Motivation and perceived organizational support of adjunct business faculty members teaching face-to-face at a private institution's off campus locations.

by

Kathryn A. Ervin

B.S., Pittsburg State University, 1998
M.S., Indiana State University, 2002

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Department of Educational Leadership
College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2018

Abstract

As higher education populations are changing, institutions are forced to find new ways to meet students' needs and schools' declining budgets. Institutions have found that changing their business models by creating accelerated learning programs and extended campuses are assisting in this area. An outcome of these modifications is increased usage of adjunct faculty. These extended sites typically have small staffs and adjunct faculty members usually have little connection to the main campus, work a primary job, and have limited teaching experience.

This research explored adjunct business faculty members teaching face-to-face at a private institution's off campus locations to understand their motivation level and perception of organizational support, as well as if the two interrelate. Multiple regression was completed to further explore the relationship of their demographics and motivation level or perceived organizational support.

Self-determination theory was used to explore adjunct faculty members' motivations, measuring motivation along a continuum from external to intrinsic motivation when a person is not exclusively one or the other. Adjunct faculty members at this institution have an identified motivation level moving toward integration, moving from extrinsic motivation and closer to being more intrinsically motivated. These adjunct faculty members have commitment to the organization's goals and value their work. Organizational support was used to understand workers' commitment to their organization as well as their satisfaction. These adjunct faculty members also reported a high level of perceived organizational support.

A more thorough understanding of adjunct faculty members' motivation levels and perceived organizational support will allow for better recruiting as well as create training and development programs to retain qualified, high-quality adjunct faculty members.

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Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Acknowledgments

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Background

The dynamics of colleges and universities have transformed in the last decade due to declining enrollments of students on campus, population changes of students, and budget constraints (Doyle, 2008; Gosink & Streveler, 2000; Hoyt, 2012; Wilson, 1998). Institutions continue to find creative ways to overcome the deficits in student population and address budget constraints. Many are experiencing a change in their business model, developing accelerated programs and operating extended campuses (or satellite campuses or university centers), to reach an adult-learner population that is unavailable to take classes in a traditional classroom setting (Day, Lovato, Tull, & Ross-Gordon, 2011). These extended campuses may be located in the same town as the main campus, at great distances, or even internationally.

Extended campuses have been able to reach adult learners who have other commitments during the day (Howard, 2016). However, due to the unique needs of these adult students, extended campuses rarely operate in the same way as the larger main campus. Extended campuses have smaller staffs who perform many tasks, unlike the main campus, where these responsibilities are split among many departments. For example, an extended-campus director may be responsible for recruiting, advising, admissions, scheduling, hiring adjunct faculty, and community relations.

Running extended campuses is challenging because personnel try to ensure needs are met for the student and the university (Fraser & Stott, 2015). Policies and procedures that might work for traditional students such as course-load, classroom requirements, or meeting times are barriers for the adult-learner population. The Council for Accelerated Programs (CAP) standards recommend services be available when students need them (Collins, 2012). Extended campus

locations might have different programs from traditional campuses and hold evening classes or extended office/advising hours. Degrees are generally accelerated to allow students to earn a degree in a shorter timeframe than in a traditional program (C. Johnson & Rose, 2015). Although accelerated programs shorten the instructional time, learning outcomes remain the same for a course. For instance, a three-credit hour graduate-level course that would normally meet 50 minutes three times a week for 15 weeks, may meet 4 hours 1 night a week for 8 weeks.

The needs of adult learners continues to grow. Therefore, colleges and universities are making strides to bring education to this population. Creative programming may include accelerated classes, and extended sites allow adults to attend classes and meet their daily demands. These programs make education accessible to a population that would not participate in a traditional college setting. They also provide opportunities for professionals in their fields to become adjunct faculty and share knowledge with these adult students.

Adjunct Faculty

More universities are turning away from tenure-track faculty and using more non-tenure-track and part-time or adjunct faculty members. The number of adjunct faculty at colleges and universities has grown 226% from 2001 to 2011 (Elder, Svoboda, Ryan, & Fitzgerald; 2016). The National Survey of Part-Time/Adjunct Faculty (American Academic, 2010) discussed the limited data available on this population and what role adjunct faculty members play in higher education. As the population of adjunct faculty continues to grow, the dynamics on college campuses has changed (Carr, 2015; Cooper, 2009; Kena et al., 2015). Examining this population change on campuses begins with understanding growth patterns and how these faculty members impact the institutions. Adjunct faculty members are likely to continue to play significant roles on college campuses (Stenerson, Blanchard, Fassiotto, Hernandez, & Muth, 2010).

Adjunct faculty may be assets for universities in that they can assist with recruiting students, building business relationships, and developing degree programs in their expertise area, which can also be attractive to students (Dedman & Pearch, 2004). Adjunct faculty has assisted in opening doors to the corporate world, providing internships, professional activities, and employment opportunities for students. Adjunct faculty members can also help in propagating the program by sharing their experience of teaching with other professionals in their field, thereby recruiting potential new faculty members. They are also current in their field and can expand campus programs or recommend areas to ensure existing degrees are current (Gosink & Streveler, 2000; Green, 2007).

With the increased use of adjunct faculty, institutions find it important to have an experienced adjunct-faculty pool to teach in their programs. It is critical for institutions to hire knowledgeable professionals capable of sharing their knowledge in the classroom. Although an accountant may have outstanding accounting skills, one may question whether they can teach those skills to students in the classroom. Many times, adjunct faculty members are hired but not provided enough time before the class begins to allow for proper training and appropriate class preparation (Betts & Sikorski, 2008; Pearch & Marutz, 2005). Many campuses have no formal adjunct faculty training programs, even when they are hired in sufficient time to prepare for classes. All too often, adjunct faculty are hired, given the textbook, and sent into the classroom, positioning them for unnecessary stress or potential failure in their new position. Only 23% of adjunct faculty members are satisfied with the organizational support provided them for training and development (Yakoboski, 2016).

Adjunct-faculty retention is extremely important to ensure continuity in programs as well as achieve student success (Datray, Saxon, & Martirosyan, 2014). Whether in a higher education

setting or the corporate world, turnover is expensive. Turnover costs include direct costs of filling a position, such as advertising and administrative work, along with indirect costs of training and loss of institutional knowledge (Pearch & Marutz, 2005). Currently, no national statistics describe annual turnover of adjunct faculty (Betts & Sikorski, 2008).

The expansion of extended campuses has also created a unique environment for adjunct faculty members in that that they are detached from the main campus because of their geographical location. Although institutions strive to align adjunct faculty with their main campus, they typically operate with small staffs and adjust their business practices to meet the needs of the adult-learner population they serve (Howard, 2016). Adjunct faculty hiring, training, and development are typically the responsibility of these extended sites, with limited input from the main campus. As a result, various extended sites affiliated with the same institution can be inconsistent in offerings and efficacy.

As the use of adjunct faculty members at institutions increases, so does the need to understand these individuals' motivation and impact. Research in the area of adjunct faculty is limited. Studies on adjunct faculty have focused on job satisfaction, orientation and training, job performance, and motivation (Carr, 2015; Daly, 2011; Dolan, 2011; Gosink & Streveler, 2000; Gullickson, 2011; Hoyt, 2012; Kezim, Pariseau, & Quinn, 2005; Landrum, 2009; Wilson, 1998). The added dynamic of extended campuses even further limits the research on this group. It is important to recognize the uniqueness of adjunct faculty members in training, development, and retention. To begin to understand adjunct faculty, one must understand what motivates them to teach and how they perceive institutional support.

Workplace Motivation

Workplace motivation is important to managers and human-resources leadership, no matter the employee type. When leaders understand what motivates employees, they can train and develop employees more efficiently. Satisfaction, commitment, and performance link to motivation and are critical components of employee success (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). Many researchers described how companies can better understand motivation and how it can help their organization; thus, although research is limited on adjunct faculty members' motivation, many of the same ideas and philosophies from organizational research apply to adjunct faculty (Hull, 2013; Latham, 2011; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; White & Bryson, 2013).

Work motivation theorists support the concept that what produces performance also produces positive work attitudes (White & Bryson, 2013). Workplace motivation is important for companies because employees who are highly motivated are also committed to success for themselves and their companies (Meyer et al., 2004). Also, a manager's motivation links with their employees' success. Employees whose managers encourage them to show initiative in their jobs and allow them to have autonomy are more intrinsically motivated (Deci, Connell, & Ryan; 1989).

Turnover can negatively impact companies; understanding workers' motivation can impact employees' decisions to stay (Ramlall, 2004). Employees who are motivated in their jobs are more satisfied and are less likely to leave. When an employee leaves, they take the knowledge gained from working for the organization. An additional issue in turnover is that replacing an employee can be time consuming and, even after hire, new employees take time to reach a productive working level. High turnover forces the process of training to be repeated.

5

Turnover can reduce if companies understand why employees leave. Many companies think the happiness or satisfaction of their employees is unimportant, but researchers suggested that when employees are happy, they are more productive and the organization makes more money (Hull, 2013; Lindner, 1998; Nohria, Groysberg, & Eling-Lee, 2008). Workplaces are quickly changing and motivated employees can help them survive (Lindner, 1998).

Workplace motivation is not a new subject for researchers but continues to be a critical area of focus for organizations; employee motivation is a mounting concern for managers (Lazaroiu, 2015). It is important for leadership to understand the role motivation plays in employees' success and to understand better what motivates their workforce, benefitting all. Once leaders understand workplace motivation, the organization is better able to create interdependent goals for the workplace and employees, find influential employees, and better communicate with employees (Latham, 2011).

In higher education, the few studies that examined faculty motivation found significant differences in the experiences, satisfaction, and attitude of non-tenure-track faculty (Cook, Ley, Crawford, & Warner, 2009; Dutton, 2009; Kezar & Sam, 2010; J. Lee, 2001). A need persists to understand the workplace motivation of adjunct faculty. Such understanding will aid in integrating adjunct faculty into the university community.

Theoretical Framework

Although researchers have widely studied workplace motivation, research in the area of adjunct faculty motivation is limited. Adjunct faculty are unique because, although they are paid to teach, they typically hold full-time positions outside of the college or university. They often teach in accelerated-learning programs and at extended campuses with little connection to the main campus. Frequently, they receive very little training to support them in the classroom.

This research used Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory (SDT) for this research as it focuses on why people engage in individual activities and their basic needs. Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT helps explain whether people engage in activities for intrinsic (self-determined) or extrinsic (other-determined) reasons. Intrinsic motivation means a person is motivated from within and not influenced by outside factors. The person is truly completing a task or activity for their own satisfaction. Extrinsic motivation is the opposite, indicating a person performs a task purely for pay or reward, ego, or pressure to perform a job. Different levels of motivation fall along the self-determination continuum. The more self-determined an individual is, the higher productivity, creativity, and initiative they will show in their work (Deci et al., 1989). Central to SDT are three inherent psychological needs: the needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985). When workers have these three needs met, they are more likely to be self-determined.

Autonomy is the desire to work on one's own and have a sense of self in their tasks. Autonomy describes the idea that a person chooses their behavior and it is not imposed on them by an external source (Deci, 1977). When people are autonomous, they are more willing to embrace their task and have a deeper interest in the success of their job. Employees feel less controlled when they can choose how they complete their responsibilities. The pressure they feel when not being autonomous will force them to behave a certain way just to complete a task and will not allow them to be self-determined. An example of an autonomous workplace is allowing employees to share the power and responsibility for making impactful decisions. Adjunct faculty members may report autonomy when they are provided learning objectives in their courses but are allowed to decide the methods of teaching and assessments they will use to complete the course.

The need for competence is met when a person feels capable of completing a job (Gagne, 2014). SDT states the greater a person perceives their ability to complete a task, the more intrinsically motivated the person will be to complete the task. A significant part of the need for competence is that the work must be challenging and not trivial. When people are competent, they believe they can successfully perform their responsibilities (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Leaders can meet this need by delegating meaningful responsibilities to employees. When adjunct faculty members receive training on how to run a classroom, what to expect from teaching, and policies/procedures for the university, they may feel more competent in their teaching.

Relatedness occurs when a person feels connected to a community or organization, interacts with it, or is cared for by others. Leaders can foster feelings of relatedness by creating a team environment for staff and facilitating regular activities where employees can spend time together. Effective communication, sharing ideas, and team building help answer one's need for relatedness (Gagne, 2014). When adjunct faculty members are invited to attend training and staff meetings or are involved in other campus events, they may have a higher level of relatedness.

Further, SDT uses a continuum to explain a person's different levels of motivation from extrinsic (other-determined) to intrinsic (self-determined). These levels are independent of each other, not requiring individuals to pass through them to be more self-determined (Deci & Ryan, 2000). More self-determined motivated people are more likely to be satisfied with their work and more dedicated to their jobs. The self-determination continuum explains motivation ranging from amotivation, whereas a person has no motivation at all to complete a task, to extrinsic motivation, wherein the person completed a task for pay or external rewards, to intrinsic motivation, wherein a person engages in a task for enjoyment, satisfaction, or interest (Gagne, 2014).

In this research study, perceived organizational support (POS) was explored. POS is an employee's belief that they are valued and their organization cares for them. Employees with higher levels of POS feel their organization provides them the atmosphere where they feel their needs are being met (Allen, Armstrong, Reid, & Riemenschneider, 2008; DeConinck, 2010; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). Employees who are supported by the organization are more likely to have higher job satisfaction, increased performance, and lower turnover (Allen et al., 2008, DeConinck, 2010, Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009).

Problem Statement

Adjunct business faculty members teaching face-to-face at a private institution's off campus locations face many challenges ranging from lack of connection with the main campus to outside responsibilities, limited knowledge of teaching, and lack of feeling in control of their classroom. Adjunct faculty typically have limited contact with the university and depend on the site director and staff to meet these needs. Teaching at extended campuses offers a unique experience, and teaching adult learners in an accelerated format adds challenges. Although university policies drive extended campuses, they are in an environment that strives to be flexible for their student populations, thereby creating unique situations that the faculty and staff must meet.

To hire, train, and retain qualified adjunct faculty members, administrators need to understand this populations' motivation to teach and their perceptions of organizational support to meet their needs better. Although researchers studied on adjunct faculty, studies at extended campuses are extremely limited. A better understanding of adjunct faculty motivation and perception of organizational support will allow main campus administrators and site directors to implement training and development programs to better support and retain these faculty

9

members. The ability to motivate adjunct faculty members creates a mutually beneficial relationship in which the university receives expertise from specialists currently working in their fields and adjunct faculty members get to share real-world experiences with students and build their resume.

Purpose of the Study

Use of adjunct faculty continues to rise at colleges and universities (Carr, 2015) as the student population is shifting to include more adult learners with complex lives and needs (Deggs, 2011). With the growth of adult-learner populations wanting to complete higher education degrees, adjunct faculty members play an important role, filling a gap to cover classes at the university due to financial constraints, expansion of accelerated programs, and extended campus models. The purpose of this study was to explore the motivation level and perceptions of organizational support of adjunct faculty members at extended campuses to understand better if their current needs are being met and to identify potential ways institutions can improve to meet these needs. The research will utilize self-determination theory to understand adjunct faculty members' motivations.

Significance of the Study

Consistent growth of the adjunct-faculty population shows employment of adjunct instructors will not decrease any time soon (Doyle, 2008; Hoyt, 2012). With the population becoming a vital resource for universities, knowledge of what motivates this group is important for building the efficacy of the university community. The lack of research on adjunct faculty members at extended campuses leaves a significant gap in the current literature. Adjunct faculty have an influence, formally or informally, on the university as well as on students' experiences, expectations, and success (Fernet, Senecal, Marsh, & Austin, 2008).

Adjunct faculty members are frequently not formally trained but offer unique real-world experience in their fields. Understanding adjunct-faculty motivation will allow institutions to understand why they teach and further explore whether POS impacts motivation. This knowledge will allow institutions and extended site directors to train and develop programs to meet the needs of adjunct faculty members.

Research Design

This research study was a quantitative, exploratory study of adjunct business faculty members teaching face-to-face at a private institution's off campus locations using SDT to gain an understanding of why adjunct faculty members teach and how their perceptions of organizational support impact their motivation. Data accrued using a self-designed demographic questionnaire, the Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS; Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, & Villeneuve, 2009) and the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986).

Research Questions

The following research questions directed this research:

1. Are adjunct faculty members at extended campuses more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to teach?

2. How do adjunct faculty perceive organizational support at their extended campus?

3. Is there a relationship between POS and adjunct faculty members' level of motivation?

4. What is the relationship between an adjunct faculty member's motivation level and their reported demographics of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, and years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member?

11

5. What is the relationship between an adjunct faculty member's POS and reported demographics of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, and years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member?

Overview of Research Methodology

This study entailed exploratory descriptive research using a nonexperimental design to determine if relationships exist among the variables of adjunct faculty motivation, POS, and individual demographic information (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Adjunct faculty members at a Midwest university, who teach for the university at one of their 58 extended campuses throughout the United States, participated. Current active adjunct faculty members for these campuses received surveys by e mail, accompanied by a message from the vice presidents of the university endorsing the study.

The first two research questions were answered based on the instruction of the instrument's creaters. For Question 3, Pearson's product-moment correlation-coefficient (r) with a significance level of .05 was run to determine if a statistically significant relationship existed between motivation level and POS of adjunct faculty members. To answer the final two question, multiple linear regression analysis was used to explore whether a relationship exists among the demographic variables of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, and teaching experience with the motivation level or POS.

Population

The population is 3,389 adjunct faculty members who teach throughout the university system, including the main campus and 58 extended locations on military installations and in metropolitan centers. For this study, the researcher surveyed the 737 adjunct faculty teaching at the military and metropolitan campuses. The university is a global, Tier 1, private, nonprofit

university located in the Midwest, accredited by the higher learning commission since 1925. Additionally, the Accreditation Council for Business Schools and Programs accredits the School of Business. Extended campuses are located in major metropolitan areas or on military installations. All programs offer master's-level class sessions that meet evenings or weekends for working adult learners.

Adjunct faculty members must have at least a master's degree and 5 years professional experience in the discipline they teach. Each department or extended campus is responsible for hiring, training, and supporting their adjunct faculty members. No formal training program exists for adjunct faculty members. Once a director chooses an adjunct faculty member, the director provides the main campus department chairs a resume, transcripts, and justification for hiring to gain approval to teach specific classes.

At this university, adjunct faculty training and development is the responsibility of each department or extended site. No formal training program that exists throughout the network of campuses. Adjunct faculty may teach at multiple locations and online, but are limited to two classes in an 8-week term and a total of eight courses per year. Adjunct faculty members begin as an adjunct assistant professor; after teaching 6 years they are promoted to adjunct associate professor, and at 10 years are a full adjunct professor. At each level, they receive a minimal pay increase but no additional duties. Depending on demographics of the campuses, adjunct faculty members may teach at a military or metropolitan campus; campuses may have different policies and procedures.

Sample

The sample for this study included 737 adjunct faculty members who teach at the 58 extended campuses in the United States for the School of Business or Arts and Sciences.

Returning usable surveys were 309 adjunct faculty members with a return rate of 42%. The research participants were comprised of 49.07% from military campuses and 50.93% from metropolitan locations. Participants were 67.70% male. Of participants, 76.40% were White, 17.39% were Black, one (0.31%) was American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.24% reported Asian, and 4.66% selected other. They had varied years of teaching as an adjunct and at this university with the majority (92.86%) stating that teaching was not their primary source of income.

Instruments

The survey instrument included a self-designed demographic questionnaire that provided background information on participants as well as the WEIMS (Tremblay et al., 2009) and POS Scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The WEIMS (Tremblay et al., 2009) assessed motivation level. The scale measures intrinsic motivation, integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation, and amotivation with 18 items on a 7-point Likert-type scale. POS was measured using the eight-item Survey of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This instrument uses a 7-point Likert-type scale to score the data. The demographic information and questions from these two instruments were combined into a single survey, delivered via Qualtrics. This single survey allowed participants to complete both questionnaires at one time to ease the process.

Limitations

This study had several limitations:

1. The results are limited to adjunct faculty teaching graduate-level adult students.

2. The study was conducted at one university; therefore the data may not be generalizable to other institutions.

3. The method of collection was another limitation of the study. The survey was e-mailed to participants, but had no verification that the instructor was the actual participant in the study.

4. Inaccurate e-mail addresses or Internet security filters may have blocked the messages such that the surveys did not get through to the targeted participants (Cope, 2014).

5. No incentive for the sample to return the survey, so the survey size may have been limited, skewing the data.

Assumptions

The following are assumptions associated with the research:

Participants would answer truthfully and were willing to answer and return the survey.

Definitions

Accelerated programs. Adult-learning programs that allow students to complete coursework outside of traditional 14- and 15-week courses. Individual class sessions are extended to 4 or more hours during 5 or 8 weeks (Wlodkowski, 2003).

Adjunct faculty. Faculty in a temporary role to teach specific courses on a course-by-course basis. Excludes regular part-time faculty, graduate assistants, the full-time professional staff of the institution who might teach individual courses, and appointees who teach noncredit courses entirely (Aud et al., 2012).

