKee-Ryan et al., 2009). Subjective underemployment occurs when employees believe that they deserve better jobs than their current jobs (Feldman et al., 2002; McKee-Ryan et al., 2009). Relative deprivation theory explains that employees determine whether they are underemployed using past, present, and future situations as points of comparison (Feldman et al., 2002).

The coping and control theory models (Latack et al., 1995**)** of reemployment attach great important to equilibrium in the job search process. According to McKee-Ryan and his colleagues (2009), the equilibrium reflects a fit or reduces a discrepancy. Researchers (Latack et al., 1995; Leana & Feldman, 1995; Wanberg, 1995; Waters, 2007) emphasize that reemployment brings equilibrium only when worker are satisfied with their jobs, and are not underemployed. (Kinicki et al., 2000; Leana & Feldman, 1995).

To summarize, the concept of underemployment encompasses multiple dimensions, including employees 1) working in a field not related to his or her training and education, 2) being over-qualified for his or her current job, 3) earning less money than peers with similar education and experience, and 4) possessing more education than the job requires. Dimensions one and four seldom occur in higher education because faculty positions usually require doctoral degrees in the same or a similar field. Most faculty, both part- and full-time, typically possess the degree that the job requires, and teach in the area related to their formal education (Maynard & Joseph, 2008). Therefore, underemployment based on those dimensions is unlikely. From this perspective, Feldman (1996) insisted that true underemployment exists only when employment characteristics (such as salaries) are inconsistent with the faculty members' desires. However, dimension three can be subsumed under the concept of distributive justice, a control variable in the current research model. Underemployment, as examined in this study, only refers to the over-qualification of part-time faculty.

Work Status Congruence

Holtom and his colleagues (2002) defined work status congruence as the degree to which the job matches a worker's preference for a full-time or part-time schedule, shift, and number of hours. They found that when employee's actual work schedules do not fit with their preferences, cost increases. Conversely, matching employees' preferences to their actual work schedules provides benefits to the organization.

Regarding discrepancy theory (Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1969), Holtom and his colleagues (2002) contended that employees having higher levels of work status congruence demonstrated positive work attitudes and productive behaviors. They found that employees with higher levels of work status congruence were more satisfied with, committed to, and involved in the job. Other studies have found similar results regarding relationships between work scheduling and employees' work attitudes (Harvey, 2011; McGinnis & Morrow, 1990). Employees working the number of hours that they prefer

tend to be more satisfied and/or committed than other employees (Harvey, 2011; McGinnis & Morrow, 1990)

The work status congruence of part-time faculty is *not congruent* with their desired work status when full-time positions are desired. This incongruence may diminish job involvement of part-time faculty. The incongruence may occur in higher education, since many part-time faculty want full-time positions. However, this type of incongruence can be included in the voluntary/involuntary variable in the suggested model. Thus, work status congruence used in this study does not contain the concept.

Person-job fit theory (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) provides additional explanation concerning work status incongruence. One dimension of person-job fit revolves around demands-abilities fit. Person-job fit occurs when an individual's abilities (knowledge and skills) meet the requirements of the job. The other dimension is needs-supplies fit. Needs-supplies fit is the match between the preferences of an employee and the job performed (Carless, 2005). Incongruity of either dimension induces psychological stress and might prevent effective job performance. Regarding faculty, few experience incongruence in the demands-abilities fit dimension (Maynard & Joseph, 2008). However, a mismatch occurs in the needs-supplies fit dimension when a part-time faculty member works part-time involuntarily. Studies indicate that levels of person-job fit are positively correlated with job attitudes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement (Carless, 2005; Hambleton et al., 2000); and negatively correlated with intent to retire (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005).

Holtom and his colleagues (2002) developed measures of work status congruence, the degree to which jobs fit employee preferences for work schedule, shift, and number of hours. Among work schedule, shift, number of hours, the number of hours was included as a control variable in the current model. Preference for work schedule was included as intervening variable in the model.

Empowerment

Empowerment has been defined as "a subjective state of mind where an employee perceives that he or she is exercising efficacious control over meaningful work" (Potterfield, 1999, p. 51), sharing power (Hollander & Offermann, 1990), the process of increasing individual perceptions of control (Kanter, 1983), and psychological aspects, which consist of a set of conditions necessary for intrinsic motivation (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Dee and colleagues (2003) suggested that empowerment encompasses two perspectives. One of them is a structural perspective, which refers to sharing power among leaders and subordinates (Mainiero, 1986). The other is a psychological perspective that focuses on workers' intrinsic motivation (Spreitzer, 1995). This study adopted Spreitzer's psychological perspective.

From the psychological perspective, delegating authority to subordinates does not directly increase levels of empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Dee et al., 2003) while the structural perspective assumes that workers can be empowered if a leader shares power with them (Dee et al., 2003; Mainiero, 1986).

From the psychological perspective, enhancing levels of intrinsic motivation of workers by promoting their self-efficacy is more important than delegating authority (McClelland, 1975). Conger and Kanungo (1988), consistent with the psychological perspective, contend that sharing power or delegating authority is not a sufficient, but rather a necessary condition of empowerment.

Spreitzer (1995) suggested that empowerment consists of four dimensions that reflect employee cognition: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Meaning refers to a fit between the value of one's work and the individual's values. Furthermore, meaning is related to the individuals' perception of the work's value. Competence refers to an individuals' sense of self-efficacy. Self-determination is defined

as an individuals' belief that he or she can exercise discretion (choice) at work. Impact refers to the degree to which workers have the ability to influence work outcomes.

When individuals feel that they do not have choice in initiating and regulating action and cannot influence work outcomes, they become lethargic (Ashforth, 1989), and might not want to be involved in the job. Hamed (2010) and Holden (2001) found that team members who experienced an empowering work environment reported higher levels of job involvement. Thus, the empowerment of individuals appears to be important in terms of their job involvement. Empowering work environments may increase levels of job involvement of employees by enabling engagement in consequential action (Hamed, 2010; Holden, 2001).

Empowerment plays an important role in predicting employee levels of job involvement (Hamed, 2010; Holden, 2001). Research has also shown that empowerment is influenced by contextual factors, such as organizational culture (Sparrowe, 1994) and top level support (Arad & Drasgow, 1994). Empowerment has also been associated with organizational effectiveness in a general sense (Kanter, 1989).

Since empowerment encompasses how managers lead, how subordinates react, how colleagues interact, and how work is structured (Spreitzer, 1996), it has important implications for all members of the organization. Sharing authority, relinquishing position-based power, and promoting open communication may be necessary requisites for teamwork, for example, to have sustainable impact on empowerment (Dee et al., 2006). Mohammad and colleges (2012), in a study of faculty at a university in Iran, also found that an increase in empowerment was associated with higher levels of job involvement. Given the available evidence, it was hypothesized that the relationship between empowerment and job involvement would be positive.

Control Variables

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice and procedural justice are sub-domains of organizational justice (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2009; Tyler & Caine, 1981). Organizational justice describes the role of fairness (Greenberg, 1995) and perceptions of fairness (Williams, 2006) within organizations. Studies on organizational justice have demonstrated that employees constantly expect organizational decisions to be fair regarding salaries, promotions, and increases in wages (Adams, 1963; Greenberg, 1990, 1995; Moorman, 1991). Perceptions of fairness are subjective and can induce positive or negative emotions and reactions (Royal, 2009). When employees believe that they are treated unfairly in procedural decisions or in terms of outcome distribution, they tend to exhibit negative reactions to the organization, including low levels of commitment (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2009). Organizational justice has long been recognized as a basic requirement for the organizational commitment of employees, and for the effective functioning of the organization (Greenberg, 1990; Moore, 1978; Okun, 1975).

Organizational justice is related to individuals' perceptions regarding whether they have been treated fairly in terms of outcome distribution and organizational procedures used (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2009). Distributive justice refers to the fairness of outcomes affecting an employee. Distributive justice is related to equity theory (Adams, 1965), relative deprivation theory (Crosby, 1984), and referent cognition theory (Folger, 1986). These theories suggest that, when receiving organizational outcomes, employees rely upon principles such as equity or equality. Equity suggests that employees attempt to determine whether outcomes were allocated based on inputs, such as effort. Equality theory suggests that employees focus on determining whether outcomes were allocated equally to all, regardless of inputs, to establish the justness or unjustness of the outcome (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2009).

Research has shown consistently that procedural justice and distributive justice have different predictive roles that may be based on different facets of exchange theory: economic exchange and social exchange (Moorman, 1991; Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2009). Distributive justice focuses on rewards distribution, whereas procedural justice focuses on social transactions and involves perceptions about the way employees are treated during the allocation of organizational rewards (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2009). Based on the study results presented above, as well as on a number of other empirical studies (Greenberg, 1990; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2009), it is hypothesized that there will be a relationship between organizational justice and job involvement.