Autonomy. The ability of a person to be able to have a choice in their pursuit of self-selected goals (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Competence. A person's capability to complete a difficult task and have success in their performance of that task (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Extended campus. University locations that are within miles of the main campus or across the world. These campuses typically do not function the same way as the larger campus in that they cater to their population with extended hours, different class offerings, and usage of adjunct faculty as their primary faculty in their program. (Howard, 2016).

External regulation. Motivation based on external factors such as pay or rewards (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Identified regulation. Internalization of goals that involve self-goals and personal values with a perceived internal locus of control (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Integrated regulation. Internalized goals that increase proactivity. Individuals take values they feel are essential to their life goals in relation to their hopes and dreams in their career (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Intrinsic regulation. Motivation that is fully internal. Activities are completed out of interest and perceived to have personal value (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Introjected regulation. Partial internalization of motivation for reasons of ego with a perceived external locus of control (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Perceived organizational support. Employees believe that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Relatedness. The feeling of connectedness to others and belonging to a community (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Self-determination theory (SDT). The core of SDT is one's need for autonomy, competence, and reliability. It explains motivation as a continuum from external, introjected, identified, integrated, and intrinsic regulation. The more self-determined a person is, the more interest and enjoyment they will have to perform a task (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Summary

Institutions are facing budget cuts, declining enrollments on their campuses, and population changes in their students that require them to adapt to survive (Doyle, 2008; Gosink & Streveler, 2000; Hoyt, 2012; Wilson, 1998). The leadership of colleges and universities are finding a need to change their business models by creating accelerated programs and extended campuses to fill gaps they are experiencing. This change in business models accompanies an increase in the usage of adjunct faculty members. These new developments create challenges for the main campus as well as extended campuses.

Understanding adjunct faculty member's motivation and POS at extended campuses can provide valuable information to colleges and universities. SDT allows leaders to understand better what motivates adjunct faculty members and whether their basic needs are being met. When a person is self-determined, they have their basic needs of competency, relatedness, and autonomy met. They are also intrinsically motivated. When a person is more self-determined, they have a greater likelihood of being successful personally and professionally (Lui, Wang, & Ryan, 2016). Exploring adjunct faculty members' levels of motivation and POS will allow institutions to assist in meeting their needs. It will also benefit extended campuses by providing support in developing and retaining high-quality adjunct faculty members.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

Introduction

Evolving student population are creating changes for colleges and universities who are facing a challenge due to a decrease in traditional-age students and an increase in adult learners seeking their first degree or returning to school after being in the workforce. Institutions are being forced to meet the demands of this new population (Hoyt, 2012). These population changes and cuts in state budgets have created a financial strain on institutions across the United States (Singh & Martin, 2004). Institutions must seek creative ways to expand programs and increase flexibility for learners to return to school at their convenience.   Although accelerated programs and extended-site campuses are examples of how institutions have created solutions to meet the needs of busy adult learners, these types of programs have led to an increase of working professionals joining higher education as adjunct faculty members. As these working professionals share their real-world examples with students in the classroom as adjunct faculty members, institutions need to discover why they teach, and their perceptions of support from their organization to hire, train, and retain them.

Adjunct Faculty

Higher education institutions at all levels are relying more on adjunct faculty to share their real-world knowledge and experience with adult learners (Hoyt, 2012). Cooper (2009) discussed that "campus employment patterns over the last ten, twenty, or thirty years show an increasing dependence on adjuncts and a large expansion of support staff" (p. 20). In 2015, the U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported part-time faculty comprise 50% of university faculty, compared to 22% in 1970. The number of adjunct faculty members has risen 262% from 2001 to 2011 (Elder

et al., 2016). Of college and university faculty, 30% are tenure track, 20% are full-time non-tenure-track, and 50% are part-time adjunct faculty (Yakoboski, 2016).

Hoyt (2012) report that people become adjunct faculty members for a variety of reasons. Most adjunct faculty members hold full-time positions and teach as a secondary job. Of adjunct faculty and income, 53% have a primary income other than teaching, 24% teach as their primary source of income, 32% teach because they want the flexibility to pursue other interests, and 22% prefer to work part-time (Hoyt, 2012). These instructors typically have expertise in areas that universities may be lacking (Dedman & Pearch, 2004) and adjunct faculty members can use their real-life examples to bring the coursework to life (Green, 2007).

Although adjunct faculty members comprise a significant teaching population, they face many challenges in their employment: shifting enrollments, negative perceptions from full-time faculty and students, and feeling disconnected from the institution (Gosink & Streveler, 2000). Another challenge is that many adjunct faculty members have outside responsibilities that limit the time they can devote to teaching, attending faculty meetings, or training. An additional hindrance to incorporating adjunct faculty into the university community is that many adjunct faculty members report allegiance to the students and not to the university. "The school merely serves as the means for these instructors to satisfy their love of teaching" (Gosink & Streveler, 2000, p. 73), perhaps because adjunct faculty members feel disconnected from the institution. If adjunct faculty sensed a better connection to the university, they might increase loyalty to the university.

Adjunct faculty members often receive little training or preparation for the classroom (Elder et al., 2016). Of adjunct faculty members, 76% reported they never held a position at a university before they began as adjunct faculty members (Elder et al., 2016). The result is that

adjunct faculty members may not be knowledgeable of university policies and responsibilities that accompany teaching. This creates a challenge because, as professionals in their field, many do not have teaching in their background. These adjunct faculty members also must understand academic rigor and be trained to continue the high-level requirements put forth by the university. The increased use of adjunct faculty members does not give institutions the ability to compromise their integrity and the rigor of their programs (Dolan, 2011).

Jaeger and Eagan (2011) studied the quality and integrity of adjunct faculty members. They explored the use of adjunct faculty at six state universities to understand if they had an impact on 1st-year student retention. In their literature review, they discussed the differences between the job performance of adjunct faculty members and their full-time faculty counterparts. They explained that adjunct faculty members spent less time on class preparation, had less interaction with students, and rarely used collaborative teaching techniques. The researchers studied data for first-year students from 2002 to 2005, with data received from different institutional research offices to understand whether students' retention was impacted if they had more classes taught by adjunct faculty. Jaeger and Eagan found that doctoral programs had a higher retention rate at 90%, followed by master's programs at 80% and baccalaureates at 78%. These researchers recommended creating policies in hiring and developing adjunct faculty members to support the success of 1st-year students.

Another challenge for adjunct faculty members is determining who should evaluate this population. Langen (2011) explored how adjunct faculty members are evaluated at their institutions, what sources are used to gather evaluation information, and how their leadership uses this information. The researchers conducted a quantitative study of higher education intuitions in Michigan hoping to gather a large sample for this research. The received 155

surveys, primarily from department chairs or program coordinators. Results showed 27% of institutions did not have regular evaluations for their adjunct faculty members. For those that conducted regular evaluations, 87% relied on student evaluations; the least used evaluation method was instructor self-evaluations by adjunct faculty members. Administrators rated class observation as the most reliable tool to evaluate adjunct faculty members but only 58% used this format. Finally, the university used teaching performance, experience, student evaluations, and availability to make reappointment decisions (Langen, 2011).

J. Johnson, MacGregor, and Watson (2001) noted that nontraditional adult programs and accelerated learning programs use more adjunct faculty. These intense degree programs pride themselves on incorporating real-world experience and employing fewer full-time faculty. According to Wlodkowski (2003) "accelerated learning programs are one of the fastest-growing transformations in higher education" (p. 5). Due to their expansion, these accelerated learning programs offer many teaching opportunities for adjunct faculty members. Institutions are using adjunct faculty more and more to keep these accelerated learning programs relevant to students and to meet the demands of adult learners returning to higher education. The popularity of these programs has grown over the last 25 years because they provide a unique environment targeted at adult learners (Husson & Kennedy, 2003; Kasworm, 2003). The accelerated-learning programs structure the delivery of the curriculum around the lives of adult learners. The complexity of adult learners' lives creates a necessity for creative scheduling as well as flexibility to meet their needs (Kasworm, 2003; Wlodkowski & Kasworm, 2003).

Accelerated programs are designed with less contact time, and thus promise less time for adults to complete their degrees than those attending traditional university structures. Nontraditional programs offer certificates, undergraduate, and graduate programs (Kasworm,

2003; Walvoord, 2003; Wlodkowski, 2003). With learning outcomes maintained, traditional 14-
and 15-week courses are rewritten to 5 or 8-week formats that meet once a week or on weekends
for up to 4 or 8 hours a session (Husson & Kennedy, 2003; Singh & Martin, 2004). Instructors
and students must cover a large amount of material in a short timeframe.

Birkholz (2004) investigated perceptions of students, faculty, and administrators on
accelerated instruction methods, differences between faculty and administrators' views on this
format, and professional development available for implementing accelerated-learning strategies
in five colleges in Wisconsin. Questionnaires accrued responses from 21 administrators, 61
faculty members, 88 accelerated students, and 77 unaccelerated students, for a total of 247.
Students' responses showed that although classroom teaching techniques were different in
accelerated formats to cover the material, students reported positive feedback for both formats.
Faculty members reported the need for improved and ongoing staff development, whereas
administrators described the need to implement accelerated-learning strategies for the shorter
formats to cover the material and meet students' needs (Birkholz, 2004).

C. Johnson (2009) conducted a qualitative interpretive study to understand faculty
members' views on accelerated courses and what instructional strategies they changed to teach in
this format. Participants taught in traditional and accelerated courses in the Illinois Consortium
for Adult Accelerated Programs. The sample encompassed 18 faculty members who had taught at
least five classes in the traditional and accelerated formats. Full-time and adjunct faculty had an
average of 20.4 years of teaching experience, 10 had a doctoral degree, four were ABD, and four
held master's degrees. Responses from overall faculty indicated that they enjoyed teaching in
this format and did not feel the reduced classroom time compromised the integrity of academic
standards. They reported challenges in covering all the material and adapting their teaching style

to meet the needs of the accelerated schedule. Faculty members reported higher attendance in their accelerated classes compared to traditional classrooms as well as higher quality of out-of-class preparation by students before class sessions. Sustained course energy in accelerated courses contrasted with reported lulls in traditional classes. Despite the assumption that less material is covered in accelerated courses because of reduced contact hours, participants reported feeling they covered material more deeply because class periods were longer and they spent less time reviewing previous class information. Finally, participants felt challenged by accelerated classes because they had to maintain the pace of pertinent material and spent little time on inconsequential work than in traditional classes (C. Johnson, 2009).

In another study on the perceptions of instructors in accelerated-learning programs, conducted by C. Johnson and Rose (2015), faculty members participated through e mail who were on the Illinois Consortium of Adult Accelerated Programs membership list: 11 full-time faculty members and seven part-time adjunct faculty members volunteered to participate. To participate in the study, participants must have taught at least five classes in traditional settings and accelerated face-to-face delivery at a 4-year institution. The research consisted of interviews, document review, and classroom observations (C. Johnson & Rose, 2015).

Two themes emerged from the study: the development of new skills and a feeling of isolation by faculty members (C. Johnson & Rose, 2015). Overall, the accelerated program forced participants to adjust their teaching style and focus more on the students' role in learning, due to the reduced classroom time. They also believe that, because of changes in curriculum and teaching they were isolated from their colleagues who do not teach in accelerated programs, as well as from the university overall. Isolation resulted because many of these accelerated courses were taught outside of normal working hours and frequently away from the main campus at

extended campuses. Many participants had no interaction with their department or university leadership, which caused faculty members to feel underappreciated and ignored. Participants also reported limited administrative support and lack of developmental resources, which they craved. Participants believed that, at times, the university also ignored students in accelerated programs, who felt isolated from the university. Whether faculty members were full-time or adjunct, taught on the main campus or extended sites, all averred adult programs marginalized them and they were not appreciated for their work (C. Johnson & Rose, 2015).

Adult learners appreciate accelerated programs because they can engage with other adults with similar backgrounds and complexities in their lives. The adults in these programs have multifaceted lives that require them to not only focus on their education but also on work and family. Many programs offer group projects and cohort programs where students can engage with and support each other (Kasworm, 2003). Because accelerated-learning programs cater to this population, students reported feeling comfortable attending classes (Donaldson & Graham, 2002; Kasworm, 2003). Many accelerated-learning programs take place at extended campuses that may be within miles of the main campus or across the world, aiming to be closer to the adult learners they teach.

N. Lee and Horsfall (2010) conducted an exploratory study at Swinburne University of Technology in Austria to investigate student and faculty perceptions of differences between coursework and effectiveness of 12- and 6-week classes. The university created 6-week sessions to take place during breaks between semesters, and the researchers sought to understand faculty views on the implementation of these accelerated classes. Students (n = 114) who participated in both formats completed online questionnaires. Additionally, 11 faculty members who taught the

same class in both formats participated in semistructured anonymous interviews to gather in-depth information (N. Lee & Horsfall, 2010).

Overall, 76% of students responded positively to the accelerated-course experience (N. lee & Horsfall, 2010). As to the difficulty of the coursework, 68% believed the level of rigor was similar between 6- and 12-week courses. Faculty members reported that accelerated coursework is most effective with highly motivated students and learning was more of the students' responsibility in the accelerated format. In the accelerated format, instruction strategies had to be adjusted to meet timeframes that included policies on absences, assessment criteria, and limiting the number of classes students could take during the 6-week period. Finally, faculty members reported administrative concerns in that they felt pressures preparing for classes as well as issues in hiring and training faculty members for these 6-week sessions. The faculty expressed concern that new faculty may not be prepared to teach these accelerated classes without increased support from the institution's leadership (N. Lee & Horsfall, 2010).

Colleges and universities are continuing to increase their use of adjunct faculty in the classrooms of their adult learners. Research on the adjunct population has increased but has focused on the criteria of development, satisfaction, and inclusion. The most recent research, however, only included adjunct faculty members who either taught on the school's main campus or in their online programs; they did not include faculty at extended sites.

Adjunct Faculty Research

Because institutions have begun to focus more on using adjunct faculty members in addition to their regular faculty, focus on how these institutions can better use these adjunct faculty members has grown. Researchers wrote many articles with an anecdotal approach, but limited empirical research focused on adjunct faculty members (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011;

Carr, 2015; Doyle, 2008; Gosink & Streveler, 2000; Hoyt, 2012; Wilson, 1998). Research conducted with adjunct faculty has focused on development, satisfaction, attitudes, inclusion, and motivation.

Development

The most extensively researched area on adjunct faculty members is development and training. Many studies on adjunct-faculty development have focused on orientation programs and faculty members' perceptions of training/development programs. Several researchers examined how colleges could create development programs for adjunct faculty at community colleges, online, or on 4-year traditional campuses (Diegel, 2013; Dolan, Hall, Karlsson, & Martinak, 2013; Forbes, Hickey, & White, 2010; Santisteban & Egues, 2014). Recently researchers also investigated how development programs could assist adjunct faculty members in becoming more effective at their institutions.

These authors found it to be critical to have development programs in place for adjunct faculty members for the institutions to retain them. The retention of qualified adjunct faculty is difficult, but development plans can create an environment where adjunct faculty members feel they can be successful (Forbes et al., 2010; Santisteban & Egues, 2014). Adjunct faculty members have expressed a desire to be included in development programs to encourage consistency in the classroom (Dolan et al., 2013).

Diegel (2013) conducted a phenomenological study to explore differences in perceptions between department chairs and adjunct faculty members on teaching support and professional development. Participants came from a community college that had created a faculty teaching center to support adjunct faculty teaching and had an adjunct faculty population of up to 30%. Individual interview participants were 15 adjunct faculty members and three division chairs; the

15 adjunct faculty members took part in a focus group to understand the results of the interviews better. Initial results revealed that adjunct faculty members believed their chairperson hired and supported them. Areas of concern for these adjunct faculty members were inclusion and communication. They needed time to exchange ideas with other faculty members. They desired a formal mentorship program to support their training and development. Finally, an organized orientation program and continuing education for adjunct faculty were important and desired to help adjunct faculty build their skills in the classroom (Diegel, 2013).

Forbes and colleagues (2010) examined adjunct faculty job satisfaction that resulted in an instructor shortage in nursing programs throughout the United States. To ensure quality, they believed hiring and retaining quality adjunct faculty members was critical, and understanding their development needs would assist in this area. The population comprised 132 adjunct faculty members at a medium-sized university teaching primarily undergraduate nurses. The participants' institution offered a 1-hour, non-mandatory group orientation and a full-time faculty course coordinator primarily used e-mail and telephone calls to support adjunct faculty members. The scholars used a survey to obtain demographic information and asked specific questions about frustrations, obstacles to their roles, and how they solved problems to overcome obstacles (Forbes et al, 2010).

The demographics showed a trend of significant adjunct faculty turnover in their program (Forbes et al., 2010). All but two of the 132 adjunct faculty members reported they would attend workshops and training even if continuing education credits were not offered. They desired topics on instructional design, developing test questions, and other classroom management. Other themes that emerged were inconsistencies in leadership, which led to role ambiguity, flagging role expectations, the need for technology assistance, and inadequate orientation. Based

on these results, the authors recommended creating a hiring infrastructure to allow for consistency in hiring, formal orientation, adjunct faculty participation in outside the classroom activities to integrate them into the university, and the creation of formal coursework for continuous faculty development (Forbes et al., 2010).

Santisteban and Egues (2014) conducted research in the area of nursing adjunct faculty members, performing a literature review of primary databases and reports from nursing programs and nursing organizations to explore the use of adjunct faculty members in nursing schools, due to the shortage of nurses and nursing faculty in the workforce. The researchers further explored the preparation, orientation, development, mentoring, and retention of adjunct faculty members and found limited literature in these areas. Recommendations from this literature review included a comprehensive orientation program followed by a mentoring program (Santisteban & Egues, 2014).

Lewis and Wang (2015) also studied orientation programs through a qualitative study to develop an orientation program to support new adjunct faculty members teaching online with cognitive, intellectual, and applicable skills for online teaching and to measure the effectiveness of the orientation once developed. The researchers explored the following topics: policies and procedures, student demographics, the online environment, assessing students online, and best practices for designing quality online classes. Adjunct faculty members in a new online degree-completion program participated in a 6-week self-paced online orientation program that includes seven models to cover the curriculum. Lewis and Wang asked adjunct faculty members to participate in a critical-incident questionnaire survey about the effectiveness of the orientation; 74 of 118 completed the survey. Of those who completed the survey, 45 were adjunct faculty and 28 were full-time. The questionnaire asked what activities they felt best engaged them, what was

most confusing, and they found most helpful. Initial responses showed adjunct faculty members believed they obtained necessary competencies to coach students and to use technology in their classes. Participants believed this training was meaningful and necessary for their competence to teach online (Lewis & Wang, 2015).

Dolan and colleagues (2013) reported findings from a survey administered in 2009 to adjunct faculty members in Maryland to understand types of professional development adjunct faculty members have available. The researchers conducted this same study in 2006, using findings to understand growth in gaps that still exist. Participants were 1,645 adjunct faculty members at 2- and 4-year colleges who completed a survey covering demographic information and professional-development programs, including faculty orientation, mentoring programs, and other professional development. Study findings were consistent with the 2006 study; the use of adjunct faculty continued to increase, and they were teaching at multiple institutions.

Participants reported no clear regularity in how universities train or support adjunct faculty members across institutions. Faculty members desired more development than was provided. Topics of teaching methods and student motivation were of interest to more than 70% of participants; they reported reading articles, blogs, and discussions with other adjunct faculty members to gain this knowledge. Ultimately the researchers recommended a higher level of training and development to retain quality adjunct faculty members and to provide consistency in classrooms (Dolan et al., 2013).

Sandford, Dainty, Belcher, and Frisbee (2011) explored occupational education officers' perceptions of adjunct faculty's willingness to participate in professional-development opportunities and the best method and times to deliver these programs. Questionnaires were completed by 51 occupational education officers at community colleges in the United States who

engaged in professional-development opportunities. Sandford et al. recommended at least one professional-development activity be offered each academic year and the best time to schedule the training is an evening, with awareness of adjunct faculty's work schedules and travel time to participate in training. They further recommended that community colleges explore professional-development programs outside their institution. Final recommendations were to explore possible remuneration of per diem and travel expenses to participate in the training.

Although these studies document the importance of faculty development for adjunct faculty, currently no standards or requirements exist. These researchers displayed the desire of adjunct faculty members to access options and the need for formal programs. These studies discussed the critical nature of development and even touched on satisfaction and inclusion issues on the main campus; however, they did not discuss accelerated learning formats and extended campuses.

Satisfaction/Inclusion

Many studies showed that strong training and development programs for adjunct faculty members led to increased satisfaction and a feeling of inclusion with the institution. Along with development, a great number of studies relating to adjunct faculty members took place in the areas of satisfaction and inclusion (Feldman & Turnley, 2004; Gullickson, 2011; Hoyt, 2012). Key factors in satisfaction of full-time and adjunct faculty members in these studies was feelings of being valued and recognized for their work and having autonomy in their classrooms (Gullickson, 2011). Adjunct faculty members reported being provided the support and tools necessary for their success, important to their happiness. Working conditions and job awards impacted attitudes and job behaviors for adjunct faculty members (Feldman & Turnley; 2004).

Gullickson (2011) explored job satisfaction and motivation of full-time and adjunct faculty teaching online for Iowa community colleges to understand if these two populations differed. Participants were 38 full-time faculty members; 35 adjunct faculty members completed a survey instrument measuring their job satisfaction and motivation. Results indicated that full-time faculty and adjunct faculty were highly motivated by the recognition of their performance and felt they were effective. They also reported higher job satisfaction when they were allowed more autonomy in their online classes. Other factors that impacted their motivation and satisfaction were relationships with peers, flexibility in their teaching, and the reputation of the institution. No significant difference emerged between full-time and adjunct faculty members (Gullickson, 2011).

Satisfaction and loyalty were the focus of Hoyt's (2012) research. Hoyt proposed that the more satisfied individuals are, the more loyal to the institution they will be, and that providing training, development, and oversight will enhance learning in the classroom by retaining quality adjunct faculty. Adjunct faculty ($N = 358$) members at Brigham Young University's satellite campus in Salt Lake City participated in the Web survey. Initial survey results showed that 53% of adjunct faculty members had primary employment elsewhere and adjunct teaching was a secondary income for them. Further, only 56% attended an orientation, 49% were assigned a faculty mentor, and 31% attended additional training provided by academic departments. As to preferred teaching methods by adjunct faculty members, 97% used lecture and discussion, 78% used multimedia, and 69% assigned papers for assessment. Adjunct faculty members reported a high level of loyalty and job satisfaction, with 92% reporting they were proud to tell others they teach at the university and 75% agreed they were completely satisfied with their teaching. As to motivation, 98% of adjunct faculty agreed they enjoyed teaching, 69% reported personal growth

from teaching, but only 33% felt appreciated by their institution for the work they provide. Overall, several critical themes emerged: the importance of oversight and support, ongoing training, and development, need for autonomy in their teaching, and the need to feel appreciated for their teaching. Hoyt suggested focusing on the needs of adjunct faculty members and providing them with adequate pay and support to promote job satisfaction and improve loyalty.

Feldman and Turnley (2004) examined adjunct faculty and their desire to become full-time faculty. In this study, the researchers surveyed age, gender, educational level, previous jobs, future career goals, motivation, job satisfaction, commitment to the profession, in-role performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. The sample comprised 105 non-tenure-track instructors at a large state-supported university in the Midwestern United States who completed a questionnaire. Data showed younger adjunct faculty members and those with terminal degrees desired a higher status. As to motivation, the analysis showed that those individuals who accepted contingent work due to lack of other available positions felt significant desire for a full-time teaching position. Finally, job attitude and satisfaction were lower when faculty reported they desired full-time positions that were unavailable to them (Feldman & Turnley, 2004).

Many research studies also found that connectedness is important to job satisfaction. Building relationships in the university to foster a community environment is important for many adjunct faculty members (Elder et al., 2016). Job satisfaction increases when adjunct faculty members feel a connection with their institution and other faculty members as well as strong relationships with administrators (Eagan, Jaeger, & Grantham; 2015).

Elder and colleagues (2016) investigated the factors adjunct faculty members believed were important to their teaching. Elder et al. conducted the study in 91 mid-sized, Midwestern

baccalaureate nursing programs. The researchers sent the Adjunct Instructor Survey to deans of these universities requesting their participation in the research. Once the university agreed to participate, they forwarded the survey link to their nursing adjunct faculty members. The survey questions focused on areas of faculty development, academic resources, material resources and miscellaneous opportunities, and services. Of the 80 participants, 44% had been a nurse for more than 20 years and had taught as an adjunct for less than 3; 57% of respondents worked in a paid nursing position (Elder et al., 2016).

Adjunct faculty members' top five factors of importance were access to the course syllabus, library resources, evaluations of teaching, staff assistance with online-course delivery systems, and mentoring opportunities (Elder et al,. 2016). The researchers compared the responses of what was important for adjunct faculty members to what they said were available to them; the largest gaps were benefits such as networking opportunities, development programs, mentoring opportunities, and access to the course syllabus. These gaps are significant because 75.7% of respondents reported they had not held a teaching position before and were lacking knowledge of institutional policies, schedule, and teaching responsibilities. Adjunct faculty members desired to build relationships; participating in mentoring programs was extremely helpful to new adjunct faculty members in learning new skills and experiencing success in the classroom. Although adjunct faculty desired training and development opportunities, these participants held other positions that impacted their availability to participate in training (Elder et al., 2016). Thus, programs for this population need to be flexible and work with their schedules.

Many factors impact adjunct faculty members' satisfaction. Job satisfaction is important because higher job satisfaction increases productivity, loyalty to the institution, and reduces turnover (Eagan et al., 2015). Many researchers identified a need to increase development of

adjunct faculty members and provide them more support. Isolation and the need for inclusion can be a concern for adjunct and part-time faculty in colleges and universities. These faculty members, at times, feel they are not part of their institution or that the university does not appreciate the work they do.

Meixner, Kruck, and Madden (2010) explored part-time faculty and their experiences in their institutions concerning the support they receive through mentoring and development programs. The researchers further investigated communication and interactions with 58 part-time faculty members to understand if their needs were met. Meixner et al. used a qualitative method at a mid-sized undergraduate public university in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. Data accrued using a survey with demographic information and open-ended questions about challenges in their teaching, additional knowledge and skills they desired to learn, inclusion in their department, and suggestions on how their department/institution can improve inclusion of part-time faculty members (Meixner et al., 2010).

Findings were consistent across participants. Outreach from the university was extremely inconsistent and communication was often nonexistent (Meixner et al, 2010). Many participants shared a concern about student engagement, work–life integration, and community disconnection. They felt disconnected and lacked the skills to be successful in the classroom. Integration into the university was an overall theme, causing the researchers to recommend institutions create development plans and programs to support part-time faculty members. All participants desired inclusion, support, and development opportunities (Meixner et al., 2010).

Eagan and colleagues (2015) explored adjunct faculty job satisfaction in relation to the availability of support services and an inclusive campus environment. The researchers analyzed data from the 2010–2011 Higher Education Research Institute faculty survey and gained 4,169

responses from 279 4-year colleges and universities. Of respondents, 73% were underemployed or involuntarily employed part-time and the majority were dissatisfied with their relationship with administrators and colleagues at their institution. Adjunct faculty members reported they were treated as less than full-time faculty and did not feel connected to the institution. As to campus resources, adjunct faculty members who were provided office space and other campus support had significantly higher job satisfaction. The researchers recommended administrators and department leaders create programs to integrate adjunct faculty members into the institution and find ways to increase their interaction to improve job satisfaction (Eagan et al., 2015).

Jolley, Cross, and Bryant (2014) investigated the experiences of adjunct faculty members at a community college in their perceptions of assessments at their institutions. Further, the researchers studied the challenges adjunct faculty members face when delivering instruction at the community college level. The qualitative study included interviews with 20 current and former adjunct faculty members to gather the data. In this study, 19 participants reported their teaching was their primary source of income. Two major themes emerged in the study: engagement for adjunct faculty members and failure to provide sufficient assessment at the institution and department levels. Interviews revealed a very emotional response on perceptions of the lack of inclusion in the university and adjunct faculty members felt unnoticed and unrecognized. Participants reported feelings of being unappreciated and frustration with the institutions and desired more inclusion and development to be successful in their teaching (Jolley et al., 2014).

Policies and procedures that are specific to adjunct faculty have a positive effect on the inclusion they feel in their institutions. Cronin and Smith (2011) studied how adjunct faculty believed they were supported in their positions by the university. The researchers concluded that

adjunct faculty who feel connected to the university challenged perceived mistreatment or shared concerns more than those who felt disconnected from the campus. Adjunct faculty members reported concerns because they may not be guaranteed future classes and may be less likely to advocate for themselves to challenge leadership for fear they will not be asked back (Cronin & Smith, 2011).

Kezar (2013) conducted multiple case studies of three institutions to explore whether policies and procedures developed specifically to support adjunct faculty impacted their willingness, capacity, and opportunity to perform. The researcher specifically chose 4-year institutions to research because several studies had been conducted with community colleges adjunct faculty members and these institutions had too little time to adjust to the growth of part-time faculty. The sample was made up of 25 departments at three institutions, with the desire to interview four to six individuals at each institution. Data accrued through one-on-one interviews with adjunct faculty members, structured to gather demographic information, their perspective on the institution, department and existing policies, views on departmental values, the impact of policies on their performance, interaction with other departments, communication, and an open-ended question to allow them to provide other information not asked in the interview (Kezar, 2013).

Through the interviews, four cultures emerged: destructive, neutral, inclusive, and learning (Kezar, 2013). Those in the destructive and neutral cultures performed with extreme difficulty. They lacked support and negative policies impacted their performance. Inclusive cultures did not necessarily support student learning but were supportive of the non-tenure-track faculty. Inclusive cultures did increase willingness to perform but did not always provide the support necessary for success. The learning culture was supportive and allowed adjunct faculty

members to be successful in their teaching through policies and procedures that provided tools necessary to teach (Kezar, 2013).

Conducting further research in the area, Kezar and Sam (2013) explored how institutions can develop strategies to implement policies and procedures to support adjunct faculty members and explore what challenges exist in trying to create these policies and practices. The research focused on the idea of institutionalization, defined as a type of change that is sustainable and becomes embedded in the institutional culture. The researchers used qualitative interviews and document reviews to gather data and conducted interviews with 45 individuals at 30 institutions. The documents review included employment contracts and policy documents to search for positive practices, policies, and language. The researchers then spent a year participating in contingent faculty Listservs to observe issues discussed by participants (Kezar & Sam, 2013). The analysis of data indicated that strategies institutions need to put strategies in place to support change. Without these plans, adjunct faculty members cannot move through the phases to institutionalization. In discussing the challenge of adjunct faculty members, Kezar and Sam (2013) reported divisions among the faculty, administrators unwilling to change, isolation of adjunct faculty members, and a reluctance to get involved in changes.

Researchers showed a clear need for institutions to focus on increasing inclusion activities for adjunct faculty members. A lack of inclusion and a feeling of disconnectedness impacted loyalty to the institution. The more a university can develop programs to link adjunct faculty members to the institution, the more the opportunity to develop and retain them will increase.

Motivation

The study of workplace motivation is a vast area of study. Most studies that included adjunct faculty members examined only their motivation to teach online. Although faculty members reported they were committed to helping students, they needed to meet their basic psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Dutton, 2009; J. Lee, 2001).

Cook and colleagues (2009) reported findings of four different studies about how motivation plays a role in a faculty member's desire to teach online. The first study, conducted in 1998 with 440 participants who did not currently teach online, explored why adjunct faculty members would be interested in teaching online. The top five reasons they desired to teach online were the ability to reach a new audience, the opportunity to develop new ideas, the ability to use technology, the intellectual challenge, and overall job satisfaction. The inhibitors to teaching online were lack of technological support, concern about the workload, lack of time, the need for a grant for materials, and concern about course quality (Cook et al., 2009). A second study conducted in 2000 used a modified version of the first study with 263 participants who also did not currently teach online. The top five motivating items in this study were intellectual challenge, an opportunity to diversify offerings and develop new ideas, job satisfaction, and an opportunity to improve teaching. The five inhibitors were lack of time, limited support, encouragement from administrators, lack of merit pay, limited support from colleagues, and lack of monetary support for participation (Cook et al., 2009).

Cook and colleagues (2009) conducted a third study with a similar focus and reported responses from 157 full-time faculty. Their top five areas of importance for online teaching were improved student learning, an advantage over traditional learning, equipment availability, increased student interest, and ease of use. The five barriers to online learning were lack of time,

lack of equipment, lack of training, lack of professional development, and lack of relevance to faculty (Cook et al., 2009). The final study occurred in 2003 with 217 participants reporting on their views of online programs. Their top five areas of importance in teaching online were traditional service, monetary rewards, insufficient rewards, technical and administrative support, and professional prestige. Participants reported barriers of a lack of rewards to teach, lack of technical support, lack of technical background, concerns over professional quality, and concern over student work. Overall, the first three studies emphasized the importance of development opportunities, connectedness to their university, and wanting overall job satisfaction whereas the fourth study agreed in principle with the first studies, but also discussed the importance of extrinsic incentives to teach (Cook et al., 2009).

J. Lee (2001) discussed the perceptions at many institutions that distance education is not valued or rewarded for faculty members and lack of promotion, tenure, and salary decisions could negatively impact faculty, taking time away from scholarly activities such as research and publications. J. Lee explored full-time faculty and their willingness to teach online with regard to motivation and organizational support. Participants hailed from 25 different intuitions and included a mix of faculty members and administrators: 237 participants completed a Web survey to understand POS and training provided to them, impacting their commitment, motivation, and satisfaction to teach online (J. Lee, 2001).

Results indicated faculty are highly motivated and committed to teaching online, but reported higher satisfaction at universities where they experienced a higher quality of instructional support for their online teaching (J. Lee, 2001). Although participants did not feel supported to teach online, they had high intrinsic motivation and commitment to teaching online. Faculty desired development programs to increase their competence in online teaching and

reported that their lack of knowledge created hesitation in teaching online. Overall, participants reported a higher level of motivation, commitment, and satisfaction when they felt supported by their schools (J. Lee, 2001).

At the University of Calgary, Dutton (2009) conducted a study to understand whether contingent or adjunct faculty members were intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to teach at their institutions, grounded in SDT. While the Canadian and United States University systems are different, this provided research of Adjunct Faculty members and SDT. Results showed that adjunct faculty members tend to believe they make an important contribution to higher education. Adjunct faculty members experienced lower job satisfaction because of the lack of inclusion they felt in the institution. Finally, adjunct faculty members were more intrinsically motivated to teach because of their enjoyment in sharing their knowledge and the connection they felt with their students (Dutton, 2009).

Having a grasp of an adjunct faculty member's motivation to teach can be a powerful tool. Such motivation can arise in training and development programs to increase job satisfaction and institutional connectedness. These studies suggested that high motivation to teach translates into higher institutional loyalty (J. Lee, 2001).

Self-Determination Theory

Another area extensively researched is Self Determination Theory. Introduced by Deci and Ryan in 1985, SDT focuses on three basic psychological needs: competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004). The motivation to meet these needs differs depending on the individual, although everyone has the same basic needs. Deci and Ryan (2000) claimed people pursue goals and relationships to support individual needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Although the majority of previously discussed adjunct-faculty

40

research did not directly use SDT as a framework, many studies found adjunct faculty members desired to feel competent in their teaching (Diegel, 2013), relatedness or connected in the university community (Dolan, 2011), and wanted autonomy in their classrooms (Gullickson, 2011).

Competence indicates one's desire to effectively address the environment (Deci & Ryan, 2000). One's capability to complete a task or responsibility reflects this basic need. Positive feedback and support increase a person's feeling of competence (Gullickson, 2011). Competence was an important component in faculty research, and although the research did not discuss SDT, participating adjunct faculty members reported lacking confidence in the classroom and wanting to enhance their skills through training and development programs to help them feel successful (Diegel, 2013; Forbes et al., 2010; Gullickson, 2011; Lewis & Wang, 2015; Santisteban & Egues, 2014).

Another critical psychological need in SDT is relatedness. Relatedness is the need to feel connected to others and be a part of a community (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Relatedness aligns with how a person interacts and cares for others. Relationships are important when discussing relatedness and increases with a strongly connected community. Relatedness is very similar to inclusion, which adjunct faculty member's desire (Cronin & Smith, 2011; Dolan, 2011; Elder et al., 2016; Meixner et al., 2010). Eagan et al. (2015) spoke directly to this topic, and although not citing SDT, found that adjunct faculty members were more satisfied when they had a relationship with other faculty members and felt connected to the university.

The need for autonomy is the final critical component of SDT. Autonomy is the desire to work on one's own and have a sense of independence when completing tasks. When people are allowed to have autonomy in their activities, they are empowered to make important decisions

about their tasks. This basic need is at the core of SDT and is critical to intrinsic motivation. Gullickson (2011) and Hoyt (2012) found that full-time and adjunct faculty members desired autonomy in their classrooms. The more autonomy adjunct faculty members had, the more satisfied they were in their teaching.

The primary difference between SDT and most other work motivation theories is that SDT focuses on the relative strength of autonomous self-determined motivation versus controlled motivation, rather than on the total amount of motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005). The theory proposes that an individual participates in tasks due to different motivation and therefore people are motivated to act due to internal drivers in pursuit of their basic psychological needs (Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004; Latham, 2011; Vallerand, 2012). An adjunct faculty member may be motivated to teach for a purely intrinsic reason such as their passion for sharing their knowledge, but they may be intrinsically motived to participate in department meetings for fear of not receiving a future class. A person who is intrinsically motivated is said to be the most self-determined; extrinsic motivation is considered other-determined.

Self-determination can also be explained by the level of autonomy a person has to complete a desired task. When an individual freely chooses to engage in tasks they find interesting, they control the requirements and expectations around those tasks. Even when completing tasks for extrinsic rewards, those who feel autonomous in the tasks will have a higher level of satisfaction and freedom to reach goals (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Understanding how autonomy diminishes is also critical because being more controlled can affect one's behaviors and motivation. Freedom to reach individual goals and empowerment on how to achieve goals allows a person to have a higher sense of autonomy and more interest in the task.

SDT proposes a continuum to explain the different levels of motivation. The continuum does not require individuals to pass through the different levels and can experience any level, depending on the task, their feelings about the task, and support of supervisors and their organizations (Deci & Ryan, 2000). These levels can be separated from a person's own beliefs to get the task completed when necessary. Individuals who have a higher level of self-determination will be more dedicated to the task (Lui et al., 2016).

According to SDT, motivation lies along a continuum from amotivation, where a person has no motivation or desire to engage in a task, to extrinsic motivation, where a person engages in a task for external rewards or to please others, to intrinsic motivation, where a person chooses to engage in a task due to interest, enjoyment, or satisfaction. Movement on this continuum rests on whether participation in an activity is for external or internal reasons and whether participation is other-determined or self-determined, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Self-Determination Continuum

	Amotivation	Extrinsic motivation			Intrinsic motivation	
Regulatory style	Unregulated	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Source of motivation	Impersonal	External	Somewhat external	Somewhat internal	Internal	Internal
Motivation regulators	No Intention	Compliance	Ego involvement	Valuing an activity	Congruence	Interest
	Incompetence	External rewards or punishments	Approval from others	Endorsement of goals	Synthesis with self	Enjoyment
	Lack of Control					Inherent satisfaction
	Not self-determined				Self-determined	

Note. Adapted From "Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being," by R. Ryan & E. Deci, 2000, *American Psychologist, 55*

External Regulation

Deci and Ryan (2000) labeled the most extreme external motivation as external regulation. When a person engages in an activity to get rewards or to avoid punishments, they are exhibiting external-regulated extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gagne, 2014) in that others control rewards and punishments: an outside stimulus controls this type of regulation. When an adjunct faculty member teaches simply for money or accepts a course due to the fear of not having a future contract to teach, they are displaying external regulation. As another example, an adjunct faculty who has no desire to attend a Saturday training session but attends to avoid the possibility of not being assigned future classes displays externally regulated motivation.

Introjected Regulation

Introjected regulation is another form of extrinsic motivation but takes a step closer to intrinsic motivation (Gagne, 2014). Here, the reason for engagement involves the ego, which is internal, but the primary reason for action is to gain approval from others. In essence, motivation to engage in an activity is to impress others and to bolster one's ego (Gagne, 2014). An adjunct faculty member who teaches a course to show off expertise and gain praise from students is likely displaying introjected regulation.

Identified/Integrated Regulation

Identified and integrated regulations are forms of extrinsic motivation but move closer to being internalized and intrinsic (Gagne, 2014). At these levels, people are motivated by personal values or goals and begin to internalize tasks as if they were their own. These levels are the most internalized of external motivation, and the behaviors are self-determined due to the act being autonomous and of one's own volition (Deci & Ryan, 1985). A person may choose to participate

in an activity to reach personal goals, even though they may not completely enjoy or be interested in the activity (Gagne, 2014). Individuals are willing to accept a task as important; therefore, they accept responsibility for meeting that goal or job. "When a person identifies with an action or the value it expresses, they, at least at a conscious level, are personally endorsing it, and thus identifications are accompanied by a high degree of perceived autonomy" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 17). For example, adjunct faculty members may choose to participate in university committees because doing so will benefit their personal goals. However, they may not have an extreme interest or gain inherent satisfaction from committee membership.

Intrinsic Motivation

Ideally, intrinsic motivation is most desirable. Here, people freely choose to participate in an activity for inherent satisfaction and enjoyment. Participation is self-determined as people freely choose tasks because they are important, interesting, challenging, or contribute to individual growth (Deci, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT proposes that self-determined or freely chosen tasks best meet fundamental human needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Although people are intrinsically motivated to engage in a task, they may also seek extrinsic rewards like money or recognition. Rewards might also be intangible such as threats, deadlines, directives, pressured evaluations, and imposed goals that might diminish intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic rewards like pay or recognition can create a challenge in that people may feel controlled by these rewards, causing negatively impacting motivation. In general, discussions on the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsically motivated tasks had a negative impact on a person's desire to continue the task. However, money is a difficult factor to study in that job decisions are typically made based on money, but job-retention decisions are

typically based on autonomy and culture (Latham, 2011). A way to balance this situation of money and autonomy is for the workplace to be perceived as fair and not controlling such that employees can develop a team environment to support the pursuit of their individual goals.