There are three main distributive justice theories: 1) relative deprivation theory, 2) social exchange theory, and 3)Adam's equity theory. Relative deprivation theory (Merton & Rossi, 1957; Stouffer et al., 1949) asserts that humans make judgments about their socio-economic situation by comparing their condition with the people around them. Relative deprivation theory has had a strong influence on the conceptual development of distributive justice in the psychology literature. Social comparison plays an important role in individuals' assessments of socio-economic outcomes (Crosby, 1976, Martin, 1981). Based on relative deprivation theory, part-time faculty members, even those who are receiving considerable rewards, could feel dissatisfied; whereas they could feel reasonably satisfied in less favorable socio-economic conditions.

Social exchange theorists (Homans, 1958, 1961) asserted that, when individuals participate in a social exchange, they forge expectations about future exchanges (Homans, 1961). Social exchange theory developed ideas about relative deprivation theory's influence on distributive justice. Based on social exchange theory, the expectation is the norm of fairness. If the expectation is fulfilled, individuals believe the relation to be fair. If it is not satisfied, they consider it to be unfair. The expectations in an exchange relationship are affected by individuals' past experiences.

Equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) further developed the concept of distributive justice on the basis of social exchange theory (Homans, 1958, 1961). In equity theory, distributive justice is conceptualized in terms of a perceived ratio of outcomes to inputs (Adams, 1965). Inputs in equity theory include education, former experience or training, skills, etc. (Adams,1965).Outcomes could be both formal and informal and, include both economic and social benefits such as pay, seniority benefits, and job status (Adams, 1965). According to equity theory (Adams, 1965), individuals make equity judgments by comparing their work outcomes to their work inputs, or by comparing their outcomes-inputs ratio to that of coworkers. When individuals believe that their outcomes-inputs ratios are lower than the ratios of their coworker(s), they consider it unfair and experience inequity distress.

Distributive justice refers to fairness in the allocation of organizational outcomes and has been an important human resource management topic in organizational literature. It has also attracted social scientists' attention for many years. Perceived distributive justice is intimately related with employee work attitudes and behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). When employees perceive that the allocation of rewards and resources is fair, their work motivation, levels of performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are higher (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg & Leventhal, 1976). When employees perceive unfairness in the allocation of rewards, they feel less satisfaction toward organizations (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Distributive justice has been an important variable in that most studies of part-time faculty highlight inequality in terms of income, benefits, and career advancement compared to full-time faculty (Maureen et al., 2003; Jacobs, 1998). Despite this, neither procedural justice nor distributive justice were observed to affect levels of job involvement for faculty members in a study conducted by Mantler and Murphy (2005).Distributive justice will therefore be controlled in this study, since the perceived

distributive justice among faculty members does not appear to influence their level of job involvement.

Categories of Part-time Faculty

Part-time faculty members are not a homogeneous group, as there are many different reasons why faculty working part-time. Kinchen (2010) illustrates some of these reasons. In one case, a part-time faculty member was a full-time librarian at one university who taught in the graduate program at a nearby university at a lower pay rate than desired. The reason that she worked in such a capacity was to gain access to a variety of new technologies and publications at the university. In another case, a tenured faculty member at a private university taught part-time at state university in order to acquire experience teaching a different student population. In Kinchen's study, other faculty members worked part-time due to family obligations and circumstances. Some other part-time faculty members were unable to find full-time positions and, therefore, taught part-time involuntarily.

Given the myriad reasons influencing why faculty members work part-time, categories of part-time faculty were included as control variables in the study model of job involvement.

Tuckman (1978) categorized part-time faculty members into seven groups: semi-retired, graduate students, hopeful full-timers, full-mooners, homeworkers, part-mooners and part-unknowners. However, Tuckman's categories have been viewed as too narrow because many part-time scenarios can apply to more than one category.

Gappa and Leslie (1993) categorize part-time faculty into four categories: career-enders, specialists, aspiring academics, and freelancers. The career-enders category is similar to Tuckman's (1978) category of semi-retired. Specialists refer to part-time faculty as those who have careers outside of academia. The aspiring academics category refers to those individuals who work part-time because a full-time position is unavailable.

Freelancers teach part-time voluntarily. They could have several part-time positions and/or family obligations.

Jacoby (2005) studied part-time faculty members in community colleges, and classified them into two groups: voluntary and involuntary part-timers. Voluntary part-timers prefer part-time positions, whereas involuntary part-timers prefer full-time positions. Jacoby found that more than fifty percent of the part-time faculty preferred a fulltime position. Younger part-time faculty members were more likely to seek full-time tenure track positions than older part-timers. Jacoby identified three categories of part-time faculty in terms of the need for: 1) specialists (e.g., visiting experiential learners/interns, clinical supervision/support, and supervision of in-residence personnel), 2) temporary instructional assistance, and 3) both specialists and temporary instructional assistance. This study adopted both of Jacoby's categories, as a control variable in the study research model.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodological procedures used to explore the relationship between job involvement and the intervening (underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment) and control variables (demographics, distributive justice, and types of job). First, hypothesized relationships were presented. The second part of this chapter provides analysis of the characteristics of the study population, sample data, and data source. The next part of the chapter includes the measures used in the study. In the final section of the, the statistical methodology used in the study was described.

Hypothesized Relationships

The following hypotheses were proposed in this study. Hypotheses 1-1 to 1-3 apply to Research Question 1. Hypotheses 2-1 to 2-9 apply to Research Question 2.

Hypothesis 1-1: Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment, and job involvement will be influenced by demographics: gender, age, race, education, type of institution, field of studies, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, and hours of work.

Hypothesis 1-2: Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment, and job involvement will be influenced by categories of part-time faculty.

Hypothesis 1-3: Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment, and job involvement will be influenced by distributive justice.

Hypothesis 2-1: Higher levels of underemployment will be associated with lower levels of job involvement in the path model.

Hypothesis 2-2: Higher levels of work status congruence will be associated with higher levels of job involvement in the path model.

Hypothesis 2-3: Higher levels of empowerment will be associated with higher levels of job involvement in the path model.

Hypothesis 2-4: The relationship between underemployment and job involvement will be influenced by demographics variables in the path model.

Hypothesis 2-5: The relationship between underemployment and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model.

Hypothesis 2-6: The relationship between work status congruence and job involvement will be influenced by demographic variables in the path model.

Hypothesis 2-7: The relationship between work status congruence and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model.

Hypothesis 2-8: The relationship between empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by demographic variables in the path model

Hypothesis 2-9: The relationship between empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model

Population and Sample Data

The focal population in this study was composed of part-time (supplemental) faculty working on contract via continuing education units in higher education institutions in the U.S. This study is a secondary analysis of existing information within a data set provided by the University Professional and Continuing Education Association (UPCEA). The UPCEA data set that was made available for this study included responses to a survey by more than 160 part-time contract employees who participated voluntarily and anonymously. The survey was distributed via e-mail using e-mail lists including addresses (N=2117) that were provided to UPCEA by member institutions who agreed to participate in the survey.

The data set provided did not include any lists, institution-specific references, institutional names/identifiers, individual-specific references, e-mail addresses of either respondents or non-respondents, or any other indicators of specific source of information. The researcher had no contact with institutions or respondents. This study constitutes a secondary analysis of the data set made available.

The reported eight percent response rate was, initially, a cause for concern. However, on-line surveys tend to yield lower response rates when compared to traditional mailed surveys (Kaplowitz et al., 2004; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). Although online surveys are considered less effective in terms of response rate than mailed surveys, the former may yield more diverse samples in terms of gender, race, and region, and may provide distributional advantages that enable extended extrapolated inference from study findings (Gosling et al., 2004; Kaplowitz et al., 2004). Schalm and Kelloway (2001), in their meta-analysis, suggested that non-response bias may not be as crucial an issue as once believed, and that lower response rates may not always have decisive effects on study findings.

Researchers (Sheehan & Hoy, 1999; Weible & Wallace, 1998) have identified numerous benefits of email surveys versus postal mail distribution; particularly with regard to speed and cost efficiencies. Organizationally directed surveys and online surveys often have substantially lower response rates. An eight percent return rate is not atypical in terms of level of acceptability (Baldauf et al., 1999; Tomaskovic-Devey et al., 1994).

Measures Used in This Study

This section includes a description of how the focal variables were measured. Job involvement was measured using the 10-item index developed by Kanungo (1982). Responses are recorded on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). Eight items on the scale are reverse scored. Kanungo (1982) reported his job involvement scale as having satisfactory psychometric properties in terms of uni-dimensionality and validity. Other researchers have confirmed that the Kanungo's scale has acceptable validity. Paterson and O'Driscoll (1990) found that the alpha coefficients of Kanungo's job involvement scale are over .80, and Blau (1987) reported alpha coefficients ranging from .74 to .84.