Self Determination Theory Research

Although researchers have not specifically studied SDT with adjunct faculty members or at extended campuses, they have conducted many studies in education. These studies build on one's basic needs and the tendencies to attain those needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Researchers have used SDT in many areas of elementary and secondary education in several countries including Greece, Israel, and Europe (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Fernet et al., 2008; Gorozidis & Papaioannou, 2014; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007; Van den Berghe et al., 2014).

Roth and colleagues (2007) explored whether Israeli elementary teachers distinguished between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation when referencing teaching specific classes and where those tasks fell on the self-determination continuum. The researchers also explored if autonomous motivation teaching aligns with meaningful outcomes for teachers and students. Completing questionnaires assessing autonomous motivation for teaching, feelings of exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and social desirability bias were 132 female teachers, and students completed questionnaires on their perceptions of their teacher's autonomy-supportive and competence-supportive teaching behaviors and autonomous motivation to study for these classes. Participants fell in various places along the self-determination continuum for motivation; more importantly, the higher teachers' reported self-determined motivation level, the more positively they had a sense of accomplishment and fewer feelings of exhaustion in their jobs.

Also, the higher self-determined motivated the teachers were, the more their students displayed higher self-determined motivation as well.

Van den Berghe and colleagues (2014) examined physical education teachers' motivation about their need satisfaction, how their instructional style impacted students, and burnout. The researchers used the SDT continuum to identify motivation profiles and basic psychological needs. Van den Berghe et al. evaluated responses from 193 teachers using a multivariate analysis of variance to understand differences in need satisfaction, motivation burnout, and need support for students. Scores for self-determined motivation positively aligned with need satisfaction, less burnout, and positively engaged students in the classroom. Furthermore, participants were largely intrinsically motivated to teach. Teachers who felt more controlled and less autonomous showed a higher level of burnout and created a less supportive environment for students.

Eyal and Roth (2011) explored the relationship of transformational leadership and self-determination motivation of employees. The researchers predicted that transformational leadership would predict self-determined motivation in teachers and would impact fatigue. Transformational leadership is the ability of leaders to impact individuals by nurturing their needs, empowering them to act, and supporting to foster a desire for the institution's greater good above one's own goal attainment. Participants were 122 Israeli elementary teachers participating in a voluntary 60-hour in-service professional-development course. Participants completed questionnaires to measure principals' leadership style, teachers' motivation type, and a fatigue scale to measure emotional exhaustion. Study results revealed that transformational leadership, as perceived by teachers, had a negative association with their fatigue and was a factor in encouraging self-determined motivation. Further, teachers who reported more self-

determined motivation felt more engaged in their work and believed their tasks were more meaningful.

Timms and Brough (2013) studied career satisfaction and work engagement by exploring Australian teachers and how they meet their basic psychological needs, as discussed in SDT. The researchers hypothesized that career satisfaction would be higher when more self-determined and that satisfaction aligns with work engagement. They also hypothesized that control, rewards, community, work satisfaction, and work–life balance would have a positive association with engagement. Findings showed strong evidence between SDT and career satisfaction as well as work engagement. Teachers reported being highly satisfied with their career choice, significantly aligned with their work engagement. The more engaged teachers were, the more productive they were in their jobs. The most concerning results of the research was that teachers believed their profession was not highly valued in the community and could negatively impact their desire to continue to teach (Timms & Brough, 2013).

Zhang, Zhang, Song, and Gong (2016) explored the impact each regulation had on work performance and which regulations were better predictors of work performance through two studies. The first study profiled employees' work performance and type of regulation. Zhang et al. selected participants from several companies throughout China who completed a questionnaire about their motivation while their supervisors completed a questionnaire to assess their employees' work performance, resulting in 415 responses. The second study had a longitudinal design to examine the stability of motivation and performance. Participants hailed from several companies in Beijing and data accrued in the same manner as the first study, with 139 matching responses (Zhang et al., 2016).

The two studies showed intrinsic motivation and identified that regulation had a significant relationship with employees' performance by keeping employees focused on the long-term impact of their activities and identification with the organization's goals and values (Zhang et al, 2016). Although intrinsic motivation was the most self-determined, identified regulation may have had a more positive impact on job performance because whereas intrinsic motivation drives a person to engage in work due to interest, employees may not find certain tasks interesting. In these situations, extrinsic rewards may be the incentive to push performance. In the workplace, having well-internalized regulations can predict work performance. Managers should focus on self-determined motivation to encourage workers to be successful in their tasks. The second study supported these findings over the longitudinal results and found that as individuals become more identified with their work, their work performance increases (Zhang et al., 2016).

Studies using SDT in higher education have been limited to full-time faculty, with the most common theme being technology use and online teaching. Cook et al. (2009) researched the intrinsic motivation of faculty members who chose to teach in an online environment and found they desired connectedness to their institutions, development opportunities, and opportunities to develop their classrooms in an autonomous environment. Further research examined faculty and institutional support for online learning, finding that although all desired more development opportunities those faculty members who felt more supported by their institution had higher levels of motivation, commitment, and satisfaction in their teaching (J. Lee, 2001).

Wininger and Birkholz (2013) used SDT to explore instructors' use and feeling on instructional feedback and to discover the relationship between feedback provided and job satisfaction. Results did not provide any correlation between satisfaction and autonomy or

competence, but did reveal a relationship with relatedness. Relatedness with colleagues had a significant correlation when using instructional specialists and peer/administrator observation. Finally, job satisfaction linked to the fulfillment of all three basic psychological needs. When the needs were met, instructors appeared to be more satisfied with their jobs, and the likelihood of turnover was lower (Wininger & Birkholz, 2013).

Daly (2011) used SDT to examine how faculty-learning communities foster growth and development in universities. Participants included three public universities, two private liberal arts universities, and two community colleges that participated in a grant-funded project implementing faculty-learning communities at their campuses and included in Daly's research. The goal was to understand the experiences of faculty members in these communities. Daly selected 51 faculty members from their institutions' leadership based on academic discipline, diversity of personal characteristics, years of teaching, and a desire to participate in the learning community. Faculty members met weekly to engage in sessions discussing improving curriculum and pedagogy, which included conducting a campuswide needs assessment. After the year, 40 faculty members participated in semistructured interviews to share their perceptions of faculty-learning communities. Findings supported SDT in which faculty members desired the autonomy to self-organize and direct their development activities. Competence built through the needs-assessment process and change projects implemented whereas participants felt they met their need for relatedness through the community feeling this group created. The researcher recommended institutions implement faculty-learning communities and believed these types of communities would attract more effective faculty and improve commitment to teaching.

Lechuga (2014) conducted a qualitative study of 15 full-time tenured and untenured faculty members in the science, technology, engineering, and mathematics discipline. The

researcher used the SDT to explore participants' motivation to participate in scholarly activities at a public university in the southwestern United States. Interviews focused on how participants fulfilled their three basic psychological needs, based on SDT. Although mentoring was important for faculty members, the common understanding of a mentor did not work in the science and engineering fields. Traditional mentoring programs made them feel a loss of autonomy and competency. They recommended nonintrusive mentoring relationships where the mentor provided support for scholarly activities on a limited basis. Adjunct faculty members would like mentors to focus more on emotional support in an autonomous environment, thereby fulfilling their need for relatedness without inhibiting the perfection of being autonomous and competent in their scholarly tasks.

Researchers have also studied motivation and SDT on workplace motivation (Aryee, Walumbwa, Mondejar, & Chu, 2015; Chemolli & Gagne, 2014; Fernet, Gagne, & Austin, 2010; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Roca & Gagne, 2008). These workplace studies explored the relationships of motivation to job performance, satisfaction, and commitment. For example, Deci et al. (1989) tested SDT in the workplace by studying work climates created by managers based on their managers' interpersonal orientations. The scholars wanted to understand if managers who promote self-determination in their subordinates would trust their managers and be more satisfied with their jobs.

The first step in the study was to survey 1,000 employees to understand employees' perceptions of managers' interpersonal orientations and then evaluate the managers after training on how to promote self-determination for their employees (Deci et al., 1989). Employees worked in a remote setting and had little interaction with their managers. After the initial survey, an external change agent spent 13 working days with managers to review the results of the

Problems at Work and Work Climate Survey with them and to create training to improve their skills in leadership. The final phase of the research was to conduct the Employee Attitude Survey and analyze pre- and post-intervention scores (Deci et al., 1989).

Deci and colleagues (1989) found that before the interventions, the managers had a very little relationship with their subordinates, which impacted their subordinates' levels of self-determination. After the intervention and as the corporate culture improved, employees reported improvements in relationships with their managers and felt better supported, which increased their work satisfaction. An important part of the study was that it showed manager training can significantly impact employees' self-determination, which positively impacts people's work lives (Deci et al., 1989).

Roca and Gagne (2008) attempted to develop a research model to understand people's perceived autonomy support, perceived competence, and perceived relatedness, based on their perceptions of usefulness, playfulness, and ease of use of technology in the workplace. The researchers explained that the intention to use technology rested on attitude and their perceptions of usefulness and ease of use. Roca and Gagne gathered data from 166 workers who took at least one e-learning class at one of four international agencies with a web-based survey. Findings indicated that SDT could be used to understand workers' motivation to use technology in the workplace for e-learning. Workers reported they are more likely to participate in technology usage when they feel autonomous, competent, and supported in their usage, thereby increasing their enjoyment. Finally, when workers felt autonomously supported in their technology usage, they perceived it more positively and were more self-determined in their participation in e-learning. All 1,979 individuals showed high autonomous motivation under an autonomy-supportive leader, but only individuals with strong autonomous orientation continued their

orientation under more controlled leaders, showing that autonomously motivated volunteers are unaffected by their leaders' controlling ways. Also, individuals with a high level of controlled motivation felt significant pressure and obligation to autonomous-supportive leaders whereas those with high self-determined motivation did not report these same feelings. Overall results showed that charitable organizations should find ways to understand their volunteers' motivation and allow opportunities for these individuals to stop volunteering without feeling guilt toward their supervisor (Roca & Gagne, 2008).

Ramos and colleagues (2016) also examined volunteerism with the relationship among volunteering, job characteristics, and volunteering motives of Swiss employees. Researchers believed that those with more self-determined motives would have a more positive mental health outcome over those with more controlled motives. Initial findings showed that when individuals experienced meaningfulness and autonomy in their jobs, they perceived they had greater control and engaged more in their work, resulting in lower fatigue and higher positive mental health scores. When exploring volunteering, those who reported controlled motivation to volunteer did not differ from non-volunteers regarding fatigue and stress appraisals whereas self-determined volunteers differed significantly from the two groups in fatigue levels and stress. Finally, volunteering might help minimize stress and foster an environment that improves engagement and diminishes fatigue. Ramos et al. recommended encouraging volunteering among workers for intrinsic action to occur.

Vanthournout, Noyens, Gijbels, and Van Den Bossche (2014) studied workplace learning and motivation to learn for workers in knowledge-intensive organizations and the impact learning had on the workplace climate created by supervisors. The researchers used SDT for the study framework. Study results showed a direct relationship between autonomous motivation and

deep learning. Lack of motivation caused problems with learning. When employees felt

pressured to participate in learning, they performed more superficially and did not gain much

knowledge from the training. Workplace climate that includes good supervision and freedom to

choose also positively impacted deep learning. Finally, good supervision, choice independence,

and self-determined motivation fulfilled employees' basic needs for autonomy, competence, and

relatedness (Vanthournout et al., 2014).

Aryee and colleagues (2015) used SDT and social-exchange theory to explore if need

satisfaction impacted the influence of overall justice on intrinsic motivation and trust in service

organizations in China. Survey analysis showed overall justice related to intrinsic motivation and

trust in the organization. Job performance was also related to needs satisfaction and level of trust

in the organization.

The research in the area of SDT supported the desires of an individual's desire basic need

of autonomy, connectedness, and relatedness related to their tasks. When these needs are met,

individuals are more self-determined and have higher satisfaction in their jobs. Employers can

create environments that foster self-determined motivation to allow workers to feel supported.

Employers want employees to succeed. Relatedness and connectedness are also important to

POS.

Perceived Organizational Support

Another important area for institutions to maintain is adjuncts' Perceived Organizational

Support (POS). Aligned with SDT, individuals desire autonomy, connectedness, and relatedness.

Employees also desire organizational support: that is, employees believe their organization

values and cares for them and the work they perform. Understanding the increase in employees'

instability in their jobs and dedication to the workplace creates concerns for companies

(Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). POS is the employee's interpretation of behaviors by organization leadership such as treatment when making a mistake, employee illness, or performance. Employees create assumptions for future situations based on their current experiences. A positive POS can increase job satisfaction, increase performance, lower turnover, and increase a person's mood at work (Yu & Frenkel, 2013).

An important component of POS is an employee's identification with the organization, described as an employee's involvement and sense of community in the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986), this sense of community directly ties to an individual's basic psychological need of relatedness, as put forth in SDT. Employees who perceive a high level of organizational support will work harder and have greater loyalty to their company (Allen et al., 2008; DeConinck, 2010; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009).

Allen and colleagues (2008) explored workplace factors that impact an IT professional's POS in their work environment. The researchers used organizational-support theory, which states that employees will work harder and be more loyal to their organization if they have a high level of organizational support. They further considered characteristics of employees' jobs to assess job challenge, autonomy, task variation, and perceived workload. Another factor was job stressors in relation to work exhaustion, role ambiguity, and role conflict. Finally, the researchers studied management support through pay-for-performance and mentoring. The researchers used information-technology employees for a state government in the south-central United States.

Survey results showed that career mentoring and an autonomous environment had the strongest positive influence on POS (Allen et al., 2008). Challenging work and workload were also important but were overshadowed by the work stressors of work exhaustion, role ambiguity, and role conflict. Overall, retaining valuable information-technology employees requires

organizations to invest in the development of their employees and provide the resources to complete their tasks (Allen et al., 2008).

Alparslan and Kılınç (2015) explored the impact of information communication and POS on energy at work and extra-role behavior. The researchers believed that when employees trust their boss, they will be more satisfied at work and more committed to the organization with a positive attitude toward their work. Informal communication in the organization and POS positively impacted employees' energy at work. Further, POS and employee energy positively impacted extra-role behavior. The population of this study was teachers in 459 teacher participants working at 25 primary schools (Alparslan & Kılınç, 2015).

Findings showed the importance of employees establishing friendly social relations and having a community feel in their organization (Alparslan & Kılınç, 2015). These relationships created a positive perception of organizational support, which built trust, increased an employee's energy toward their work tasks, and gained higher productivity and extra work behavior (Alparslan & Kılınç, 2015). Overall, organizations should improve social relations to allow employees to be more productive and enthusiastic at work.

Baranik, Roling, and Eby (2010) examined mentoring as it relates to POS and how this relationship affects career-related and psychosocial variables for employees. The researchers assumed the mentoring relationship creates a beneficial exchange between the mentor and mentee to provide emotional support, information, services, and status. They further assumed that mentors would be viewed as agents of the organization and could impact an employee's perception of organizational support. Participants were 733 substance-abuse counselors working in 27 community treatment programs across the United States. The survey focus was on the mentoring relationship between counselors and clinical supervisors. The researchers studied

mentoring support received and work attitudes using questionnaires developed for this research (Baranik et al., 2010).

The researchers found mentoring created a relationship between the mentor and mentee that increased POS and the mentee's work attitude (Baranik et al., 2010). Differences in the type of mentorship—career-related or psychosocial—impacted POS. Institutions must understand the differences for each individual. Finally, organizational agents can be valuable in improving POS and their relationships can build positive work environments and increase job satisfaction for mentees (Baranik et al., 2010).

Bosset and Bourgeois (2015) conducted two qualitative studies to identify whether employees are motivated to transfer learning from external training programs if they perceive organizational support for the training. The researchers conducted these studies in two continuing education programs at the University of Geneva in their Human Resources programs. The majority of participants held middle- to top-management positions. Interview questions were open-ended and related to individual and organizational factors that impact motivation to transfer learning. The first study focused on the role of personal goals for training and impact on POS to the motivation to transfer learning as well as participants' training goals, which may have included the desire to improve working conditions or to develop themselves as individuals. Results of the first study showed that when an individual felt a high level of organizational support, they were able to meet their individual training goals (Bosset & Bourgeois, 2015).

A second study included 18 adults who participated in semistructured interviews to explore feelings on their motivation to transfer learning and their perceptions of the relationship between their organizational support and motivation to transfer their learning (Bosset & Bourgeois, 2015). All participants showed a high level of motivation for their training and,

despite high motivation to transfer their learning, felt a lack of time at work. The hierarchical status of the training created difficulty in sharing their new knowledge. Overall findings indicated individuals show autonomous motivation to transfer their learning to their employees, which is good for the organization as well as individuals' personal goals. The study highlights the importance of training for the employee and the organization. The transfer of training is complicated and organizations should find ways to encourage the sharing of information regardless of the employee's level in the organization (Bosset & Bourgeois, 2015).

He, Pham, Baruch, and Zhu (2014) explored the relationship between POS and organizational identity, defining how individuals tie their identity to their employer. Further, they discussed exchange ideology, averring a positive relationship with POS and organizational identity. Exchange ideology is an employee's support of the organization, discerning if it is in line with their beliefs. The higher the level of exchange ideology, the more support employees feel from their organization. The researchers also investigated whether employee investment relates to identification with the organization and if investment impacts POS. The study included 502 white-collar employees from 17 Vietnamese organizations. Questionnaires were developed using scales to measure organizational identity, POS, identity employee investment, and exchange ideology (He et al., 2014).

The findings supported the researchers' beliefs that exchange identity would have a positive impact on POS and organizational identification (He et al., 2014). Further, POS may relate to organizational identification and has a positive impact on employee investment. A negative effect of exchange theory on organizational identity indicates that when an individual does not feel supported by their organization, they feel unappreciated and more likely to seek other opportunities outside of their current organization (He et al., 2014).

A. Kim and Barak (2015) examined workers in high-stress roles and their turnover intention, based on their workload and difficult positions. The researchers examined these workers' relationships with their supervisors to explore whether turnover would diminish if employees had a higher level of POS. A. Kim and Barak used a longitudinal method to collect data from 364 child-welfare workers over a year of their work-life. They conducted questionnaires at the beginning of the study, then at 6 months and 1 year. At 1-year, the sample size decreased to 130 participants who had returned all three surveys and completed all information in the questionnaires on the topics of role stress, leader–member exchange, POS, and turnover intentions (A. Kim & Barak, 2015).

As the researchers expected, leader–member exchange and POS impacted role stress and turnover intentions. Higher stress aligned with a lower quality of leader–member exchange and lower POS. Using the longitudinal data, A. Kim and Barak (2015) found that as POS dropped during the first 6 months, worker turnover intentions increased, aligned with a decrease in leader–member exchange. Finally, those whose jobs required direct service had a higher level of stress than their supervisors. The researchers recommended this aspect be explored in future research to understand the reasons for these higher levels of stress (A. Kim & Barak, 2015).

Caesens and Stinglhamber (2014) explored the relationship between POS and mechanisms that positively impact job satisfaction and psychological strains. The researchers believed that the more employees perceived support and value, the higher their self-efficacy would be, thereby impacting individuals' work by the energy and effort put into tasks and increasing intrinsic interest in their activities. The sample included employees from two Belgian organizations. Caesens and Stinglhamber sent electronic surveys to 682 employees; 265 were usable for the research. The researchers used a second survey, completed by 59 supervisors of

the employees, to better understand these employees' performance. Supervisors completed an assessment of employees' in-role performance as well as extra-role performance. POS positively impacted self-efficacy and, as a result, workers were more engaged in their work tasks. Further, when workers had a higher level of self-efficacy, they were more satisfied, less anxious about their work, and reported fewer psychosomatic health complaints (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014).

K. Kim, Eisenberger, and Baik (2016) investigated the relationship of POS and affective organizational commitment on workers' perceptions of organizational competence. The researchers believed workers would be more committed to an organization they feel is more competent, regardless of POS, but an individual would not be as committed to an organization they viewed as competent if they did not feel supported. Further, the researchers believed that POS and affective commitment would increase a worker's job satisfaction and performance. The final research question was whether leader consideration more positively related to workers success than perceived organizational competence (K. Kim et al., 2016).

The research was conducted in three studies (K. Kim et al., 2016). The first study was an online survey that measured 363 employees of a local government agency in the southwestern region of the United States on a variety of job functions such as information technology, maintenance, health services, police, and emergency services. The questionnaire included questions on POS, affective commitment, and supervisors' evaluation of performance. The second study was conducted in a 2-year interval of social-welfare workers in the same region; 145 employees participated. The K. Kim et al. (2016) survey included data for perceived organizational competence, POS, affective commitment, and supervisors' evaluation of performance. The researchers distributed the final survey among workers in South Korea in 46

diverse organizations to measure supervisors' contributions, perceived organizational competence, POS, affective commitment, and supervisors' evaluation of performance. The researchers were able to match the 124 usable surveys to a supervisor's response (K. Kim et al., 2016).

Across all the studies, a relationship emerged between POS and perceived organizational commitment in that employees sought balance in their work relationships between themselves and their organization. Further, organizations workers perceived to be more competent added value to employees by better fulfilling their socioemotional needs. Employees viewed their supervisors as agents of the organization and generalized their treatment as standards to measure their views of the organization. Finally, POS and commitment positively related to employees' extra-role performance in that workers took on more work and performed more satisfactorily the higher their view of the organization (K. Kim et al., 2016).

Marique, Stinglhamber, Desmette, Caesens, and De Zanet (2012) sought to fill the gap in research investigating social-identity processes by studying organizational identification and organizational prestige in a relationship with POS and organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is the attachment, identification, and involvement one has with their organization and may be a key predictor of organizational commitment. Further, organizational commitment fulfills esteem, approval, and affiliation with the organization and creates a social identity for the individual, motivating individuals to maintain or enhance their self-image; employees are more likely to associate with organizations they believe will do this. Marique and colleagues (2012) conducted the research in two studies. The first study surveyed 253 employees at an international engineering company in Belgium to measure POS, organizational prestige, organizational identification, and affective organizational commitment. The second study

assessed the generalizability of the results from the first study by surveying 179 employees from

the Belgian postal service, measuring POS, organizational identification, affective organizational

commitment, in-role performance, and extra-role performance (Marique et al., 2012).

Findings presented evidence that organizational identification was important to the

relationship between POS and organizational commitment (Marique et al., 2012). Organizational

prestige impacted the relationship between POS and organizational commitment such that

commitment impacts employees' performance. The second study also found that organizational

commitment impacts organizational identification on extra-role performance, supporting

evidence from Study 1. Finally, POS leads an employee to feel connected to the organization,

which improves their attachment and job satisfaction (Marique et al,. 2012).

Lam, Liu, and Loi (2016) sought to evaluate whether employees identify themselves with

their organization based on POS and when they have a higher level of POS if the workers

identify with their work group, engaging in behaviors that more positively affect the organization

rather than their interests. Lam et al. queried nurses from three hospitals in central China,

collecting data online in three phases. Phase 1 was an online questionnaire of 479 nurses

measuring hospital tenure, POS, and collectivism; Phase 2 used the same group 2 months later to

understand views on organizational identification; 423 returned usable surveys. The final phase

again used the same nurses 2 months after Phase 2 to inquire about extra-role behavior; nurses

returned 363 usable surveys (Lam et al., 2016).

POS did impact how people identified with their organization and how intergroup

processes and behaviors positively impact employees' work identity (Lam et al., 2016).

Organizational identification was deeper and more stable when employees had a stronger

perception of organizational support. Finally, workers with high POS were more likely to take on

extra-role behavior and have stronger job satisfaction as a result of these factors (Lam et al., 2016).

Mallette (2011) investigated POS and psychological impacts on job satisfaction, commitment, and job/career withdrawal when a worker's employment pattern was voluntary rather than involuntary, also known as volition. The sample comprised randomly selected nurses through the use of the Ontario College of Nurses database. Mallette evenly divided the population into the employment patterns of full-time, part-time, and casual. The data measured in the surveys included POS, psychological contracts based on a continuum ranging from transactional to relational contracts, job satisfaction, job and career withdrawal, and career commitment. Returned usable surveys totaled 650 with 41% being full-time, 35% part-time, and the remaining 24% classified as casual nurses. The majority of participating nurses were working in the employment pattern they chose with only 11% reporting they were in an involuntary employment group of part-time or casual positions (Mallette, 2011).

One initial finding was nurses wanted to work in different work patterns, depending on their age, and as they grew older, they preferred to work more part-time or casual schedules (Mallette, 2011). When workers were in the work pattern they preferred, they experienced no impact on their POS. Also, if a worker felt supported by their organization, their employment status had no impact on their POS. Finally, the level of employment patterns did not have any impact on POS, but when an employee's POS was low, they had more of a transactional contractual relationship with the organization and less of a connection or commitment to their work (Mallette, 2011).

Karatepe (2012) explored the impact of coworkers and POS on employees in the tourism industry to discern whether it decreases turnover while improving job satisfaction and raising

service performance. Employee turnover is costly to organizations in tangible and intangible ways and has severe negative consequences for organizations. Karatepe chose the sample from full-time front-line employees such as front-desk agents, food service, door attendants, and bellhops at four- and five-star hotels in Cameroon. Employees completed the same survey twice to measure coworker support, POS, and job embeddedness. Supervisors completed a questionnaire to measure service recovery. Employees and supervisors returned 212 usable surveys (Karatepe, 2012).

Findings supported the idea that coworker support was important for employees to overcome issues (Karatepe, 2012). Furthermore, when employees had problems, they more often turned to coworkers first to assist them in resolving their issues. The researchers believed POS impacted workers' engagement, indirectly impacting employee turnover. Finally, POS had a positive effect on service recovery such that workers reported their positive efforts to meet the organization's goals would be rewarded based on their performance. Employees who felt the organization valued their contributions and cared for them were more likely to stay and be more engaged in their job (Karatepe, 2012).

Cao, Hirschi, and Deller (2014) examined POS with self-initiated expatriates in response to their career satisfaction as well as evaluating career-related social networks with host and home countries' impact on POS and the intention to stay in the country. Self-initiated expatriates are individuals who choose to go to another country to work and are not on an assignment from an organization (assigned expatriates). Researchers explored assigned expatriates and found that stress from work and life transitions to a foreign country are challenging and many organizations develop programs to support workers in this adjustment. When individuals choose to become expatriates, companies do not typically have the same support systems in place to assist with the

transition. The sample comprised expatriates in Germany due to their numbers, as well as the worker shortage in their country. Researchers recruited participants using invitations sent to networking groups that focused on expatriates. The criteria to select participants were stringent to ensure they were self-initiated expatriates, excluded if they were forced to migrate, were sent abroad by their company, moved with their parents, were foreign-born, or a high population from their country of origin was employed in the organization. Participants completed several scales to measure POS, career-network size with home/host country nationals, career satisfaction, and intention to stay in their host country (Cao et al., 2014).

Findings supported researchers' assumptions that POS did positive impact workers' desires to stay in their host county and improve job satisfaction (Cao et al., 2014). Further, findings indicated that cross-cultural networks provided major socioemotional and informational support that increased satisfaction for these workers. Finally, creating development programs to offer support to expatriates allowed them to feel successful in their new country and to meet their personal career goals (Cao et al., 2014).

Kawai and Strange (2014) conducted a study to add to the research of expatriate performance and the impact of POS on their work. The researchers explored consequences on expatriates' work assignments with social-exchange theory, grounded in the idea of mutual benefit and trust in the relationship between an employee and their organization. Further, Kawai and Strange investigated the importance of the organization's role in supporting expatriates in work adjustment and satisfaction in their job. Data accrued from Japanese expatriates based in Germany. Researchers mailed a questionnaire to 300 expatriates, solicited from the researchers' business relationships; participants returned 127 (Kawai & Strange, 2014).

Findings supported the researchers' hypothesis that expatriates who received support for their adjustments to their new country and support in their career goals had greater job satisfaction and reported a high level of POS (Kawai & Strange, 2010). Further, workers who felt POS had an increased level of obligation toward their organization and felt the need to reciprocate for the support they received. The final recommendation from the researchers was that managers should create support systems and programs to assist workers in their career goals to allow workers to take on new tasks and feel successful in their performance (Kawai & Strange, 2010).

Although these studies did not discuss SDT directly, POS creates a community feeling such that individuals identify strongly with the organization. This outcome speaks directly to the basic needs of SDT of competence and relatedness. Researchers found a relationship between POS and task performance as well as creativity. Using these findings, Yu and Frankel (2013) recommended improving policies to improve autonomy in the workplace to increase a worker's identified and intrinsic motivation.

Conceptual Framework

Colleges and universities have developed extended campuses to meet the needs of adult learners seeking education but unable to participate in a traditional university program due to work, family, and other responsibilities, illustrated in Figure 1. These campuses may be in the same town or across the world. With the creation of extended campuses, the use of adjunct faculty members has increased to meet the demands of this new population of students that require night and weekend classes. This new population of teachers are typically subject-matter experts in their field with little to no training on how to teach. Adjunct faculty members usually are professionals in their fields and teach part-time, so they have limited time available for

66

additional workloads that might be required of full-time faculty. When teaching at an extended

campus, adjunct faculty members have little communication with the main campus; at times,

their only link to the university is a small staff at the extended site. This study used SDT to

examine adjunct faculty members' motivation. When a person is self-determined or intrinsically

motivated, their basic needs are being met and they are more motivated to complete their tasks.

First, the research explored whether adjunct faculty members at extended campuses are more

intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to teach and examined perceptions of organizational

support at their extended campus. Then, the research studied self-determined motivation and

POS to discern if a relationship exists.
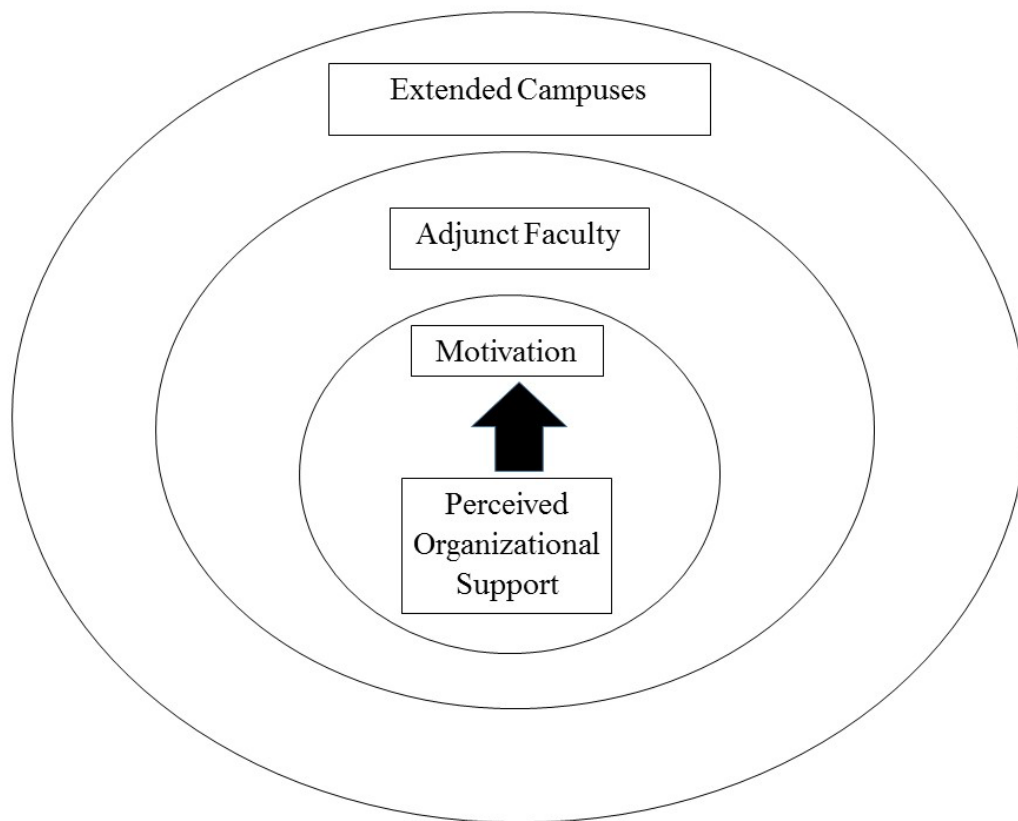
Figure 1. Conceptual Framework.

Summary

Changing demographics at colleges and universities are expected to continue, and the population of students continues to move toward adult learners, accompanied by a decline of traditional-aged students. These adult learners face managing work, family, friends, and school, producing a need to create nontraditional programs that include evening and weekend classes along with extended campuses to move classes closer to the population. These accommodations create staffing challenges for universities that are seeing shrinking budgets (Hoyt, 2012). One method colleges engage to meet these issues is the use of adjunct faculty for these programs. The usage of adjunct instructors is likely to increase in the future (Carr, 2015).

The lack of research in the area of adjunct faculty creates a void on this topic. A critical need exists to understand this population and to find ways to improve the work environment for this group (Hoyt, 2012). The majority of literature found on this population's needs is anecdotal and unsupported by research. Many hold assumptions about these adjunct faculty members, their motivations, and desires (Kezar & Sam, 2010). Researchers showed that intrinsically motivated teachers take on the job because they like teaching and find personal satisfaction in their job (Lui et al., 2016). Understanding the motivation and perceptions of organizational support among this group will help institutions hire, train, and retain a strong adjunct faculty.

Chapter 3 - Methodology

Introduction

This nonexperimental exploratory quantitative study examined adjunct faculty members' motivations and perceptions of organization support when teaching at an extended campus. The research also explored whether a relationship exists between demographics, motivation level based on SDT, and perception of organizational support. Due to minimal research available on adjunct faculty at extended campuses, the research sought to provide an understanding of these adjunct faculty members and to identify potential ways institutions could improve to meet their needs. This information may provide a framework for hiring, training, and retaining adjunct faculty.

Research Questions

The following research questions directed this research:

1. Are adjunct faculty members at extended campuses more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to teach?

2. How do adjunct faculty perceive organizational support at their extended campus?

3. Is there a relationship between POS and adjunct faculty members' level of motivation?

4. What is the relationship between an adjunct faculty member's motivation level and their reported demographics of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member, and years of teaching at this university?

5. What is the relationship between an adjunct faculty member's POS and reported demographics of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member, and years of teaching at this university?

Research Design

For this exploratory descriptive and associational research, the research used a nonexperimental design to determine if relationships exist between the variables of adjunct faculty members' motivation, POS, and their individual demographic information (as recommended by Campbell & Stanley, 1963). This method was chosen based on the review of previous research grounded in SDT, which reported a positive relationship between the variables of motivation and POS in a workplace setting (R. B. Johnson & Christenson, 2012). The survey method was used to conduct this research because this method allowed the researcher to involve a larger sample than other methods.

A self-designed questionnaire was used to collect participant demographic information, using the 18-item WEIMS (Tremblay et al., 2009) to measure the level of motivation (see Appendix B). The WEIMS allowed for the focus to be on the quality of motivation based on the self-determination-motivation continuum rather than simply whether one is motivated. To measure adjunct faculty members' perceived level of support, the 8-item SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986; see Appendix B) was used. The SPOS addressed employees' beliefs concerning how their organization views their contributions and well-being. In the following sections, the researcher discussed in details the key components of the research design: sampling, participant recruitment, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis procedures.

Non-Random Convenience Sample

The participants for this research were selected from a nonrandom convenience sample. A convenience sample is a group of individuals who are conveniently available to participate in the survey (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011). A convenience sample allows for an assessable group to take part in research and statistical inferences are possible, which is important for

researchers to be able to conduct research (Yu & Cooper, 1983). Collecting data from a representative group will allowed for making statistical inferences for the larger group of adjunct faculty members at extended sites in similar situations, based on collecting data from the representative group (aligned with Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001). The sample was nonrandom because the researcher did not randomize them and invited all adjunct faculty at extended locations to participate in the survey (as in Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003).

One risk in sampling is that not all adjunct faculty members will respond to a survey because it is voluntary and, thus, their thoughts will not be included in the responses. In order to minimize this possibility, all adjunct faculty members in U.S. extended sites at one institution were invited to participate, offering the chance to share their responses to this research. An additional risk is that generalizations may not represent the larger population. However, insights could be drawn from patterns observed and further explored with expanding samples that include similarly situated adjunct faculty members at mid-sized private universities with multiple extended locations. This sample allowed statistical inferences for the larger group of adjunct faculty members in similar situations (as suggested by Bartlett et al., 2001).

Instructional Profile

The institution used for this research is a global, Tier 1, private, not-for-profit university with its home campus in the Midwest. This 4-year college is smaller than a Tier 1 research institution and concentrates on the liberal arts (Bok, 2014). This institution is 100 years old and currently serves approximately 17,000 students worldwide, with 3,002 undergraduate students at its main campus. Approximately 40 years ago, the university decided to expand their business school to extended campuses, which now include 58 military and metropolitan sites in the United States and five international locations.

Five colleges and schools serve students in the areas of arts and sciences, fine arts, business and technology, communications, and education. The faculty comprises 221 full-time and 1,287 adjunct faculty members throughout the university system to include main campus, international sites, and military/metropolitan locations. The Higher Learning Commission regionally accredited the university, and the Accreditation Council for Business Schools and Programs accredited the business school.

Population

The population for this research was adjunct faculty members teaching at mid-sized private universities with multiple extended locations in the United States. No specific national statistics exist for this population of adjunct faculty members. The most recent statistics on part-time faculty, which also includes adjunct faculty, is the 2015 report from the NCES, which stated that part-time faculty comprise 50% ($n = 743,983$) of university faculty, compared to 22% in 1970 (Aud et al., 2012).

The NCES does not have a specific definition of part-time faculty, but does describe full-time faculty by their institution as full-time employed. Instructional staff are faculty members who teach the equivalent of at least 2 semesters a year. Using the selected sample, allowed for statistical inferences to be made for this larger population.

Sample

The sample for this study comprised adjunct faculty members at this Midwestern, private, nonprofit University. The university employs 1,287 adjunct faculty members across its multiple locations including the main campus, five international campuses, and 58 extended campuses on military installations and in metropolitan centers. For this study, adjunct faculty members (N = 737) at the 58 extended sites—military and metropolitan locations—were invited to participate.

Adjunct faculty members must hold at least a master's degree in the area they teach and have 5 years professional experience in a related field. These instructors may teach two classes a term but cannot exceed a total of eight classes per year. New adjunct faculty members are considered adjunct assistant professors and then promoted at 6 years to adjunct associate professors and a full adjunct professor at 10 years. At each level, they receive a minimal pay increase but no additional duties. Site directors hire adjunct faculty members on each campus and they report to those site directors who report to a regional director. Regional directors report to either the vice president of metropolitan or military campuses.

Although the researcher preferred full participation of all adjunct faculty members at this institution, it was difficult to obtain information from all adjunct faculty members because participation in the survey was voluntary. The minimum sample size was calculated to consider nonresponse bias and to allow for applicability of the research to the larger population (as in Bartlett et al., 2001). Following recommendations from Bartlett et al. (2001), with a sample size of 737, a z-value of 1.96 (alpha level of .05), and a calculated margin of error level at .043, the minimum return rate of usable surveys needed was 309.

Participant Recruitment

This research was conducted under policies of the University Research Compliance Office Institutional Review Board of Kansas State University and the institution whose adjunct members were surveyed. Participation was voluntary. Adjunct faculty members signed informed-consent forms (see Appendix A) at the beginning of the survey and had the choice to opt out of participation in this research. All responses were anonymous. Before receiving the survey, the vice presidents and campus directors of military and metropolitan extended campuses sent an e-mail explaining the purpose of the research and requesting their voluntary participation. The

survey was then e-mailed to all 737 adjunct faculty members with three follow-up e-mails sent

after the initial e-mail to encourage participation. Known limitations of e-mailing surveys were

the risk that an adjunct faculty member did not receive the e-mail due to an inaccurate e-mail

address or Internet security filters blocking the message (Cope, 2014); and that once the survey

was e-mailed, there is no way to be certain the person completing the survey was the intended

adjunct faculty member.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire used in the study contained a self-designed demographic questionnaire

and two scales on adjunct faculty motivation and POS. Demographic information collected

included gender, race, military or metropolitan location, years of teaching as an adjunct faculty

member, years of teaching at this university, and if adjunct teaching was their primary source of

income (see Appendix B).

The Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS)

Tremblay and colleagues (2009) created the WEIMS instrument to measure an

individual's work-motivation level grounded in SDT due to the lack of a validated English-based

tool. The researchers discussed many limitations in measuring motivation in that motivation was

previously defined as a person's work-related behavior with no regard for the intensity or extent.

Tremblay et al. believed that, to measure motivation, they must find a way to measure energy,

channel, and sustaining workers' behaviors at work. The motivation tests they discovered

focused on how to assess projective, objective, implicit, and subjective measures. They also

found that previous self-determination scales did not focus specifically on the workplace and

therefore the creators needed to develop an instrument that did so.

Tremblay and colleagues (2009) found the French Blais Inventory of Work Motivation (BIVM), which had not been translated or validated in English. Although the BIVM scale was lengthy, Tremblay et al. believed it important to use components of it to create an English version. To develop the WEIMS scale, the researchers took "the best three manifest measurement indicators of each of the five BIVM's original constructs … adapted using back to back retranslation techniques" (Tremblay et al., 2009, p. 215).

The researchers divided the 18-item questionnaire into six subscales that each have three items that correspond to the different levels of the self-determination continuum. For this research study, scores were combined into a single work self-determined index (W-SDI) score to determine whether an individual has a more self-determined or non-self-determined motivational profile. This result indicated whether an adjunct faculty member has more intrinsic or extrinsic motivation to teach at extended sites.