The underemployment scale and work status congruence measures were adapted from Holtom et al. (2002). The scale of underemployment contains 4 items, while the work status congruence measure has 7 items. Among the 7 items, 2 items apply to schedule, 2 to hours, 2 to shift, and 1 to status.

To measure employees' levels of empowerment, Spreitzer's (1995) scale was used. This measure of empowerment contains 4 sub-scales, including meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact.

For more details regarding the measures, please refer to the appendix.

Validity, Reliability, and Construction of the Survey Instrument

All of the items used to measure study variables, including underemployment, empowerment, distributive justice, and job involvement, were derived from established instruments. In numerous studies, these measures have shown acceptable levels of construct validity. The validity of the survey, therefore, is already supported in part.

However, these measures were not employed to observe part-time faculty. Therefore, some questions were slightly modified to match the context of higher education in which respondents worked. An exploratory factor analysis was required to evaluate the construct validity of all of the variables having more than two items: empowerment, distributive justice, and job involvement. All components with eigenvalues greater than one were extracted. A varimax rotation was used to identify significant factor loadings. All items with factor loadings below .40 were omitted from the analysis (Tabachnick& Fidell,1989).

All of the measures originally used were found to have acceptable levels of reliability as evidenced by prior research. Cronbach's alphas were recalculated for the same reasons of exploratory factor analysis.

Statistical Methodology

All statistical analyses were conducted to identify variables affecting levels of job involvement among part-time faculty working in the field of continuing education.

Demographic variables (gender, age, race, education, type of institution, field, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, and hours of work), categories of part-time faculty (types of job), and distributive justice were considered control variables. Intervening variables were underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment.

First, statistical assumptions as well as conditions for regression and path analysis were checked: (a) linearity conditions, (b) independence of residuals,(c) homoscedasticity, and (d) normality (Sharpe et al, 2010). After testing the assumptions, four statistical methods were used to analyze the data: confirmatory factor analysis, OLS, one-way ANOVA, and path analysis using PASW Statistics 18.0 and AMOS 21.0.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS

This chapter is focused on the validation, construction, and reliability of the instruments, assumption testing for statistical analyses, demographic characteristics of the sample, and statistical analyses to test the hypotheses. Abbreviations for each variable are shown in Table IV-1.

Table IV-1. Abbreviations of Variables in the Study

Abbreviation	Variable Name
Emp_MC	Empowerment_Meaning & Competence
Emp_S	Empowerment_Self-determination
Emp_I	Empowerment_Impact
D Justice	Distributive Justice
WSC_Schedule	Work Status Congruence_Schedule
JobInv	Job involvement

Construct Validation of the Instruments

A principal components analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, with varimax rotation was used to test the construct validity of each instrument. Each construct that had an eigenvalue greater than one was extracted into the components analysis. Table IV-2 displays the results of the confirmatory factor analysis. Six components having an eigenvalue greater than one were extracted and an item with a factor loading of less than .40 was deleted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Component six, however, is not used in this study, since there are only two items with a factor loading greater than .40 under the component, and the eigenvalues are slightly greater than one. Component 1 consisted of six items representing distributive justice. Component 2 consisted of the 6 items representing empowerment_MC. Component 3 comprised the items representing job

involvement. Among 10 items intended to measure job involvement, item JI7 was deleted since its factor loading is .169 (<.40). Component 4 consisted of the 3 items representing Emp_I. Component 5 contained the 3 items representing Emp_S.

Table IV-2. Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation

Variable	Item	Factor Loadings					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Emp_MC	Emp 1	-.053	**.869**	.141	-.064	.168	.156
	Emp 2	-.008	**.847**	.109	-.141	.168	.176
	Emp 3	.003	**.857**	.105	-.124	.184	.145
	Emp 4	-.030	**.876**	.101	.003	.137	-.039
	Emp 5	-.036	**.867**	.098	.043	.193	-.080
	Emp 6	-.096	**.737**	.055	.042	.133	-.157
Emp_S	Emp 7	.198	.365	.161	.072	**.819**	.061
	Emp 8	.118	.325	.042	.080	**.871**	.071
	Emp 9	.149	.324	.078	.092	**.855**	.134
Emp_I	Emp 10	.203	-.028	.093	**.899**	.047	-.051
	Emp 11	.278	-.075	.052	**.902**	.084	.024
	Emp 12	.250	-.038	.026	**.925**	.070	.009
D Justice	DJus 1	**.935**	.015	.022	.188	.086	.002
	DJus 2	**.945**	.006	-.019	.100	.039	.053
	DJus 3	**.892**	.009	-.071	.138	.141	.007
	DJus 4	**.934**	-.036	-.020	.120	.059	.031
	DJus 5	**.937**	-.084	.022	.164	.063	-.013
	DJus 6	**.927**	-.074	.009	.127	.053	-.012
JobInv	JI 1	.071	.079	**.723**	.129	.063	.042
	JI 2	-.185	-.258	**.576**	-.058	.176	.189
	JI 3	.069	.462	**.444**	.103	.079	.165
	JI 4	-.024	.090	**.770**	.084	-.022	.124
	JI 5	.042	.101	**.794**	-.003	-.033	-.029
	JI 6	-.080	.206	**.412**	.072	.045	.534
	JI 7* (Omitted)	.113	.047	.169	-.056	.187	.819
	JI 8	. 027	.097	**.652**	.014	.031	-.497
	JI 9	-.086	.147	**.692**	-.049	.240	.099
	JI 10	.025	.336	**.571**	-.007	-.071	.115
Eigenvalue		6.94	6.23	3.16	2.02	1.66	1.15
Explained Variance(%)		24.77	22.26	11.27	7.20	5.91	4.11
Cumulative Variance(%)		24.77	47.03	58.31	65.50	71.41	75.53

Note. * indicates omitted items

As stated above, empowerment was divided into three components instead of Spreitzer's (1995) four components (meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact). In this analysis, meaning and competence converged into one component (component 2).

Reliability of the Instruments

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to test the reliability of the instruments. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is commonly used to test internal consistency of survey instruments (Cortina, 1993). All of the Cronbach's alphas of the variables in this study ranged from .823 to .974, and were substantially above the acceptable level (0.7).

Table IV-3. Cronbach's Alphas: Comparison of Reliabilities by Factors

Factor	Cronbach's Alpha
WSC_Sched	.823
Emp	.852
Emp_MC	.945
Emp_S	.942
Emp_I	.952
D Justice	.974
JobInv	.830

Imputation of Missing Data

As is common in social science research, the original data used in this study contained missing values. There are several methods useful for dealing with missing data. One method is to delete the case with missing data (which is the default method in PASW Statistics 18.0), called "listwise deletion" or "complete case analysis." However, this method is often not a wise choice, since it reduces the sample size and may lead to biased

results if the remaining cases are not representative of the sample (Little & Schenker, 1995; Scheafer & Graham, 2002).

Table IV-4. Correlation Coefficients Matrix among distributive justice, underemployment, wsc_schedule, empowerment, emp_mc, emp_s, emp_i, and job involvement

	D Justice	Underemp	WSC_S	Emp	Emp_MC	Emp_S	Emp_I	JobInvol
D Justice	1							
Underemp	-.329***	1						
WSC_S	.253**	-.147	1					
Emp	.242**	.003	.408***	1				
Emp_MC	-.089	.101	.201*	.750***	1			
Emp_S	.226**	-.049	.351***	.782***	.561***	1		
Emp_I	.402***	-.071	.312***	.539***	-.063	.160*	1	
JobInvol	-.028	.008	.156	.322***	.314***	.253**	.089	1

Note. *P<.05, **P<.01, ***P<.001

Another approach is to replace the missing data. As awareness of the problems which can be caused by missing data has increased, significant advancements have been made regarding methods to replace missing data. The traditional method of replacement is single imputation, such as mean substitution. Unfortunately, this common method has problems and biases that artificially reduce the variance of the variables, and minimize relationships with other variables (Graham et al. 2003).

Multiple imputation could be considered the solution for the missing data problem, since it shows a good balance between quantity and quality of results (Graham et al., 2003; Scheafer& Graham, 2002).

Table IV-5. Missing Data

		Missing		Method
		Frequencies	Percent	
continuous variables	Underemployment	0	.0	Multiple Imputation (monotone)
	WSC_schedule	0	.0	
	Empowerment	7	4.2	
	Emp_MC	7	4.2	
	Emp_S	7	4.2	
	Emp_I	7	4.2	
	D Justice	8	4.8	
	Job Involvement	33	20.0	
categorical variables	Age	46	27.9	Single Imputation
	Race	47	28.5	
	Institution Type	46	27.9	
	Degree	45	27.3	
	Field	46	27.9	
	Primary Position	46	27.9	
	Involuntary	45	27.3	
	WorkTime	49	29.7	
	TypeofParttime	48	29.1	
	YearsofWork	44	26.7	
	Fulltime years	44	26.7	

It was important to determine the patterns inherent in the missing data. The original missing data had a monotone pattern for the continuous variables, and categorical variables (with some exceptions) (Table IV-5). Therefore, this study adopted monotone multiple imputation for continuous variables missing data and single imputation for categorical variables with PASW Statistics 18.0. In this multiple imputation, missing values for variables were predicted using other existing values. This process was performed five times so that five multiple imputed data sets were generated using PASW Statistics 18.0.

Multiple-group analysis was used to fit separate models for each set of imputed data for path analysis with AMOS 21.0.

Demographic Characteristics

Table IV-5 shows summarized demographic characteristics of the study respondents. It includes demographic summary statistics for both the original data and the imputed data. Frequencies of the imputed data refer to the average frequencies of the 5 imputed data sets.

Almost fifty-six percent of the respondents were female. Almost six percent of the respondents were minorities. Approximately two percent of the respondents were 20-29 years old, ten percent were between the ages of 30-39, nearly twenty-three percent were between the ages of 40-49, and thirty-one percent were 60 or older.

Except for one respondent, all respondents worked at four year colleges and universities. The respondent in the two year college was excluded from the statistical interpretation. Among the remainder, fifty-one percent worked in private institutions, thirty-eight percent of the respondents have doctorate degrees, and fifty-seven percent of them have master's degrees.

The percentage of faculty working in different academic fields ranged between 17 and 20 percent. Most of the part-time faculty in the data set reported that their position was not their primary position (70.6 percent). Most respondents worked part-time voluntarily (83.5 percent). The majority of respondents worked 10 hours per week (77.6 percent). Approximately twenty-five percent of the part-time faculty in the sample reported working as specialists, while nearly 50 percent indicated that they worked part-time out of the need to provide temporary instructional assistance. Here, 43.8 percent of the sample had worked full-time for more than 10 years, and 41.3 percent of respondents had been in their current role for more than 10 years.

Table IV-6. Pattern of Missingness

N	Pattern of Missingness																		
	Continuous Variable													Categorical Variable					
	Under employ	WSC _sche	Emp	Emp _MC	Emp _S	Emp _I	D Justi	Job Invol	YsofW	FTYs	Degr	Involun	Primary	Insti	Field	Age	Race	Wtime	TofPT
106																			
3																		X	
3																			X
2																	X		
11									X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
25								X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
7			X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Table IV-7. Demographic Variables

Factor	Frequencies (%)	
	Original Data	Imputed-Data
Gender		
Male	52 (43.3)	63 (38.9)
Female	68 (56.7)	99 (61.1)
Missing	45	3
Age		
20-29	2 (1.7)	2 (1.2)
30-39	12 (10.1)	16 (9.9)
40-49	27 (22.7)	37 (22.8)
50-59	41 (34.5)	62 (38.3)
60 years or more	37 (31.1)	45 (27.8)
Missing	46	3
Race		
African American	3 (2.5)	3 (1.9)
Caucasian	110 (93.2)	145 (89.5)
Asia-Pacific Islander	2 (1.7)	8 (4.9)
Hispanic	1 (.8)	3 (1.9)
American Indian-Alaskan Native	1 (.8)	2 (1.2)
Other	1 (.8)	1 (.6)
Missing	47	3
Type of Institution		
Public 4-year	57 (47.9)	79
Private 4-year	61 (51.3)	82
Public 2-year	1 (.8)	1
Private 2-year	0 (.0)	0
Missing	46	3
Degree		
Doctorate	46 (38.3)	57 (35.2)
Master+	36 (30.0)	54 (33.3)
Master's	33 (27.5)	45 (27.8)
Bachelor's	5 (4.2)	6 (3.7)
Missing	45	3
Field		
STEM	23 (19.3)	25 (15.4)
Social Behavioral Science	22 (18.5)	33 (20.4)
Humanities	19 (16.0)	26 (16.0)
Business/Law	19 (16.0)	33 (20.4)
Education	21 (17.6)	27 (16.7)
Other	15 (12.6)	18 (11.1)
Missing	46	3
Primary/Non-primary		
Primary position	35 (29.4)	41 (25.3)
Non-primary position	84 (70.6)	121 (74.7)
Missing	46	3
Voluntary/Involuntary		
Involuntary	21 (17.5)	25 (15.4)
Voluntary	99 (82.5)	137 (84.6)
Missing	45	3
Work Time		
10 Hours/Week (.25time)	90 (77.6)	115 (71.4)

Table IV-7 (continued)

20 Hours/Week (.50time)	21 (18.1)	40 (24.8)
30 Hours/Week (.75time)	5 (4.3)	6 (3.7)
Missing	49	
Type of Part-time		
Specialists	29 (24.8)	37 (22.8)
Temporary Instructional Assistance	58 (49.6)	89 (54.9)
Both	30 (25.6)	36 (22.2)
Missing	48	3
Current Job Years		
1-5	36 (29.8)	39 (24.1)
6-10	35 (28.9)	56 (34.6)
10+	30 (41.3)	67 (41.4)
Missing	44	3
Fulltime Years		
Never	38 (31.4)	43 (26.5)
1-5	20 (16.5)	31 (19.1)
6-10	10 (8.3)	23 (14.2)
10+	53 (43.8)	65 (40.1)
Missing	44	3

Descriptive Statistics of Attitudinal Variables

Descriptive statistics of the job-related attitudinal variables are displayed in Table IV-6. Respondent part-time faculty showed relatively high levels of empowerment (M=3.95), empowerment_MC (M=4.54), empowerment_S (M=4.30), WCS_schedule (M=3.81), moderate levels of distributive justice (M=3.15), and lower levels of job involvement (M=2.99), overqualified underemployment (M=2.79) and emp_I (M=2.44).

Table IV-8. Descriptive Statistics of Attitudinal Variables

Variables	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Overqualified Underemployment	165	1	5	2.79	1.16
WCS_Schedule	165	1	5	3.81	.95
Emp	158	1	5	3.95	.53
Emp-MC	158	1	5	4.54	.61
Emp_S	158	1	5	4.30	.81
Emp_I	158	1	5	2.44	1.09
D Justice	157	1	5	3.15	1.18
JobInvolv	132	1.44	5	2.99	.64
Valid N (Listwise)	132				

Table IV-9. Regression Analysis (OLS)

continuous control variable	Intervening/ Dependent Variable	Beta(β)	p-value
D Justice	Underemployment	-3.29***	.000
D Justice	WSC_sche	-.253**	.001
D Justice	Emp	.242**	.002
D Justice	Emp_MC	-.089	.268
D Justice	Emp_S	.226**	.004
D Justice	Emp_I	.402***	.000
D Justice	JobInvolve	.028	.753

Note. *P<.05, **P<.01, ***P<.001

Regression Analysis

Ordinary least-squares (OLS) regression analysis was used to test which variables would be used as control variables of continuous variables in the final path analysis model. Table IV-7 displays the results.

Among the demographic variables and control variables, distributive justice is the only continuous variable. Therefore, each of the intervening variables (underemployment, WSC_schedule, empowerement, emp_MC, emp_S, and emp_I) and the dependent variable (job involvement) was regressed vis a vis distributive justice. Distributive justice had significant effects on all of the intervening variables except for empowerment_MC: underemployment (β=-3.29, p<.001), WSC_schedule (β=-.253, p<.01), empowerment (β=.242, p<.01), emp_S (β=.226, p<.01), emp_I (β=.402, p<001). The more that part-time faculty perceived equitable distribution of goods, the less underemployment was perceived, the less they felt that their jobs fit in terms of schedule, and the more they perceived that they controlled meaningful work effectively (especially in terms of self-determination and impact). Distributive justice had no significant effect on job involvement. Even though distributive justice had no significant effect on the dependent

variable directly, it may have had a significant indirect effect on the dependent variable through intervening variables. Distributive justice was adopted as a control variable in the final path analysis model.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

All of the demographic variables and a control variable (typeof part-time faculty) are categorical variables. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), therefore, was used to identify which categorical variables would be used as control or independent variables in the final path analysis model. Table IV-10 presents the results.

Gender showed a significant effect on empowerment at the P<.01 level for the three conditions [F(1,160)=7.32, p=.008] and empowerment_S at the P<.05 level for the three conditions [F(1,160)=4.88, p=.029]. Race showed significant effects on empowerment [F(1,160)=6.05, p=.015], empowerment_MC [F(1,160)=10.05, p=.002] and empowerment_S [F(1,160)= 10.18, p=.002]. Voluntary/involuntary status displayed significant effects on underemployment at the P<.05 level for the three conditions [F(1,160)=, p=6.63].

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1-1: Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by demographics: gender, age, race, education, type of institution, field of study, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, and hours of work.