Tremblay and colleagues (2009) examined the internal consistency, construct validity, psychological constructs, and content validity for predicting positive or negative consequences based on motivation for the WEIMS scale; preliminary validation steps were part of the creation of the WEIMS scale. In the Tremblay et al. study, 109 participants completed the BIVM and WEIMS scale. The researchers conducted an exploratory factor analysis to identify where the two scales correlated. All 18 items from the WEIMS scale had loadings over 0.30; therefore, the researchers determined that the WEIMS scales, albeit shorter than the French BIVM, did assess all six motivational levels of SDT.

Tremblay and colleagues (2009) next used a sample of 465 members of a Canadian military force in two studies to test the validity of the WEIMS tool further. For validation, they divided the sample into two groups. They used the first group to test construct validation and the

second to measure content validation. In the first study, 205 participants completed the WEIMS as well as the SPOS, which measured participants' perceptions of whether their organization appreciates and cares. The Affective and Continuance Commitment Scale explored emotional commitment to their organization. The Job Satisfaction Scale measured satisfaction in the nature of job, salary, and benefits, promotion potential and recognition, working conditions, job security, and the value of their job. Finally, the Retention and Attrition Questionnaire explored participants' career aspirations and intent to leave or pursue a job change.

Tremblay and colleagues (2009) used confirmatory factor analysis to measure construct validity, choosing this method to test the hypothesized structure of their WEIMS scale. It also provided a more stringent test to measure the underlying structure of the instrument. They also used confirmatory factor analysis to determine the use of the WEIMS on different populations by comparing a military sample to the original BIVM scale. The analysis revealed a satisfactory fit. All sets revealed mid- to high item-to-total correlation, which indicated construct validity.

Cronbach's alpha values to test the internal consistency of the six subscales (Tremblay et al., 2009). Alpha values ranged from .64 to .83 for the six scales, which indicated adequate reliability. Tremblay et al. further reported that the subscales report only three indicators in each scale; the subscales show adequate internal consistency and the alpha scores are comparable to those obtained in the BIVM. Pearson correlations on the six subscales measured content validity where the researchers expected to find evidence of the self-determination continuum. Overall the pattern of motivation agreed with the BIVM scale, further providing support for the construct validity of the WEIMS scale as an English version of the BIVM. The findings in the first study by Tremblay et al. were appropriate across the subscales and indicated support for the construct and content validity of the WEIMS.

Tremblay and colleagues (2009) conducted additional research in a second study with the remaining group of Canadian Forces to explore the W-SDI and its criterion validity to ensure the test accurately predicted what it was supposed to predict for all variables in the WEIMS. The W-SDI provides a single motivation number that indicates if a person is more extrinsically or intrinsically motivated, based on SDT. The researchers initially ran descriptive statistics to ensure a normal distribution of participants, followed by regression analysis to examine the relationship between the WEIMS and work-related antecedents. POS and work climate significantly linked with the W-SDI, whereas job satisfaction and organizational commitment positively linked. Finally, work strain and turnover analysis negatively linked. These findings of the regression analysis supported the researchers' assumptions that a positive work environment fosters a higher self-determined motivation profile. The study also supported the notion that a positive work environment fosters a higher self-determined motivation profile.

The final study (Tremblay et al., 2009) measured the criterion-related validity of the WEIMS and the prediction of organizational criteria in relation to work self-determined motivation (W-SDM) versus work non-self-determined motivation (W-NSDM). The researchers sampled 192 workers in Canada using the WEIMS as well as the Organizational Involvement Scale, the Organizational Commitment Scale, Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale, and workplace deviant behaviors. The researchers ran descriptive tests to assess normal distribution patterns followed by regression analysis to investigate the appropriateness of the WEIMS in measuring W-SDM and W-NSDM. W-SDM positively linked to organizational involvement, commitment, and citizenship and negatively linked to deviant behavior; W-NSDM found the opposite. These results supported the use of the WEIMS for the two forms of work-motivation profiles.

The overall results of these studies found that the use of the WEIMS scale is reliable and valid, as advocated by the developers (Tremblay et al., 2009). The concurrent criterion validity was high, indicating that the scale measures motivation level, as the developers intended.

Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS)

The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (see Appendix B) has 36 statements to evaluate employees' evaluative judgments of how their organization might act in diverse situations that can benefit or harm the employee (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The questionnaire provides an employee's level of global belief of how an employer would react favorably or unfavorably. In order to control for response bias, half of the statements are positively worded and the other half negatively worded. Reliability and item analysis yielded a reliability coefficient of .97 for the full version of the scale and .80 for the 8-item version used in this study (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Shore and Tetrick (1991) used confirmatory factor analysis to determine the construct validity of this scale and to determine the uniqueness of this scale compared to similar scales. The researchers discussed the larger body of research on organizational commitment and how many areas of focus have included job involvement, career salience, and occupational commitment. They further discussed the limited research in the area of employees' perceptions of commitment to their employees. The creation of the SPOS provided a new factor of exchange relationship to the literature on organizational commitment. Similar to organizational commitment, which has tested scales, POS explores employees' attitudes toward their organization as a whole, which would suggest a relationship between workplace satisfaction and POS.

In the Shore and Tetrick (1991) study, 330 employees at a corporate headquarters completed the SPOS as well as an organizational commitment questionnaire, affective commitment scale, continuance commitment scale, and satisfaction to evaluate the construct validity of the SPOS. Using these data, the researchers completed a two-step analysis. Shore and Tetrick Used LISREL-PC Version 7 to assess the covariance matrix to determine if the scale was unidimensional. The next step was to form manifest indicators of each construct represented by the scales to test POS, organizational commitment, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and satisfaction. The analysis used chi-square, the goodness of fit index, and the root-mean-square residual. All chi-square values were significant, and the goodness of fit index was significant at .87 (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Researchers in both studies found that employees develop global beliefs about the organization based on their contribution and the perception that the organization cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

Pilot Study

In order to test the appropriateness of the research instrument, a pilot study was conducted before launching the full study (as suggested by Creswell, 1998). Invitations were sent to participate in the pilot study to seven adjunct faculty members and four men and one woman responded with teaching experience ranging from 7 to more than 21 years. The pilot survey tested the accuracy of combining the instruments as well as adding a self-developed demographic questionnaire.

The Qualtrics survey used for the pilot study included a self-designed demographic questionnaire along with the WEIMS and SPOS. Additional questions were added to the pilot to inquire about the length and ease of completion, clarity of instructions, and the individual survey

questions, which allowed participants to offer suggestions on any questions that were vague or they did not understand. All participants (N=5) reported the questions were clear.

One respondent recommended changing the sequence of the questions to separate positive and negative statements on the WEIMS scale. No changes were made because the scale aimed to prevent participants from answering questions with similar responses. The scale was updated in Qualtrics to require forced responses to each question and added headers to all sections.

Data Collection

Data accrued in Qualtrics by e-mailing a link to access the survey to all currently teaching adjunct faculty members using their institutional e-mail address. Participation was voluntary and participants agreed to an informed-consent statement (see Appendix A) at the beginning of the survey to complete the survey. If the participant did not agree to the informed consent, they exited the survey.

The survey was available for 30 days to allow participants to complete it online at their convenience. To remind participants and encourage participation, Follow-up reminder e-mails were sent a week apart, that is, on the 7th, 14th, and 21st day following the first survey e-mails. Participants returned 325 surveys and the final sample size of usable surveys was 322, for a return rate of 42%, which satisfied the minimum return rate of usable surveys (309). An additional 17 surveys were excluded from the study due to incomplete data.

Data Analysis

The data was downloaded from Qualtrics to an Excel spreadsheet as well as an SPSS file for analysis. The survey used a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (does not correspond at all) to 7 (correspond completely) for quantitative measurements. Motivation level, POS, years of teaching

as an adjunct faculty member, and years of teaching at this university were ordinal variables. Gender, race, and military or metropolitan locations were categorical variables.

Validity of the WEIMS and SPOS took place in the initial scale development. Therefore, no further validation analysis on the instruments (Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Tremblay et al., 2009). Validity reports whether the test measures what it is designed to test (Field, 2013). The criterion validity for the WEIMS was high and acceptable for future use in determining motivation level based on SDT. SPOS had construct validity (Shore & Tetrick, 1991), indicating one can use this tool for employees to self-report their commitment levels to the organization through their perceptions of organizational support.

Reliability analysis for this research was conducted using Cronbach's alpha by uploading responses to SPSS. Cronbach's alpha provides an estimate of scale reliability. A minimum acceptable level for research is .70 of a scale ranging from 0 to 1 (DeVellis, 2012). Because the W-SDI was compiled for the full WEIMS, a composite measure was not appropriate to determine reliability. Instead, a researcher ran separate reliability analysis for each subscale. For the WEIMS, there were six subscales as follows: Intrinsic Motivation (Q4, Q8, Q15), Integrated Regulation (Q5, Q10, Q18), Identified Regulation (Q1, Q7, Q14), Introjected Regulation (Q6, Q11, Q13), External Motivation (2, 9, 16), and Amotivation (Q3, Q12, Q17).

Internal consistency of these subscales was conducted with Cronbach's alpha. Four subscales were reliable above the Cronbach's α = .70 standard criterion (DeVellis, 2012): Intrinsic Motivation = .73, Integrated Regulation = .75, Introjected Regulation = .80, and External Motivation = .79. Two subscales were below this criterion: Identified Regulation Cronbach's α = .60 and Amotivation Cronbach's α = .60. Item analyses suggested that internal consistency could improve by dropping one item from each subscale. Identified Regulation,

Cronbach's α increased to .703 if Q1 was dropped. For the Amotivation subscale, Cronbach's α increased to .621 if Q3 was dropped. The researcher decided, however, not to drop these items from either subscale because scales with fewer than three items tend not to be psychometrically sound (DeVellis, 2012), making replication of results difficult, and a weighted composite of the six subscales, or the W-SDI, was to serve as the output variable in analyses and not each subscale separately, thereby minimizing concern over the lack of reliability of a single subscale.

The W-SDI composite scale was created using the following equation: (+3 x intrinsic motivation score) + (+2 x integrated regulation score) + (+1 x identified regulation score) + (-1 x introjected regulation score) + (-2 x external regulation score) + (-3 x amotivation score). A positive score indicated a self-determined profile, whereas a negative score indicated a non-self-determined profile (Tremblay et al., 2009). The possible range for the scale was -36 to +36.

The same Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis was conducted on the 8-item SPOS scale and a .90 alpha score indicated high reliability between those items. Based on the prior validity testing conducted on both scales during their creation (Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Tremblay et al., 2009) and the Cronbach's alpha reliability testing completed for this study, these two scales were reliable and valid for this study.

Research Question 1

Are adjunct faculty members at extended campuses more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to teach?

The initial research question explored whether adjunct faculty members at extended campuses are more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to teach. For the data analysis, the researcher used responses from the WEIMS to provide a single score to indicate whether an individual is more self-determined or non-self-determined. The researcher obtained the W-SDI

score by multiplying the mean of each subscale of the WEIMS by weights corresponding to their level of self-determination based on the instrument's instructions. Tremblay et al. (2009) provided the W-SDI formula as (+3 X intrinsic motivation score) + (+2 X integrated regulation score) + (+1 X identified regulation score) + (-1 X introjected regulation score) + (-2 X external regulation score) + (-3 X amotivation score) = W-SDI. The researcher conducted this analysis in Excel using the Tremblay et al. (2009) formula.

Research Question 2

How do adjunct faculty perceive organizational support at their extended campus?

The next question reviewed adjunct faculty members' perceptions of organizational support. The data analysis entailed calculating the level of POS using the SPOS. Eisenberger et al. (1986) explained that half the questions were positively worded and the other half negatively worded to control for agreement response. The appropriate questions were reversed scored in Excel, based on the instrument instructions. A single score was calculated from the average of all responses to reveal an adjunct faculty member's level of POS.

Research Question 3

Is there a relationship between POS and adjunct faculty members' level of motivation?

Results from Questions 1 and 2 were used to answer Research Question 3. The null hypothesis was that no significant relationship exists between adjunct faculty members' level of motivation and POS. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (r) with a significance level of .05 determined if a statistically significant relationship existed between motivation level and POS of these adjunct faculty members.

Research Question 4 and 5

Is there a relationship between an adjunct faculty member's motivation level and the demographics of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, and years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member? Is there a relationship between an adjunct faculty member's POS and reported demographics of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, and years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member?

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted using the enter method to explore the relationships between the demographic variables of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, and teaching experience with motivation level. The enter method was chosen as the researcher desired that all demographic information be explored for relationship at the same level. A separate multiple regression analysis explored relationships between these same variables and POS.

Dichotomous categorical variables were recoded to 0 and 1 in preparation for regression analyses (Field, 2013): Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female; Campus location: 0 = military, 1 = metropolitan; Adjunct teaching as primary source of income: 0 = no, 1 = yes. A frequency analysis of the race variable indicated that the distribution across the five categories was unequal: 76.7% White, 17.8% Black, .3% American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.3% Asian, and 3.9% "other." Given the small sample size for some categories, rather than dummy coding the variable to examine each racial group separately in the regression analyses, a new race variable was created: 0 = White, 1 = all other racial groups. The frequencies for the new race variable were White = 76.7% and all other racial groups = 23.3%. See table 2 below.

Table 2

Participant's Demographic Information

Variable	Percentage	
Gender		
Male	68.3	
Female	31.7	
Race		
White	76.7	
All other racial group	23.3	
Black		17.8
Asian		1.3
American Indian/Alaska Native		0.3
Other		3.9
Campus Location		
Military	49.8	
Metropolitan	50.2	
Adjunct as Primary Source of Income		
No	93.2	
Yes	6.8	

Further in the initial data preparation, preliminary correlational analyses used Spearman's rho for ordinal variables (Field, 2013) revealing that "Years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member" and "Years of teaching as an adjunct at this university" highly positively correlated, r_s = .803, p = .000. Predictors in regression analyses should not correlate at or above .80 to avoid multicollinearity (Field, 2013). To avoid this potential problem, the researcher chose to use "Years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member" in the multiple regression analysis. Initially, the researcher was going to use an average between the two variables; however, because the scale was ordinal rather than a ratio, analysis was limited using both variables. Cronbach's α for this new scale = .98. Preliminary regression analyses confirmed that having the two questions— Years of teaching as an adjunct and Years of teaching at this university—separately in the analyses tended to violate the collinearity assumption (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999).

The reseracher did not include the primary source of income in the analysis due to the low percentage (7.14%) of adjunct faculty members reporting this was their primary source of income. Given the lack of variability for this demographic question, the researcher did not use it in the regression analysis as a predictor. Table 3 shows correlations between all study variables

Table 3

Correlations Between Variables in the Study

Variable		1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Gender	—					
2.	Race	.299**	—				
3.	Campus location	.067	.014	—			
4.	Years of teaching experience	-.272**	-.289**	-.049	—		
5.	W-SDI	.004	.092	.009	.078	—	
6.	POS	.110	.058	-.100	-.130*	.272**	—

Note. W-SDI = Work Self-Determined Index, POS = perceived organizational support, point-biserial correlation used for gender, race, and campus location, Spearman's rho used for years of teaching experience, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Once the initial data analysis was completed to prepare the variables for testing, statistical testing was performed in SPSS.

Multiple regression analysis. In this research, demographic information of gender, race, military or metropolitan location, and adjunct teaching experience was explored to determine whether there is a relationship between adjunct faculty members' motivation levels and levels of POS. The researcher selected regression analysis as the statistical test because it is a statistical analysis researchers use to investigate whether demographic factors predict W-SDI or SPOS levels (as in Lewis-Beck & Lewis-Beck, 2016). Multiple regression was appropriate for this research because Questions 4 and 5 have multiple independent variables. The researcher used standard multiple regression because all variables were entered into the regression equation at the same time to understand the relative contribution of the multiple independent variables.

To use multiple linear regression for Questions 4 and 5, it was critical to test several assumptions that must be met (Lewis-Beck & Lewis-Beck, 2016) to determine the appropriateness of this statistical measure. The first two assumptions are that the criterion variables are continuous or interval and the independent variables are continuous or categorical. For the criterion variables of motivation and POS, the WEIMS and SPOS scores were interval variables. The independent variables of gender, race, and military or metropolitan location were nominal variables. Teaching experience was an ordinal variable. The researcher considered nominal and ordinal data categorical; therefore these two assumptions are met.

The next assumption that must be met is the independence of observations. All values of the variables were independent and came from a separate entry during data collection. This was achieved through the survey design; therefore, entries related to individual participants in the study. The researcher conducted further testing in SPSS using the Durbin–Watson (1951) test, which tests for adjacent observations to examine whether they correlate. The Durbin–Watson statistic ranges from 0 to 4 with the desired number close to 2, which indicates no correlation between values. The Durbin–Watson scores for WEIMS were 2.09 whereas for the SPOS, 1.859. These scores indicate that this assumption was met.

The researcher proved the assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity by creating a scatter plot and visual inspection of the plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values. The assumption of linearity measures if the criterion and independent variables have a linear relationship and the assumption of homoscedasticity tests that residuals are equal for all values of the criterion variables. (Lewis-Beck & Lewis-Beck, 2016). To meet this assumption, the plot must appear randomly scattered. Figures 2 and 3 present the two scatter plots. The equal spread of the scatter in the plot above and below a horizontal line at zero, with

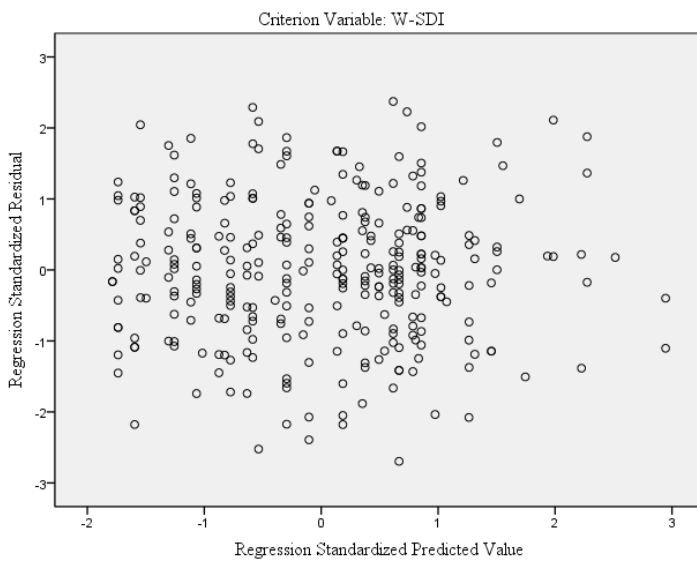no uneven spread, indicates homoscedasticity and linearity. These two assumptions appear to be met.

Figure 2. W-SDI assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity.
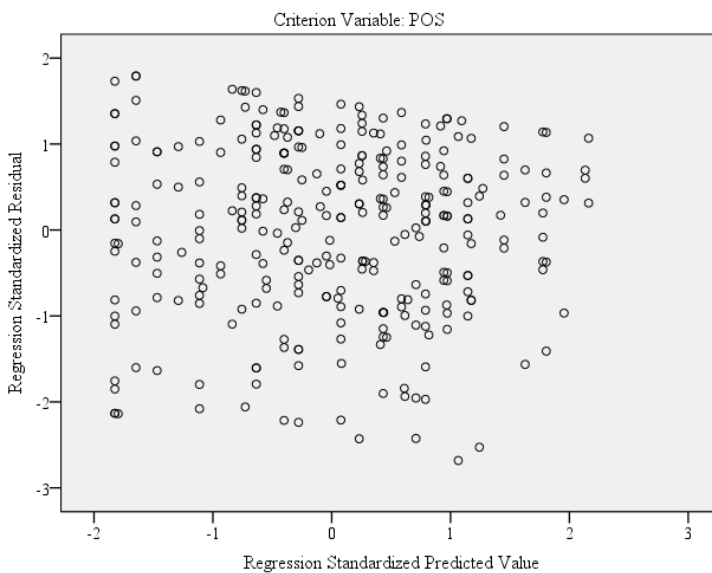

Figure 3. SPOS assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity.

The assumption of multicollinearity investigates whether predictors have strong linear relations with other predictors, which would lead to problems in understanding the data (Lewis-

Beck & Lewis-Beck, 2016). As stated earlier, in the initial data analysis, the variables of "Years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member" and "Years of teaching as an adjunct at this university" highly correlated and the researcher created a new variable, "Total years of teaching experience" for the multiple regression to avoid failing this assumption.

The researcher assessed the variance inflation factor (VIF) and the Tolerance (1/VIF) statistics. See the left side of Figure 4. VIF values > 10 are cause for concern (Bowerman & O'Connel, 1990). If the average VIF value is > 1, the model may be biased. Tolerance values below .10 are a serious concern, and those below .20 are a potential problem (Field, 2013). No multicollinearity seems to have emerged. Although the average VIF is slightly above 1, none of the values are close to 10. None of the Tolerance values are below .20. Thus, because no multicollinearity emerged, this assumption was met.

The next assumption was that no significant outliers, high-leverage points, or highly influential points emerged, conducted during the initial SPSS analysis to examine whether any residuals are greater than ±3 standard deviations, which would indicate outliers (Lewis-Beck & Lewis-Beck, 2016). The researcher used box-plots to identify outliers for the W-SDI and POS, respectively. For the W-SDI, despite being normally distributed, the box-plot suggested three outliers. Outliers (given the large sample size) were removed due to the sensitivity of regression to outliers. No additional concerns arose in interpreting analyses for the W-SDI. For the POS, the boxplot suggested two outliers. Outliers were removed and reran normality analyses to examine whether removing the outliers corrected the skewness problem. Skewness remained: Z-score = 3.871, $p \leq .001$, and the Shapiro–Wilk (S–W) test = .956, $p = .000$; no additional outliers were identified. The sample size was large enough to proceed with the planned regression analyses due to the robustness of regression to nonnormality.

The assumption of normality of the residuals was the final test. This ensures that the residuals are normally distributed (Lewis-Beck & Lewis-Beck, 2016). The researcher completed this test by running a histogram with a superimposed normal curve in SPSS. Conventions to detect violations of normality are that skewness and kurtosis values should be close to zero, indicating normal distribution. Researchers recommend using *z*-scores rather than skewness and kurtosis values (Field, 2013; Thode, 2002). The *Z*-score was calculated by dividing skewness or kurtosis values by respective standard errors. *Z*-scores $\geq |1.96|$ are significant at $p \leq .05$, those $\geq |2.58|$ are significant at $p < .01$, and those $\geq |3.29|$ are significant at $p < .001$. Researchers use $|2.58|$ in large samples (200+) with small standard errors (Field, 2013). The S–W test provides greater power to detect nonnormality without being heavily influenced by extreme scores, compared to the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test (Thode, 2002).

In reviewing the histograms, both distributions tend to be negatively skewed (i.e., scores pile up on the right side of the distribution with a long tail on the left). Both distributions tended to have negative kurtosis, indicating the distributions are flatter with lighter tails compared to a normal distribution. See Figures 4 and 5 for the W-SDI and POS histograms, respectively.
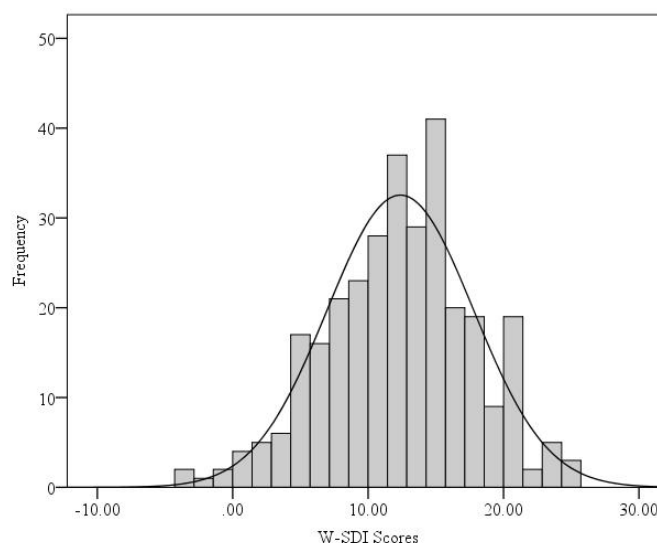
Figure 4. Frequency distribution for the Work Self-Determined Index scale.
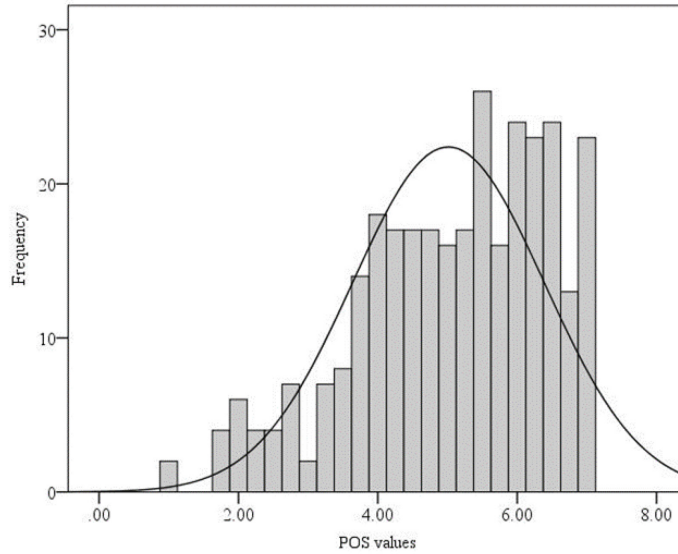
Figure 5. Frequency distribution for the Perceived Organizational Support scale.

Despite distribution shape (see Figure 5), the W-SDI seems to be normally distributed.

Skewness and kurtosis values are close to 1, the *z*-value is not statistically significant, nor is the

S–W test. The POS variable is not kurtosed. However, it does seem to be nonnormal in

skewness. The skewness statistic is closer to |1| than it is to zero, and the *z*-score and the S–W

tests are both statistically significant. See Table 4 for a summary of normality statistics.

Table 4.

Normality Statistics for the Work Self-Determined Index and the Perceived Organizational

Support

	W-SDI			POS		
Variable	Normality	*SE*	*z*-score	Normality	*SE*	*z*-score
Skewness	-.190	.139	1.367	-.601	.139	4.324***
Kurtosis	-.007	.276	.025	-.274	.276	.993
Shapiro–Wilk	.994			.955***		

Note. W-SDI = Work Self-Determined Index, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, *** *p* = .000

Except for the normality of the residuals for the SPOS, all assumptions were met. No influential cases arose on the model to consider dropping from analyses to correct for this nonnormality. Thus, the researcher used and reported bootstrapped analyses SPOS. With all these assumptions tested and appropriate data adjustments made, the researcher found that multiple linear regression was appropriate when testing Questions 4 and 5.

Summary

This chapter described the research design of the exploratory quantitative research conducted at a mid-sized Midwestern university. By e-mail, the adjunct faculty members at 58 extended campus locations at metropolitan and military locations were invited to participate in an online survey voluntarily. The instrument was a questionnaire containing three subsections: a self-designed demographic section, the WEIMS short-version (Tremblay et al., 2009) and the adopted POS section (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The researcher computed scores for motivation level and POS based on scale directions.

The next step in the data analysis was to conduct Pearson's correlation (r) test using the scores of the W-SDI and SPOS scale to determine if an adjunct faculty member's motivation level and perception of organizational support interrelated. In the final steps of analysis, the researcher ran two separate multiple regression analyses to understand if an adjunct faculty member's demographic data predicted their level of motivation and POS, respectively. This step in analysis consisted of several processes that included an initial analysis of the variables, assumption testing, and a final multiple regression. Findings will be reported in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4 - Findings

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore whether a relationship exists for motivation level, based on SDT and POS of adjunct faculty members at extended campuses. In this study, the researcher also investigated whether demographic factors of gender, race, campus location, years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member, and years of teaching at this institution predicted motivation and POS. In this chapter, the results of the data collected will be provided.

Demographic Description

The sample for this research accrued from a population of active adjunct faculty members who currently teach at a military or metropolitan extended campus for the university. The researcher invited the entire population of adjunct faculty instructors ($N = 737$) to participate in the study with $n = 309$ completing the survey for a response rate of 42%. After conducting initial data analysis during assumption testing in the multiple regression analysis, four outliers were removed to ensure assumptions were met.

Demographic Data

Men were represented more than women in the survey in a 2:1 ratio. Respondents were 68.3% male. The inequality of participants' race was even larger. Among participants, 76.7% were White, 17.8% were Black, one (0.3%) was American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.3% reported Asian, and 3.9% selected other. Due to the small sample size for some race categories, the researcher developed new race variables, reported as "White" and "all other racial groups." The frequency for the new race variable White = 76.7% and all other racial groups = 23.3%.

Reporting years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member at any university, respondents were fairly level with slightly more adjunct faculty members teaching for 21 or more years.

When asked years of teaching at this specific university, demographic data flipped with 23.6%

reporting they taught 1 to 3 years. Table 5 indicates the frequency of teaching experience.

Table 5

Years of Teaching as Adjunct Faculty Member Versus Teaching at This University

	Teaching at any university		Teaching at this university	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1–3 years	41	13.3	73	23.6
4–6 years	45	14.6	62	20.1
7–10 years	55	17.8	46	14.9
11–15 years	53	17.2	38	12.3
16–20 years	45	14.6	47	15.2
21 or more years	70	22.7	43	13.9

For multiple regression, the researcher eliminated "years of teaching at this university"

and just used "total years of teaching". A relatively even distribution of campus location

emerged such that 49.8% reported teaching on a military campus, and the remaining 50.2% on a

metropolitan campus. The final demographic question regarded whether adjunct faculty teaching

was their primary source of income. Only 21 (6.8%) said adjunct teaching was their primary

source of income, with the remaining 288 (93.2%) viewing other work as their primary source of

income.

Research Question 1

In this study, the first research question was "Are adjunct faculty members at extended

campuses more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to teach?" To answer this question, the

researcher downloaded survey data from Qualtrics into an Excel spreadsheet. On the spreadsheet,

the researcher created the W-SDI formula based on Tremblay et al. (2009), which created a

single W-SDI score. The formula used was (+3 X intrinsic motivation mean score) + (+2 X

integrated regulation mean score) + (+1 X identified regulation mean score) + (-1 X introjected

94

regulation mean score) + (-2 X external regulation mean score) + (-3 X amotivation mean score) = W-SDI. These scores showed a more self-determined profile when they were positive and a more non-self-determined profile when they were negative.

The W-SDI was ± 36 for the 7-point Likert scale used for this survey. Negative responses were more non-self-determined whereas positive responses showed higher self-determined. The researcher calculated where the scores would fall by using ±36: using amotivation at -36 and intrinsic motivation at +36, each level would have a 14-point difference. This would place external regulation at -22, introjected regulation at -7, identified regulation at 7, integrated regulation at 22, and intrinsic motivation at 36. This is illustrated in table 6 below.

Table 6

Self-Determination Theory Continuum

M=12.53

	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation			Intrinsic Motivation	
W-SDI Score	-36	-22	-7	7	22	36
Regulatory Style	Non-Regulated	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Source of Motivation	Impersonal	External	Somewhat external	Somewhat internal	Internal	Internal
Motivation Regulators:	No Intention	Compliance	Ego-involvement	Valuing an activity	Congruence	Interest
	Incompetence	External rewards or punishments	Approval from others	Endorsement of goals	Synthesis with self	Enjoyment
	Lack of Control					Inherent satisfaction

W-SDI Range: -1 to 25.33

Nonself-Determined   Self-Determined

Adapted from Ryan and Deci, 2000

The W-SDI range for this survey was -1.00 to 25.33, once outliers were removed. The mean was 12.53 (SD = 5.222), indicating participants were more self-determined or intrinsically motivated than non-self-determined. Figure 6 shows all respondents' scores including the

outliers, such that no participants scored below introjected regulation or above integrated regulation.
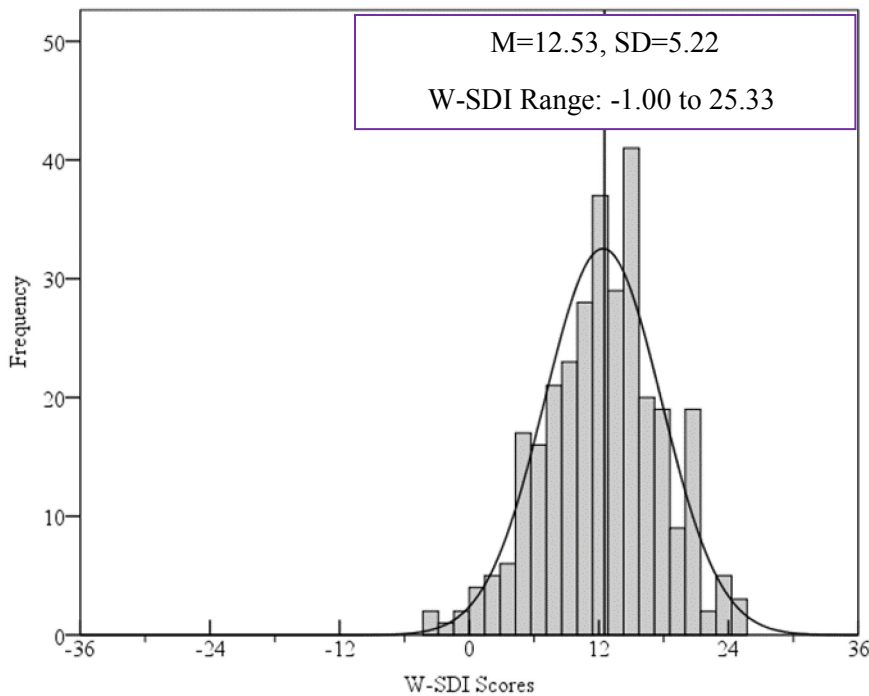
Figure 6. Work Self-Determined Index Scores

Research Question 2

The second research question was "How do adjunct faculty perceive organizational support at their extended campus?" The researcher used a 7-point Likert-type scale for this question ranging from 1 (does not correspond at all) to 7 (corresponds exactly). The researcher analyzed data for this question by downloading responses from Qualtrics and loaded into SPSS. The following variables were reverse scored for the POS scale: Q2, Q3, Q5 and Q7, based on instructions from Eisenberger et al. (1986) to control for agreement response. The researcher averaged the eight questions on the scale so a higher number indicated the perception of greater organizational support.

POS scores ranged from 1.75 to 7.00. The mean of responses was 5.039 (SD = 1.342) with the outliers removed. Responses showed that the majority of adjunct faculty members felt supported by their organization. Figure 7 shows all responses, including the outliers, for POS.
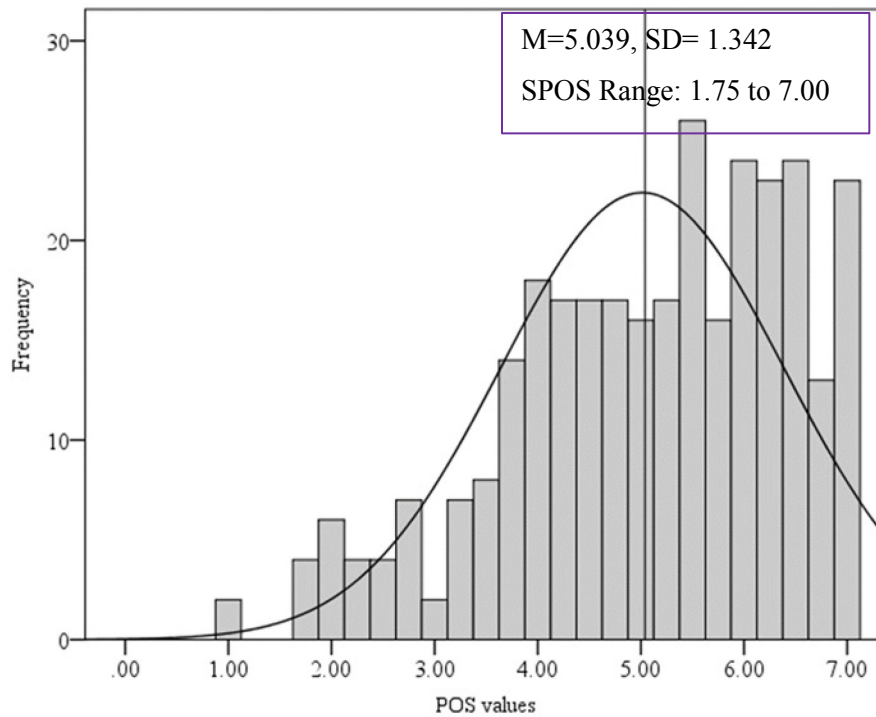
Figure 7. Perceived Organizational Support scores

Research Question 3

The third research question examined if a relationship exists between POS and adjunct faculty members' level of motivation. Pearson's correlation (*r*) was conducted in SPSS to examine the relationship between the W-SDI and the POS (see Table 7). The researcher used the variables of W-SDI and SPOS scores from Research Questions 1 and 2. The Pearson correlation showed a significant positive relationship between W-SDI and POS, $r = .272$, $p = .000$. Adjunct faculty members who were more self-determined reported higher levels of POS. The size of this effect was small to moderate (Field, 2013 criterion: $.10 = small$, $.30 = medium$, $.50 = large$).

Table 7

Relationships Between Motivation and Perceived Organizational Support

	Variable	1	2
1.	Work Self-Determined Index	—	
2.	Perceived organizational support	.272**	—

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Research Question 4

Question 4 explored whether demographic variables related to adjunct faculty members' motivation level. The independent variables were gender, race, location, and years of teaching experience. The criterion variable was the W-SDI, which measured motivation level. Table 8 summarizes the multiple regression results. Together, the variables did not explain an adjunct faculty member's motivation, $F(4, 301) = 1.591$, $p = .177$. Thus, the linear combination of gender, race, campus location, and total years of teaching experience do not explain a significant amount of variance in self-determination. Race did show a significant relationship with motivation level; those from racial categories other than White had higher levels of self-determination.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Coefficients for Adjunct Faculty Member's Motivation

	WEIMS scores				
Variable	B	SE	Beta	t	p-value
Gender	-.037	.685	-.003	-.053	.957
Race	1.570	.763	.126	2.058	.040
Campus location	.143	.597	.014	.240	.811
Years of teaching experience	.361	.191	.115	1.888	.060

Note. WEIMS = Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale, $N = 204$, $R^2 = .02$.

Research Question 5

Question 5 explored whether demographic variables related to adjunct faculty members' perceptions of organizational support. The researcher conducted multiple regression using the independent variables of gender, race, location, and years of teaching experience. The criterion was the POS score, which indicated an adjunct faculty member's perception of organizational support. Table 9 summarizes the multiple regression results. Due to the nonnormality of the residuals, the researcher conducted bootstrapped analyses (as in Efron & Tibshirani, 1993) with 1,000 samples, and bias-corrected regression coefficients, 95% confidence intervals, and *p*-values. When researchers use bootstrapping, it limits the generalizability of the research question because the sampling distribution rests on the study's data, rather than the population. The researcher continued with the data analysis even with the limitation of generalizability. Although generalizability is a limitation, it allows for some initial statistics to be explored in future research.

Table 9

Multiple Regression Coefficients for Adjunct Faculty Member's Perception of Organizational Support

| | SPOS | | | | | |
Variable	*B*	*CI*	*SE*	*Beta*	*t*	*p*-value
Gender	.249	-.114, .590	.177	.087	1.423	.162
Race	.007	-.338, .363	.184	.002	.038	.967
Campus location	-.300	-.585, -.002	.147	-.112	-1.975	.049
Total years of teaching experience	-.090	-.188, .004	.047	-.111	-1.845	.067

Note. SPOS = Survey of Perceived Organizational Support, Intercept = 5.418 (*SE* = .208), *t* = 23.84, *p* = .001. Upper-level and lower-level bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals are in parentheses. gender: 0 = male, 1 = female; race: 0 = White, 1 = All other races; campus location: 0 = military, 1 = metropolitan.

Together, the demographic variables explained 4% of the variance in the POS, which was a statistically significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .035$, $F(4, 302) = 2.763$, $p = .028$. Thus,

99

gender, race, campus location, and total years of teaching experience explained a significant amount of variance in POS. Campus location indicated a relationship with perceived organizational support, based on the regression coefficients (see Table 7), *Beta* = -.112, *t* = -1.975, *p* = .049. Metropolitan campuses had lower levels of POS.

Summary

This chapter presented a summary of the quantitative data collected through this research. Adjunct faculty members at military and metropolitan campuses provided demographic information as well as the WEIMS and SPOS. The first section presented the demographic description of respondents. The entire population of adjunct faculty instructors was 737, and 309 completed usable surveys for a response rate of 42%.

Men accounted for 67.70% of respondents. Respondents reported race as 76.40% White, 17.39% Black, one (0.31%) American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.24% Asian, and 4.66% other. Military campuses were represented by 49.07% of respondents and metropolitan campuses by 50.93%. Reporting years of teaching as an adjunct faculty member at any university, respondents were evenly divided across the range with more adjunct faculty members teaching 21 or more years. When asked years of teaching at this specific university, demographic statistics reversed with 23.29% reporting they have taught 1 to 3 years. Only 7.14% reported that adjunct teaching was their primary source of income.

The researcher evaluated motivation level and POS based on the instrument's instructions and conducted a Pearson's correlation (r) to explore whether a relationship existed between adjunct faculty members' motivation level and perceptions of organizational support. The final section reported results of the multiple regression as to whether the demographic information would predict an adjunct faculty member's motivation level and perception of organizational

support. A discussion of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research

follows in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5 - Analysis and Conclusions

This research explore adjunct business faculty members teaching face-to-face at a private institution's off campus locations to understand if there is a relationship between their motivation level and perception of organizational support. Chapter 4 presented the data for this research. This chapter contains a summary of the study as well as further discussion of the findings. Also discussed in the chapter are the implications of this research and recommendations to expand research in the area of adjunct faculty and extended campuses.