One-way ANOVA was used to test the effects of demographic variables (gender, age, race, education, type of institution, field of studies, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, and hours of work) on the intervening (underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment) and dependent (job involvement) variables, and to determine which demographic variables were to be included in the path analysis model. Hypothesis 1-1 was partially supported.

Table IV-10. Analysis of Variance

Categorical Demographic/ Control variable	Intervening/ Dependent variable	Df		F	Sig	Mean
Gender	Underemployment	Between Groups	1	2.13	.146	
		Within Groups	160			
	WSC_schedule	Between Groups	1	0.001	.973	
		Within Groups	160			
	Empowerment	Between Groups	1	7.319	.008	M=4.10, F=3.86
		Within Groups	160			
	Emp_MC	Between Groups	1	3.05	.083	
		Within Groups	160			
	Emp_S	Between Groups	1	4.88	.029	M=4.46, F=4.18
		Within Groups	160			
	Emp_I	Between Groups	1	3.21	.075	
		Within Groups	160			
	Job Involvement	Between Groups	1	1.30	.257	
		Within Groups	160			
Age	Underemployment	Between Groups	4	1.48	.211	
		Within Groups	157			
	WSC_schedule	Between Groups	4	1.55	.190	
		Within Groups	157			
	Empowerment	Between Groups	4	0.97	.426	
		Within Groups	157			
	Emp_MC	Between Groups	4	1.77	.138	
		Within Groups	157			
	Emp_S	Between Groups	4	0.21	.931	

Table IV-10 (continued)

		Within Groups	157			
	Emp_I	Between Groups	4	0.29	.887	
		Within Groups	157			
	Job Involvement	Between Groups	4	0.40	.813	
		Within Groups	157			
Race	Underemployment	Between Groups	1	0.67	.415	
		Within Groups	160			
	WSC_schedule	Between Groups	1	0.37	.543	
		Within Groups	160			
	Empowerment	Between Groups	1	6.05	.015	
		Within Groups	160			minority=3.66, White=4.00
	Emp_MC	Between Groups	1	10.05	.002	
		Within Groups	160			minority=4.11, White=4.60
	Emp_S	Between Groups	1	10.18	.002	
		Within Groups	160			minority=3.71, White=4.37
	Emp_I	Between Groups	1	0.88	.348	
		Within Groups	160			
	D justice	Between Groups	1	0.21	.648	
		Within Groups	160			
	Job Involvement	Between Groups	1	1.33	.252	
		Within Groups	160			
Institutional Type	Underemployment	Between Groups	2	2.25	.108	
		Within Groups	159			
	WSC_schedule	Between Groups	2	0.07	.931	
		Within Groups	159			
	Empowerment	Between Groups	2	0.50	.609	

Table IV-10 (continued)

		Within Groups	159				
	Emp_MC	Between Groups	2	0.72		.488	
		Within Groups	159				
	Emp_S	Between Groups	2	0.36		.697	
		Within Groups	159				
	Emp_I	Between Groups	2	0.01		.995	
		Within Groups	159				
	Job Involvement	Between Groups	2	0.29		.752	
		Within Groups	159				
Degree	Underemployment	Between Groups	3		0.42	.742	
		Within Groups	158				
	WSC_schedule	Between Groups	3		0.32	.810	
		Within Groups	158				
	Empowerment	Between Groups	3		0.45	.717	
		Within Groups	158				
	Emp_MC	Between Groups	3	0.54		.657	
		Within Groups	158				
	Emp_S	Between Groups	3	0.56		.640	
		Within Groups	158				
	Emp_I	Between Groups	3	3.45		.018	D=2.13, M+=2.61 M=2.42, B=3.39
		Within Groups	158				
	Job Involvement	Between Groups	3	1.06		.368	
		Within Groups	158				

Table IV-10 (continued)

Field	Underemployment	Between Groups	5		1.99	.083			
		Within Groups	156						
	WSC_schedule	Between Groups	5		2.9	.016			
		Within Groups	156						
	Empowerment	Between Groups	5	0.86		.509			
		Within Groups	156						
	Emp_MC	Between Groups	5	0.17		.975			
		Within Groups	156						
	Emp_S	Between Groups	5	1.43		.215			
		Within Groups	156						
	Emp_I	Between Groups	5	0.99		.423			
		Within Groups	156						
	Job Involvement	Between Groups	5	0.67		.644			
		Within Groups	156						
		Within Groups	160						
	WSC_schedule	Between Groups	1		2.64	.107			
		Within Groups	160						
	Empowerment	Between Groups	1		2.21	.139			
		Voluntary/ Involuntary	Underemployment	Between Groups	1		6.63	.011	V= 3.32, IV=2.69
	Emp_MC	Between Groups	1		0.1	.755			
		Within Groups	160						
	Emp_S	Between Groups	1		0.72	.399			
		Within Groups	160						
	Emp_I	Between Groups	1		7.4	.007	V=1.87, IV=2.51		
		Within Groups	160						

Table IV-10 (continued)

	D justice	Between Groups	1			
		Within Groups	160			
	Job Involvement	Between Groups	1	1.05	.308	
		Within Groups	160			
Primary/ Non-primary	Underemployment	Between Groups	1	0.84	.360	
		Within Groups	160			
	WSC_schedule	Between Groups	1	0.69	.406	
		Within Groups	160			
	Empowerment	Between Groups	1	0.93	.335	
		Within Groups	160			
	Emp_MC	Between Groups	1	0.6	.442	
		Within Groups	160			
	Emp_S	Between Groups	1	0.11	.739	
		Within Groups	160			
	Emp_I	Between Groups	1	6.57	.011	P=2.03, N=2.54
		Within Groups	160			
	D justice	Between Groups	1			
		Within Groups	160			
	Job Involvement	Between Groups	1	2.37	.126	
		Within Groups	160			

As shown in Table IV-10, age, institutional type, and field did not have statistically significant effects on underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment, or job involvement. These demographic variables were therefore excluded from the path model. Gender, race, degree, and primary/ non-primary had statistically significant effects only on empowerment. However, the difference in levels of empowerment between males and females was only 0.24. Thus, gender was not included in the path model. Degree was also not included in the path model because significant differences in levels of empowerment by degree were only found between bachelor's degrees holders and doctoral degree holders. The voluntary/involuntary variable showed significant differences on underemployment and empowerment and was therefore included in the path model. In summary, three variables were included in the path model among the demographic variables: race, primary/non-primary position, and voluntary/ involuntary.

Hypothesis 1-2: Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment, and job involvement will be influenced by categories of part-time faculty

One-way ANOVA was used to test the effects of categories of part-time faculty on the intervening (underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment) and dependent (job involvement) variables to determine whether the variables would be included in the path analysis model. Hypothesis 1-2 was not supported.

As shown in Table IV-10, categories of part-time faculty did not have statistically significant effect on underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment, or job involvement. These demographic variables were excluded from the path model.

Hypothesis 1-3: Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by distributive justice

OLS regression equations were estimated to test the relationships between distributive justice and the intervening (underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment) and dependent (job involvement) variables in the suggested model in

order to determine whether distributive justice would be included in the path model. Hypothesis 1-3 was partially supported.

The first equation was used to determine the relationship between underemployment and distributive justice. The second equation examined with the relationship between work status congruence and distributive justice. The third equation tested the relationship between empowerment and distributive justice. The last equation estimated the relationship between job involvement and distributive justice. Table IV-11 displays the OLS regression equations used to test Hypothesis 1-3.

Table IV-11 OLS Regression Equations for Hypothesis 1-3

Underemployment = β_1 (D justice) + ε
work status congruence =β_1 (D justice) + ε
Empowerment = β_1 (D justice) + ε
Job involvement = β_1 (D justice) + ε

The regression results, as shown in the above Table IV-6 partially supported Hypothesis 1-3, so distributive justice was included as a control variable in the final path analysis model.

In summary, it was determined that the four variables to be included in the final path model as independent or control variables were: race, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, and distributive justice.

Path Analysis Model

The final path analysis model was confirmed by testing hypotheses 1-1 through 1-3. Figure IV-1 displays the final path analysis model. AMOS 21.0 was used to test the path analysis model. Dummy variables were used for all categorical independent/control variables: race (0= white, 1=minor), primary/non-primary position (0=primary, 1=non-primary), and voluntary/involuntary (0=voluntary, 1=involuntary). Path analysis was the

methodological choice (versus selecting multiple regression) because path analysis can examine two sets of relationships at the same time (Kline, 2005).

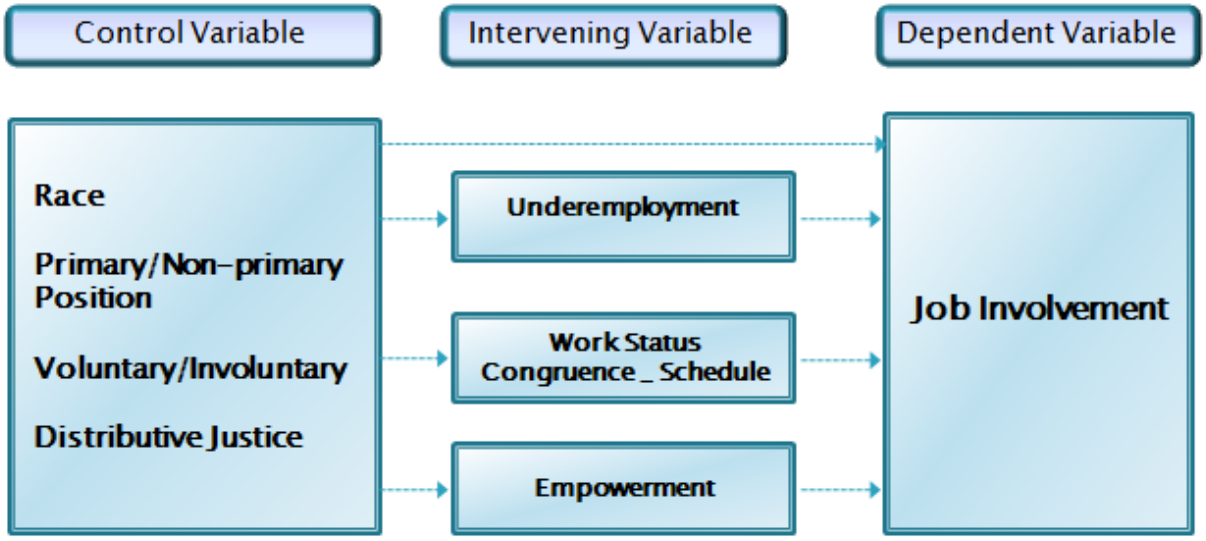

Figure IV-1. Path Analysis Model

Hypotheses 2-1 through 2-12 were tested using the path model. Table IV-12 and Figure IV-2 depict the results of the path analysis. The standardized regression coefficients presented in Table IV-12 display path analysis results.

Table IV-12 Path Analysis Results

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables							
	Underemployment		WSC		Empowerment		Job Involvement	
	Standardized Regression	P	Standardized Regression	P	Standardized Regression	P	Standardized Regression	P
Race	-.066	.377	.058	.451	.210**	.006	-.189*	.022
Primary/Non-Primary	.058	.478	-.028	.743	.031	.714	-.072	.412
Voluntary/ Involuntary	-.103	.214	.046	.594	.028	.741	-.103	.251
D Justice	-.303***	.000	.242**	.005	.225**	.008	-.063	.511
Underemployment							-.029	.728
WSC							.003	.969
Empowerment							.420***	.000

Note. *P<.05, **P<.01, ***P<.001

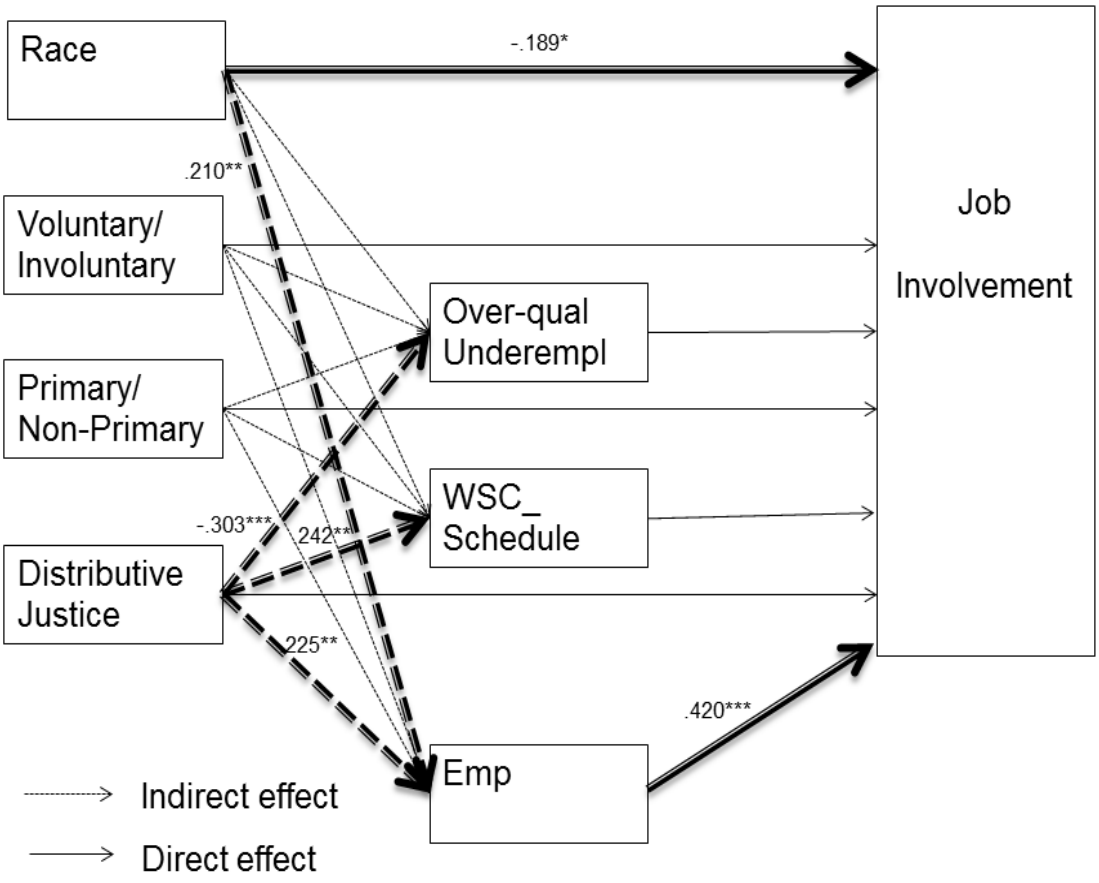

Figure IV-2. Path Analysis Results

Note. *P<.05, **P<.01, ***P<.001

Hypothesis 2-1: Higher levels of underemployment will be associated with lower levels of job involvement in the path model

Hypothesis 2-1 was not supported. Part-time faculty with higher levels of underemployment showed lower levels of job involvement (β=-.029). The tendency was not statistically significant (P=.728).

Hypothesis 2-2: Higher levels of work status congruence will be associated with higher levels of job involvement in the path model

Hypothesis 2-2 was also not supported. Part-time faculty with higher levels of work status congruence demonstrated slightly higher levels of job involvement, but not at a statistically significant level.

Hypothesis 2-3: Higher levels of empowerment will be associated with higher levels of job involvement in the path model

Hypothesis 2-3 was supported. Part-time faculty's higher levels of empowerment were associated with higher levels of job involvement in the path model (β=.420, $p<.001$).

Hypothesis 2-4: The relationship between underemployment and job involvement will be influenced by demographics in the path model

Hypothesis 2-4 was not supported by the path analysis results. The relationship between overqualified underemployment and job involvement was not influenced by demographic variables (race, voluntary/involuntary, and primary/non-primary positions).

Hypothesis 2-5: The relationship between underemployment and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model

Hypothesis 2-5 was supported. Faculty with higher levels of distributive justice experienced less overqualified underemployment (β=-.303, $p<.001$), the levels of distributive justice influence the relationship between underemployment and job involvement.

Hypothesis 2-6:The relationship between work status congruence and job involvement will be influenced by demographic variables in the path model

Hypothesis 2-6 was not supported. The relationship between work status congruence and job involvement was not influenced by demographic variables (race, voluntary/involuntary, and primary/non-primary position).

Hypothesis 2-7: The relationship between work status congruence and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model

Hypothesis 2-7 was supported by the path analysis results. Faculty with higher levels of distributive justice felt that their work was more appropriate to their schedules

(β=.242, p<.01). Furthermore, the relationship between work status congruence and job involvement was influenced by distributive justice.

Hypothesis 2-8: The relationship between empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by demographic variables in the path model

Hypothesis 2-8 was partially supported. Among race, voluntary/involuntary, and primary/non-primary position, only race had significant effects on the relationship between empowerment and job involvement (β=.210, p<.01). Empowerment also showed significant effects on job involvement (β=.420, p<.001). The indirect effect of distributive justice on job involvement was statistically significant, as well.

Hypothesis 2-9: The relationship between empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model

Hypothesis 2-9 was supported by the path analysis results. Faculty with higher levels of distributive justice showed higher levels of empowerment (β=.225, p<.01). The relationship between empowerment and job involvement was also influenced by distributive justice.

Table IV-13 provides summary of the tests of hypotheses

Goodness of Fit

Researchers recommend that goodness-of-fit indices should be used to assess overall model fit (Maruyama, 1998; Medsker et al., 1994). This study relied on two goodness-of-fit indices that are commonly used to assess the overall model fit of the initial model: the comparative fit index (CFI, Bentler, 1990) and the incremental fit index (IFI, Bollen, 1989). The CFI of the initial model in this study was .804 while the IFI was .847.