Summary of the Study

With declining enrollments and budget constraints, many colleges and universities are changing their business models to meet students' needs. Accelerated programs and extended locations are expanding the role adjunct faculty members play in higher education (Stenerson et al., 2010). Current writings in the area of adjunct faculty are limited, with the majority providing an anecdotal approach; narrow empirical research focused on adjunct faculty members. The National Survey of Part-Time/Adjunct Faculty (American Academic, 2010) discussed the limited data available concerning this population and what role adjunct faculty members play in higher education. Knowing more about this population is imperative because adjunct faculty members have an influence—formally or informally—on the university and on students' experiences, expectations, and successes (Fernet et al., 2008).

Motivation to teach can provide insight into understanding this population for hiring, training, and retaining quality adjunct faculty. The more satisfied qualified adjunct faculty members are, the more loyal to the institution they will be and in turn, are less likely to leave (Hoyt, 2012). Creating a hiring infrastructure will allow for the consistent hiring of adjunct

faculty members and increase their participation in other activities that will integrate them into the university (Forbes et al., 2010).

Having a grasp of an adjunct faculty members' motivation can be a powerful tool in creating training and development programs to increase job satisfaction and institutional connectedness. High motivation to teach translates into higher institutional loyalty (J. Lee, 2001). When a college or university can motivate or tap the motivation of adjunct faculty members, a mutually beneficial relationship can emerge in that the university receives expertise from specialists currently working in their fields and adjunct faculty members get to share real-world experiences with students and build their resumes. These adjunct faculty members bring subject-matter expertise to the classroom and are able to connect their network to the university to create opportunities for program growth and networking for students.

Understanding adjunct faculty members' perceptions of organizational support is also an area on which universities should focus to help leadership boost the connections that adjunct faculty members have with the institution. When employees perceive a high level of organizational support, they will work harder and have a higher level of loyalty to their company (DeConinck, 2010). If adjunct faculty members are highly motivated to teach and feel supported by their organization, they will be more satisfied in their work and will likely have a higher level of performance (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). A higher level of organizational support shows in the classrooms of adjunct faculty members. These instructors will be enthusiastic supporters of the university, promoting programs inside and outside the university setting. This is beneficial because they will share their positive experiences.

In this study, the researcher used SDT as a framework to understand adjunct faculty members' motivations in extended locations by using the WEIMS. The SPOS measured the same

group of adjunct faculty members' perceptions of support from their university. Adding the uniqueness of extended site experiences provided depth to this research. One might assume that those adjunct faculty members located at the main campus might have a stronger connection due to proximity. At extended locations, adjunct faculty members may never have been to the main campus or have any connections with it. Typically, a director runs extended sites who links to the main campus for these adjunct faculty members.

Discussion

This study explored motivation of adjunct faculty who teach at U.S. military and metropolitan sites for a Tier 1 Midwestern University. The university has been operating for more than 100 years and has had extended campuses for over 40 years. The sample for this study was 309 adjunct faculty members of 737 who teach for the university at these extended locations. Participants were 2/3 male. A majority of participants self-reported their race as White (76%).

Without national data on adjunct instructors, it is difficult to say if this racial ratio compares with other institutions. Participants had varied years of teaching as an adjunct and at this university with 70 (22.7%) reporting they have been teaching at any university 21 years or longer. From those teaching at this university, the highest frequency (23.6%) was between 1 and 3 years. The majority (92.86%) stated that teaching was not their primary source of income. Most adjunct faculty members held full-time positions and taught as a secondary job. Although higher than the 22% Hoyt (2012) reported, the majority of adjunct faculty members do not teach as a primary source of income.

Motivation Level

Self-determination was the theoretical framework for understanding motivation level. The researcher selected this theory because it is based on a continuum ranging from autonomous

to extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation and a person can have different levels of motivation depending on the task. Central to SDT are three inherent psychological needs: the needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985). When workers have these three needs met, they are more likely to be self-determined, which means they would be more intrinsically motivated.

The researcher measured adjunct faculty members' motivation level using the WEIMS scale, and calculated a W-SDI for each participant. The W-SDI score reported whether an adjunct faculty member's level of motivation was more non-self-determined or self-determined. Negative scores indicated more non-self-determined and higher positive scores indicated more self-determined on a scale of -36 to +36. The mean score for the participants was 12.527, indicating adjunct faculty members are more self-determined.

Findings indicated motivation levels fall more in identified regulation on the self-determination continuum, indicating that motivation is somewhat internal which means they are not fully intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to teach (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Individuals at the identified regulation level value the activity in which they are participating and it supports their goals. This regulation has a significant relationship with employees' performance by keeping employees focused on the long-term impact of their activities and identification with the organization's goals and values. Identified regulation might have a more positive impact on job performance than being fully intrinsically motivated because intrinsic motivation drives a person to engage in work due to their interest; employees may not find certain tasks interesting (Zhang et al., 2016). With identified regulation, adjunct faculty members illustrate commitment with their role in the organization. This level of adjunct faculty motivation is significant because it shows that most are teaching because they believe in their task and want to perform their job

well. The higher level of self-determination motivation also suggests they feel autonomy to complete their task, competent in performing their duties, and have a level of relatedness to the university.

Previous research on adjunct faculty members on university campuses and online reported that adjunct faculty members did not feel this high level of competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Cronin & Smith, 2011; Dolan, 2011; Elder et al., 2016; Meixner et al., 2010). In fact, these studies showed a need to create programs to increase inclusion and competence for these adjunct faculty members. Findings from this research do not show the same concerns with adjunct faculty members at these extended sites. One significant difference between this research and that performed on campus is the faculty at extended sites surveyed in this study have staff that hires, trains, and communicates on a regular basis with adjunct faculty members. This relationship with the extended site directors and staff may be critical to help adjunct faculty member connect with the university and feel competent in the classroom. Unlike online teaching, where instructors are isolated from the main campus, these extended campus adjunct faculty members have access to a staff member to discuss their challenges and to participate in training/development opportunities. Eagan et al. (2015) spoke directly to this topic and, although not citing SDT, found that adjunct faculty members were more satisfied when they had a relationship with other faculty members and felt connected to the university.

This research showed adjunct faculty members have higher levels of intrinsic motivation to which Steers et al. (2004) explained understanding adjunct faculty members' levels motivation as well as satisfaction, commitment, and performance, are critical components of employee success. Workplace-motivation research showed that employees with higher levels of success are more likely to stay and are committed to not only their success but the success of the company. It

also important for these employees to feel supported by their organization and discern that companies will be fair to them.

Perceived Organizational Support

Employees with higher levels of POS believe their organization provides them the atmosphere where they feel their needs are met (Allen et al., 2008; DeConinck, 2010; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). In this study, the researcher measured POS using the SPOS. Adjunct faculty members in this study reported a mean score of 5.39 on a 7-point scale, which translates to feeling fairly highly supported by the university. This high level of POS is significant because previous studies showed that employees who have this high level are more likely to have higher job satisfaction, increased performance, and lower turnover (Allen et al., 2008; DeConinck, 2010; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). Workers are more engaged in their tasks when they feel supported and are more likely to feel a strong connection to their organization. When faculty members' needs were met, instructors appeared to be more satisfied with their jobs and the likelihood of turnover was lower (Wininger & Birkholz, 2013).

Again, as mentioned when discussing motivation, adjunct faculty members at higher education institutions' main campuses or online have not always felt connected to their campus. This distance can create a negative environment in the classroom, and these adjunct faculty members may not demand high-quality academic standards. Although Cronin and Smith (2011) did not cite POS, they did study how adjunct faculty felt they were supported in their position by the university and concluded that adjunct faculty who felt more connected were more likely to share their concerns to benefit the organization. Extended-site staff can also have a positive impact on POS because adjunct faculty members do not typically have many connections to the main campus. Yu and Frenkel (2013) found that employees viewed their supervisors as agents of

the organization and generalized their treatment as standards to measure their views of the organization. Finally, researchers reported that POS findings lead an employee to feel connected to the organization, which improves their attachment and job satisfaction. Baranik et al. (2010) found that organizational agents can be valuable in improving POS and their relationships can build positive work environments and increase job satisfaction.

This research also explored whether a relationship exists between adjunct faculty members' level of motivation and POS. The data analysis showed a significant positive relationship between motivation level and POS. This outcome indicates that adjunct faculty members at extended sites who reported more self-determined motivation also had higher levels of POS. This result was in line with the only previous study that brought these two variables together (Gillet, Huart, Colombat, & Fouquereau, 2013). These findings indicated that motivation to teach and POS are key to quality of work and connection to the university.

Self-Determination Level, Perceived Organizational Support and Demographics

The researcher conducted multiple regression to understand if a relationship exists between demographic variables and adjunct faculty members' self-determination level or POS. The demographic variables tested for the relationship were gender, race, campus location, and adjunct faculty members' teaching experience. This data analysis revealed little evidence that the independent variables related to levels of motivation or perceptions of organizational support.

For the multiple regression conducted on the W-SDI scale and demographic variables, all variables only provided a 2% variance. This indicates that gender, race, campus location, and years of teaching experience do not explain a significant amount of variance in self-determination. Race did show a significant relationship to motivation level. The "all other racial

categories" had a higher level of self-determination. No previous research discussed race and motivation level. This is an area for future research that can add to motivation research.

Total years of teaching approached a significance relationship level with total years of teaching experience aligned with higher levels of self-determination. This is consistent with SDT in that more experienced adjunct faculty members would typically have a higher level of competence, based on their experience and any training they have received. At this institution, they have a high level of autonomy in the classroom and their high level of POS provides evidence that their need for relatedness is being met.

These results showed that no matter the adjunct faculty member's demographics, universities should work with all to continue to maintain this high level of connection to their adjunct faculty members and to support them in their competency to run their classrooms. One interesting fact about the demographics reported was that, by a slight majority, adjunct faculty members reported teaching for 21 or more years, but when asked about teaching at this university, the findings inverted and a slight majority had 1 to 3 years of teaching. Although the survey did not provide reasons for this turnover, it does indicate that extended sites are recruiting experienced adjunct faculty members for teaching at their locations, which could explain the high level of motivation to teach. The group feels competent in their skills because of their previous years of adjunct teaching.

When analyzing perceived organization support, although bootstrapping limits the generalization of this research question, it does provide a foundation for future research in this area. Together, the demographic variables explained 4% of the variance, which was statistically significant. Together gender, race, campus location, and total years of teaching have a relationship with POS. Individually, gender and race did not show an individual relationship with

level of perceived organizational support. Campus location was significant, based on regression coefficients, *Beta* = -.112, *t* = -1.975, *p* = .049. Metropolitan campuses had a lower level of POS. In this research, the two different types of locations report to different vice presidents, and although not part of the research, this outcome lends to future research about leadership philosophy and why this level of POS is different at the same institution.

Implications for Practice

Although the research was quantitative and did not provide rich detail as to why the questions were answered a specific way, many implications arose for adjunct faculty members, extended site directors, and university leadership. Adjunct faculty members at the extended location have a relatively high level of self-determined motivation, which assists leadership in understanding who their adjunct faculty is and why they teach. Self-determined motivation reinforces that they teach for the greater good of the university and students rather than for money. The demographic data showed that only 7.14% used adjunct teaching as their primary source of income. As a secondary job, adjunct faculty members have some flexibility in choice because they do not need to teach to pay all their bills. Universities need to pay special attention to this dynamic and understand that adjunct faculty members are increasingly in demand and many have choices about where they can teach. It is important for colleges to support and retain quality adjunct faculty members.

The study also assists in defining the roles of extended sites in creating a connection to the university for these adjunct faculty members. This connection with the university through its extended sites may increase loyalty to the university. Gosink and Streveler (2000) discussed that online adjunct faculty members felt disconnected from the institution. If adjunct faculty sensed a better connection to the university, they might also increase their loyalty to the university.

Although faculty members in other studies reported they were committed to helping students, they needed their basic psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence met (Latham, 2011; J. Lee, 2001). These adjunct faculty members can help university programs thrive in their business communities by sharing their experience of teaching with other professionals in their field, perhaps thereby recruiting potential new faculty members. Extended site directors and their adjunct faculty members can work together to meet the needs of students by partnering to serve the community. Understanding this relationship can help all involved craft their roles in program/site growth.

Experienced adjunct faculty members can also support extended site directors in mentoring newer faculty members. Development and training are important for this group as many new adjunct faculty members have no teaching experience; learning to manage a classroom is critical to their success. Placing an inexperienced teacher in the classroom who has never taught and expecting them to succeed is not fair to the students or to the adjunct faculty member. With training and mentoring, universities can increase new faculty members' competency and will allow them to feel more self-determined. Such support will also engage more experienced adjunct faculty members to keep them connected to the university. The mentoring relationship may also enhance experienced adjunct faculty members' motivation level, providing them new opportunities to share their knowledge.

Adjunct faculty member retention is extremely important to ensure continuity in programs and achieve student success (Datray et al., 2014). When turnover is high, it is difficult to focus on other need areas of extended sites because the director is spending their time recruiting faculty members. Without qualified adjunct faculty, they cannot offer classes. Such other duties take time away from recruiting students, which is necessary for campuses them

111

develop their programs. Researchers found that development programs for adjunct faculty members can assist in retaining qualified adjunct faculty in that they can be successful in the classroom (Forbes et al., 2010; Santisteban & Egues, 2014).

As discussed, a higher level of self-determination and a high level of POS does have a positive impact on retention. Alparslan and Kılınç (2015) found that when employees trust their boss, they will be more satisfied at work and will be more committed to the organization, maintaining a positive attitude toward their work. If an extended site has a good adjunct faculty member, but they do not take care of them, the adjunct faculty member will go elsewhere to teach. People typically make job decisions based on money, but job-retention decisions typically rest on autonomy and culture (Latham, 2011). With growth in the number of adjunct faculty members, universities may be challenged to find qualified adjunct faculty members, making retention even more critical.

Recommendation for Future Research

Further research in the area of adjunct faculty members is important because the research in this area is still lacking. This specific research should expand to include adjunct faculty members who teach online and at their main campus to understand the differences and what practices can be duplicated or created to support adjunct faculty. Researchers should also study extended-site staffing to understand how they hire adjunct faculty members and what support directors need to be successful when running their sites. With the multiple regression results, exploring POS and the effects of different leadership styles would provide greater insight to how to have a positive impact on this perception of support.

A replication of this research would also be recommended with a broader swath of institutional representation. It is possible that due to the fact this research was conducted at one

single institution in which the researcher is employed, there is a possibility for social desirability. The respondents might have answered how they felt they should answer instead of their true feelings. By expanding this research across multiple organizations, will increase the generalizability of these findings.

Summary

Colleges and universities are continuing to increase their use of adjunct faculty in classrooms to meet the needs of students and to address budget concerns. Hoyt (2012) discussed the critical need to understand this population and to find ways to improve the work environment for this group. Research on the adjunct population has increased but has focused on criteria like development, satisfaction, and inclusion. The most recent research, however, has only included adjunct faculty members who taught on the school's main campus or in their online programs and did not include faculty at extended sites. To hire, train, and retain qualified adjunct faculty members, colleges must understand why they teach and why they stay.

The more self-determined an individual is, the higher productivity, creativity, and initiative a person will show in their work (Deci et al., 1989). In perceptions of organizational support, employees with a higher level of self-determination feel their organization cares for them, have greater workplace satisfaction, and are more likely to stay with the organization (DeConinck, 2010; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009).

This research provided insight to a group of adjunct faculty members that has limited empirical data. This study provided support for the theory of self-determination and POS in the workplace because this unique group of teachers taught courses only as a secondary source of income, and also were not volunteers. The findings indicated that adjunct faculty members must feel self-determined, which includes competency, relatedness, and autonomy. A relationship

exists between motivation level and adjunct faculty members' perceptions of organizational

support. Universities can use these findings to hire, train, and retain faculty by caring for their

needs and supporting them in their roles.

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Appendix A - Informed Consent Form

PROJECT TITLE: Motivation and Perceived Organizational Support of Adjunct Faculty

Members at an Extended Campus

APPROVAL DATE OF PROJECT:

EXPIRATION DATE OF PROJECT:

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Royce Ann Collins, Ph. D

CO-INVESTIGATOR: Kathryn Ervin

CONTACT AND PHONE FOR ANY PROBLEMS/QUESTIONS:

- Royce Ann Collins, Ph. D. racollin@ksu.edu, 913-307-7353

IRB CHAIR CONTACT/PHONE INFORMATION:

- Rick Scheidt, Chair, Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224
- Cheryl Doerr, Associate Vice President for Research Compliance, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH: This research will explore adjunct faculty member's motivation and perceived organizational support at higher education extended campuses.

METHODS TO BE USED: Below participants will choose whether they would like to participate in this survey of motivation and perceived organizational support. All responses will be anonymous. The statements request that participants rate themselves on a scale as to what extent the statements correspond with their reasons for being involved in their work as adjunct faculty member at the current university

LENGTH OF THE STUDY: About 20 minutes

RISKS ANTICIPATED: None

BENEFITS ANTICIPATED: This study will provide research in an understudied area of adjunct faculty motivation at extended campuses. It will provide institutions with an understanding of the motivation of adjunct faculty and if their perception of organizational support impacts their motivation level.

EXTENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY: No confidential information will be requested.

Terms of Participation: I understand this project is research, and that my participation is completely voluntary. I also understand that if I decide to participate in this study, I may

withdraw my consent at any time, and stop participating at any time without explanation, penalty, or loss of benefits, or academic standing to which I may otherwise be entitled.

If you would like a copy of this consent form, please feel free to print this page.

☐ I verify that by clicking yes below that I have read and understand this consent form, and willingly agree to participate in this study under the terms described, and this serves as my acknowledgment that I have received this consent form.

☐ I chose not to participate in this survey

Appendix B - Scale

Demographic Information

Gender:

        Male
        Female

Race:

        White
        Black
        Hispanic
        Asian
        Other
        Two or more races

Campus location: Military Campus
                      Metropolitan Campus

Years of Teaching as an adjunct faculty member:
        1-3 years
        4-6 years
        7-10 years
        11-15 years
        16-20 years
        21 or more years

Years of teaching at this university:
        1-3 years
        4-6 years
        7-10 years
        11-15 years
        16-20 years
        21 or more years

Is adjunct teaching your primary source of income:
        Yes
        No

Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale

Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to the reasons why you are presently involved in your work as adjunct faculty member at your university.

Does not correspond at all			Corresponds moderately			Corresponds exactly	
1	2	3	4	5		6	7

1. Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. For the income it provides me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. I ask myself this question, I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks related to this work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. Because it has become a fundamental part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. Because I want to succeed at this job, if not I would be very ashamed of myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Because I chose this type of work to attain my career goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. Because it allows me to earn money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. Because it is part of the way in which I have chosen to live my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be very disappointed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. I don't know why we are provided with unrealistic working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. Because I want to be a "winner" in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. Because it is the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15. For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16. Because this type of work provides me with security.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17. I don't know, too much is expected of us	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
18. Because this job is a part of my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at your organization. Please indicate how well each statement corresponds to your point of view about your university. Please use the following scale:

Does not correspond at all		Corresponds moderately			Corresponds exactly	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The organization shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix C - Vice-President's Preparatory E-Mail

Subject: Invitation to participate in colleague's dissertation research

Good morning faculty,

I am thrilled to announce that Katie Ervin, who works at our Fort Leavenworth campus, will be conducting her doctoral research through Kansas State University and she needs our help. I highly encourage you (although it is strictly voluntary) to support Katie in her efforts. Katie is examining adjunct faculty at extended campuses. Please be assured that your responses in no way are tracked by Webster nor are they connected to your employment with Webster University….You are simply helping a peer further her education.

You will receive an individual survey link from Qualtrics inviting participation in Katie's survey. If you choose to participate, you will acknowledge the informed consent and take the short survey. Your individual responses are anonymous and cannot be linked to you. Once the survey closes, Katie will download aggregated data into SPSS and do a quantitative analysis of the survey responses. Again, your individual responses cannot be linked to you.

Webster University is very proud that our faculty/staff are lifelong learners and I highly encourage you to help Katie out by responding to the survey when you receive the link.

Thank you,

Sean Coleman, Associate Vice-President of United States Military Campuses/Government Programs

Donavan Outten, Associate Vice-President of Extended U.S. Campuses

Appendix D - Invitation to Participate in Pilot Survey

Subject: You are invited to a pilot of my research survey – Motivation and perceived organizational support of adjunct faculty members at an extended campus.

Dear Adjunct Faculty member,

You are invited to participate in a pilot study of my research titled motivation and perceived organizational support of adjunct faculty members at an extended campus.

In this study, you will be asked to complete an electronic survey. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you are free to withdraw your participation from this study at any time.

In this pilot survey, you will be asked to complete an electronic survey. You will also be asked questions about the survey instructions, clarity questions, length of the survey, and sequence of questions.

Please click on the survey link below and provide us your feedback no later than September 10, 2017.

https://kstate.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_00qPFJvhibG7mOp

Thank you so much for your time,

Katie Ervin

Appendix E - Demographic Tables

Frequency and Percentages for Background Categorical Variables

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	211	68.3
Female	98	31.7
Race		
White	237	76.7
Other	72	23.3
Campus Location		
Military	154	49.8
Metropolitan	155	50.2
Adjunct as Primary Source of Income		
No	288	93.2
Yes	21	6.8