The two descriptive fit indices (CFI and IFI) indicate the proportion of improvement of the overall fit of the model compared to the independence model. For these two indices, the closer to 1, the better the fit. According to Bagozzi and Pholakia (2002), values of .80 or higher on the CFI and IFI indicate acceptable model fit. The CFI

(.804) and IFI (.847) scores indicate that the model in this study is acceptable even though they were not over .90, the cut-off line for Browne and Cudeck (1993).

Table IV-13 Summary of Hypotheses Test

	Hypothesis	Finding
H1-1	Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by demographics: gender, age, race, education, type of institution, field of studies, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, and hours of work.	Partially Supported
H1-2	Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment, and job involvement will be influenced by categories of part-time faculty	Denied
H1-3	Levels of underemployment, work status congruence, empowerment, and job involvement will be influenced by distributive justice	Partially Supported
H2-1	Higher levels of underemployment will be associated with lower levels of job involvement in the path model	Denied
H2-2	Higher levels of work status congruence will be associated with higher levels of job involvement in the path model	Denied
H2-3	Higher levels of empowerment will be associated with higher levels of job involvement in the path model	Supported
H2-4	The relationship between underemployment and job involvement will be influenced by demographic variables in the path model	Denied
H2-5	The relationship between underemployment and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model	Supported
H2-6	The relationship between work status congruence and job involvement will be influenced by demographic variables in the path model	Denied
H2-7	The relationship between work status congruence and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model	Supported
H2-8	The relationship between empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by demographic variables in the path model	Partially Supported
H2-9	The relationship between empowerment and job involvement will be influenced by levels of distributive justice in the path model	Supported

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter consists of three parts: major research findings, implications of the findings, and conclusions. The purpose of the study was to develop a job involvement model for part-time faculty by exploring associations among underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment. The model included control variables such as race, voluntary/involuntary, primary/non-primary positions, and distributive justice.

Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Twelve hypotheses were tested to examine two research questions. One-way ANOVA, OLS regression analysis, and path analysis were utilized in this study from a methodological perspective. Among the twelve hypotheses, five were not supported, three were partially supported, and four were supported.

Hypotheses 1-1 through 1-3 were tested to explore Research Question 1: which variables would be included in the path model as control or independent variables among demographic variables (gender, age, race, type of institution, degree, field, primary/non-primary position, voluntary-involuntary, hours of work, years of work, and years of full-time position), type of part-time employment, and distributive justice?

Hypothesis 1-2 was not supported, while Hypotheses 1-1 and 1-3 were partially supported. Among the demographic (gender, age, race, degree, type of institution, field, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, hours of work) and control variables (categories of part-time faculty and distributive justice), only four variables were included in the final path analysis model: race, whether part-time work status was voluntary, primary/non-primary position, and distributive justice.

Hypotheses 2-1 through 2-9 tested to Research Question 2: which independent/control and intervening variables (underemployment, work status congruence, and empowerment) influenced levels of job involvement among part-time faculty?

Hypotheses 2-1, 2-2, 2-4, and 2-6 were unsupported, Hypothesis 2-8 was partially supported, and Hypotheses 2-3, 2-5, 2-7, and 2-9 were supported. Among the four independent and control variables (race, status of whether part-time work was voluntary, primary/non-primary position, and distributive justice) included in the final path model, only race had significant direct effects on the dependent variable, job involvement. Minority part-time faculty members showed lower levels of job involvement (β=-.189, $p<.05$) than Caucasian part-time faculty, and their job involvement increased though empowerment. Minority part-time faculty reported higher levels of empowerment compared to Caucasian part-time faculty (β=.210, $p<.01$). Empowerment was a significant predictor of job involvement. Whether faculty chose to work part-time voluntarily did not affect levels of job involvement directly or indirectly. Primary position was not significantly associated with job involvement. Neither overqualified underemployment nor work status congruence (schedule) had a significant influence on levels of job involvement. Perceived distributive justice did not affect part-time faculty's job involvement. It only influenced job involvement through empowerment.

Empowerment and Job Involvement

Empowerment was a significant predictor of part-time faculty levels of job involvement. Empowerment refers to a perception among part-time faculty members that they are able to exercise control over meaningful work (Potterfield, 1999). The relationship between empowerment and job involvement was positive.

This study used Spreitzer's (1995) scale to measure empowerment. Spreitzer's (1995) scale consists of four dimensions reflecting part-time faculty cognition: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. In this study, however, the empowerment of part-time faculty was divided into three dimensions as a result of the factor analysis. Spreitzer's categories of meaning and competence were encompassed in one component. The direct effect of empowerment on job involvement was positive. Part-time faculty who reported higher levels of empowerment showed higher levels of job involvement.

The relationship between empowerment and job involvement was influenced by race and distributive justice. Whether part-time work status was voluntary and primary/non-primary position did not influence the relationship between empowerment and job involvement among part-time faculty.

Underemployment and Job Involvement

Underemployment encompasses various situations related to employment, such as being utilized inadequately, being underutilized, being underpaid, and being over-educated and/or over-skilled for the job. Most faculty jobs require doctoral degrees in a related field to the subject area being taught. Inadequate and over-educated underemployment may be infrequently encountered in higher education. However, many part-time faculty members experience underpaid underemployment. Underpaid underemployment is related to distributive justice, a control variable in the final path model. Underemployment, as used in this study, refers to only perceived over-qualified underemployment.

Over-qualified underemployment was not a significant predictor of levels of job involvement among part-time faculty in this study. However, perceived over-qualified underemployment was negatively influenced by perceived distributive justice. Part-time faculty members who felt that they were treated fairly in terms of outcomes distribution reported lower levels of overqualified underemployment. Whether or not part-time faculty members perceived being over-qualified for their part-time positions, these perceptions did not impact levels of job involvement significantly.

Work Status Congruence and Job Involvement

This study utilized Holtom and colleagues' (2002) scale to measure work status congruence among part-time faculty. Work status congruence is defined as the degree to which the job matches employee preference for schedule, shift, and number of hours. Among the four dimensions, only scheduling preference was examined. This study

adopted only items related to scheduling. Work status congruence was define as the degree to which the job matched part-time faculty preference regarding scheduling.

Work status congruence in terms of schedule was not a significant predictor of job involvement or over-qualified underemployment. However, perceived distributive justice did positively affect work status congruence for schedule positively. Part-time faculty members who felt that they were treated fairly in terms of outcomes distribution showed higher levels of work status congruence in terms of scheduling. Yet, the degree to which the job matched scheduling preference was not associated significantly with levels of job involvement.

Demographic Variables and Job Involvement

Among the demographic variables used in the study (gender, age, race, type of institution, degree, field, primary/non-primary position, voluntary/involuntary, hours of work, years of work, and years of full-time position), only race had significant direct and indirect effects on job involvement. When considering the single relationship between race and job involvement, there was no significant differences in levels of job involvement between Caucasian and minority part-time faculty members. However, in the path analysis model, minority status had a negative direct effect on levels of job involvement. Minority part-time faculty tended to perceive higher levels of empowerment that affected their levels of job involvement positively, and mitigated differences along racial lines.

Distributive Justice and Job Involvement

Distributive justice has been associated with employees' perceptions of fairness in terms of outcomes distribution (Price & Mueller, 1986). Results of the path analysis in this study indicated that distributive justice did not have a direct effect on job involvement. Distributive justice had only a positive indirect effect on job involvement through empowerment.

The findings imply that improving perceived distributive justice might not influence part-time faculty's levels of job involvement without enhancing perceptions of empowerment. To heighten levels of job involvement, consideration of their perceptions of empowerment should be accompanied with attempts to enhance levels of perceived distributive justice.

Implications

Employers in higher education have enjoyed benefits in terms of staffing flexibility as well as reaping economic rewards by hiring part-time faculty members instead of full-time faculty (Gappa & Leslie, 1993; Hall & Atnip, 1992; Lundy & Warme, 1985). As a result, the number of part-time faculty has been steadily increasing for decades (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995; Cohen, 1997; Foote, 1996; Lee, 1997; Lombardi, 1992). There are no indications that this trend will not continue.

With the increased number of part-time faculty, their importance to institutions is increasing (Lee, 1997). Gappa and Leslie (1993) pointed out that understanding part-time faculty is essential to present studies in higher education, since part-time faculty carry a large part of the responsibility for undergraduate teaching in many institutions. Nevertheless, not enough studies focusing on part-time faculty (Leatherman, 1997; Leslie et al., 1982) have been conducted to gain a solid understanding of the full range of implications related to the faculty members and their students in terms of attitudes, outcomes, and related subjects of impact on individuals and organizations.

Research findings concerning part-time laborers in other sectors of the economy may, or may not apply to higher education, since part-time employment in colleges and universities has been viewed quite differently (Tuckman, 1978; Tuckman & Pickerill, 1988). Part-time faculty members differ from part-timers in other economic sectors in three major ways. First, the academic part-timers tend to be more highly educated and are more likely to come from middle class families. Second, part-time faculty status is dependent on the academic labor market more than on the larger economy. The academic

labor market may fluctuate due to shifts in student enrollment, demand for specialized skills, or the tightening of budgets. Third, part-time faculty members with adjunct status carry a measure of prestige and recognition in academia, whereas part-timers outside of academia are usually viewed as "marginal" workers (Tuckman & Pickerill, 1988).

Additionally, some research is needed to understand the multicultural aspect of the part-time faculty situation. Most institutions of higher education employ some part-time faculty across academic disciplines. There is great variety in terms of part-time faculty utilization among different types of institutions and academic disciplines (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). Part-time faculty members are heavily utilized in two-year colleges, teaching colleges, rapidly expanding colleges (Leslie et al.,1982), life-long learning centers (German, 1996), evening divisions, and extended education programs (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). However, the respondents in this study worked only in the continuing education field, and were mainly employed in 4-year institutions. Therefore, further examination of the multicultural aspect of the part-time faculty situation would be helpful.

Increasing the number of part-time faculty could be both problematic and beneficial for institutions (Monroe & Denman, 1991).In this study, empowerment was the most significant predictor of part-time faculty levels of job involvement. The findings imply that sharing authority or resources with faculty may have stronger effects on enhancing their levels of job involvement. According to Conger and Kanungo (1988), employees often feel empowered when they have more power in their organizations. Providing opportunities for participative management and autonomous work environments could be strategic approaches to enhance job involvement among part -time faculty.

The analyses also revealed that whether part-time work status was voluntary and whether the position was primary or non-primary did not significantly influence levels of job involvement. Moreover, perceived distributive justice did not affect part-time faculty job involvement significantly. Levels of perceived distributive justice among part-time faculty members only influenced job involvement through empowerment. This finding

suggests that efforts to increase levels of job involvement for part-time faculty without considering their perceptions of empowerment may be insufficient. Empowering part-time faculty appears essential to enhancing levels of job involvement among part-time faculty.

Framing the Context of Future Inquiry

The velocity of exogenously-induced change in organizations operating in competitive markets may be expected to continue, given the need to respond to rapidly changing user/client demand and expectations over increasingly shorter periods of time. Such circumstances suggest, in turn, the likelihood that these organizations will progressively move in the direction of higher levels of staffing flexibility, and will operate with higher numbers of differentially- skilled part-time employees (Brown et al., 2008; Rocco, 2009)

As the ecologies of organizations in both private and public sectors change (Hannan & Freeman, 1974, 1984; Zammuto & Cameron, 1982), and permutations of organizational types emerge as a consequence in highly competitive markets, the pressure on organizations to continuously reinvent and re-engineer themselves in order to prosper and/or survive may be expected to rise. Such organizations, it is posited, will increasingly depend on a dynamic, skilled workforce with the capacity to quickly respond to user/client demand and exigencies of the moment. In higher education, the success of responses will be dependent, in part, on effective management of professional personnel included in an enlarging corps of supplemental (part-time) employees organized within self-sustaining units designated as continuing education, extended studies and the like. Here, effective management may be particularly challenging. This is the case especially where large numbers of highly skilled part-time employees have differential interests in the goals, operations and success of the enterprise as a whole.

Where the form and function of the work environment, and effects on human resource are better understood, it is asserted, the potential for operational success is

enhanced. Social science research can contribute, significantly, to managerial practice under these circumstances.

Behaviorally-related antecedents and correlates of performance become of immediate importance in this work context. Variables considered in this research and related findings provide a starting point for further inquiry on part-time faculty; inquiry with implications for the future viability of institutions of higher education in increasingly commoditized, competitive markets that will continue to seek ways to serve new and existing publics and diversify sources of revenue. This study, was limited as a secondary analysis using information derived from an existing data set, and does not consider the important subjects of organizational design, structures, organizational learning, and the management of human resources; all of which have been suggested as having major influences on the focal subject in this research (Galbraith & Lawler, 1993); individual job involvement. The need for additional research including models with both structural and behavioral dimensions is axiomatic.

APPENDIX

MEASURES AND DEMOGRAPHICS USED IN THE UPCEA SURVEY

Intervening Variables

Underemployment Scale – Adapted from Holtom et al. (2002)

Instruction. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your job. A check mark will appear when you click on your answer.

1. I am working in a job that is closely related to my training and education (reverse coded)
2. I am overqualified for my current job
3. I earn a lot more money than my peers with similar education and experience (reverse coded)
4. I possess more education than my job requires

Work Status Congruence Scale – Adapted from Holtom et al. (2002)

Instruction. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your work. A check mark will appear when you click on your answer.

1. The person in charge of my schedule works hard to fit my work schedule with my other responsibilities. (schedule)
2. I generally work my preferred schedule. (schedule)
3. I generally do not choose how many hours I work per week (hours, reverse coded)
4. The person in charge of my schedule works hard to get me the hours I need each week. (hours)
5. I often work a shift that is not convenient for me. (shift, reverse coded)
6. I like the shift I typically work. (shift)
7. It is my choice to work part time or full time. (status)

Empowerment – Adapted from Spreitzer (1995)

Instruction. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your work. A check mark will appear when you click on your answer.

1. The work I do is very important to me (meaning 1).
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me (meaning 2).
3. The work I do is meaningful to me (meaning 3).
4. I am confident about my ability to do my job (competence 1).
5. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities (competence 2).
6. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job (competence 3).
7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job (self-determination 1).
8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work (self-determination 2).
9. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job (self determination 3).
10. My impact on what happens in my department is large (impact 1).
11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department (impact 2).
12. I have significant influence over what happens in my department (impact 3).

Distributive Justice - Adopted from Price and Mueller (1986)

Instruction. Please choose one answer for each question that reflects your opinion the closest. Examples of rewards can be promotions, salary, advancements, or recognition. A check mark will appear when you click on your answer.

1. How fair has the university (college) been in rewarding you when you consider the amount of effort that you have put forth?

2. How fair has the university (college) been in rewarding you when you consider the responsibilities that you have?
3. How fair has the university (college) been in rewarding you when you consider the stresses and strains of your job?
4. How fair has the university (college) been in rewarding you when you take into account the amount of education and training that you have?
5. How fair has the university (college) been in rewarding you when you consider the work that you have done well?
6. How fair has the university (college) been in rewarding you in view of the amount of experience that you have?

Dependent Variable

Job Involvement – Adapted from Kanungo (1982)

Instruction. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your work. A check mark will appear when you click on your answer.

1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.
2. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am. (reversed)
3. I am very much involved personally in my job.
4. I live, eat and breathe my job.
5. Most of my interests are centered around my job.
6. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break.
7. Usually I feel detached from my job.
8. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.
9. I consider my job to be very central to my life.
10. I like to be really involved in my job most of the time.

Demographic Variables

1. **Gender:** Male Female
2. **Age:** ○ 20-29 ○ 30-39 ○ 40-49 ○ 50-59 ○ 60+ years old
3. **Race/ Ethnic Background (Optional):**

   African American/ Caucasian/ Asian-Pacific Islander/

   Hispanic/ American Indian-Alaskan Native/ Other
4. **Which type of institution do you work for? (Type of Institution):**

   Public 4-year/ Private 4-year/ Public 2-year/ Private 2-year
5. **What is the highest degree you earned? (Degree):**

   Doctorate/ Master+ / Master's/ Bachelor's
6. **What is your field? (Field):**

   STEM/ Social Behavioral Sciences/ Humanities/

   Business Law/ Education/ Other
7. **Is this job your primary position?**

   Primary position/ Non-primary position
8. **Do you work part-time because you cannot find full-time employment?**

   Yes (Involuntary)

   No (Voluntary)
9. **What is the time (paid) of your appointment as a fraction of full-time work? (Hours of work per week)**

   10 hours/week (.25 time)

   20 hours/week (.50 time)

   30 hours/week (.75 time)

Control Variable

10. **Which category best describes the purpose of your appointment? (Categories of part-time faculty, Type of job)**

- Fulfills need for specialists (e.g., visiting experiential learners/interns, clinical supervision/support, and supervision of in-residence personnel)
- Fulfills need for temporary instructional assistance
- Both- Need for specialists (Visiting, clinical, and in-residence)

11. How many years have you worked in a part-time position doing work similar to your current job?

○ 1-5

○ 6-10

○ 10+

12. How many years have you worked in a full-time position doing work similar to your current job?

○ Never

○ 1-5

○ 6-10

○ 10+

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