

PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT AMONG U.S. FULL-TIME UNIVERSITY
FACULTY: IMPLICATIONS FOR WORKSITE HEALTH PROMOTION

A DISSERTATION

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BY

JANIE LYNN CROSMER, M.B.A., M.S., B.S.

DENTON, TEXAS

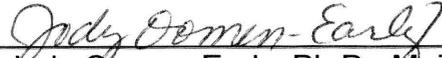
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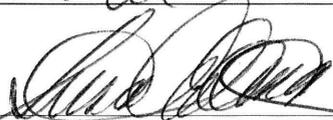
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Janie Lynn Crosmer entitled "Professional Burnout Among U.S. Full-Time University Faculty: Implications for Worksite Health Promotion." I have examined this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with a major in Health Studies.



Dr. Jody Gomen-Early, Ph.D., Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

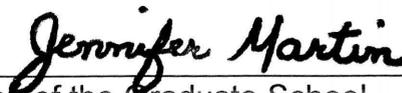







Department Chair

Accepted:



Dean of the Graduate School

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, William and Penny Crosmer, and to my husband, Scott Clifford. Thank you so much for believing in me and for supporting me through 11 years of grad school so that I could fulfill my dream of earning my doctorate. The road has been long and difficult at times, and without your love, patience and understanding this dream would not be possible.

Mom and Dad, thank you so much for instilling in me the importance of education. I learned from both of you that anything is possible if you have perseverance and the right mind set. Scott, thank you so much for supporting me through the highs and lows. I know it hasn't always been easy.

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ABSTRACT

JANIE LYNN CROSMER

PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT AMONG U.S. FULL-TIME UNIVERISTY FACULTY: IMPLICATIONS FOR WORKSITE HEALTH PROMOTION

MAY 2009

The purpose of this study is to determine factors which predict professional burnout among university full-time faculty who are employed in traditional, virtual, public and private institutions in the United States. Differences in professional burnout scores by age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, tenured status, type of university, academic discipline, primary mode of class delivery (online vs. face to face), number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and the number of students advised will be assessed. Four hundred and eleven full-time university professors currently employed in the United States were surveyed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES). Descriptive statistics, cross-tabulations, frequencies and measures of central tendency were performed to analyze the demographic data and item responses. Stepwise multiple regression models were performed to predict whether age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, tenured status, type of university, academic discipline, primary mode of class delivery, number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and the number of students advised were predictors of

professional burnout. The predictor, other university title, was significant in predicting emotional exhaustion; advising between 15 and 250 graduate students, was a significant predictor for depersonalization and age was a significant predictor for personal accomplishment. Older ages had greater scores on personal accomplishment, meaning that as faculty age, burnout actually decreases. MANOVA tests were performed to examine the effects of the dependent variables on emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. Significant MANOVA findings from this study revealed that there were differences in burnout scores among full-time university faculty for age, gender and tenure. The goal of this research was to contribute empirical research to the fields of worksite health promotion and higher education, as well as to develop relevant worksite health education strategies for this population. The results of this study not only add to the limited research already in existence relating to burnout among higher education faculty, but they serve as a needs assessment for worksite health. Health educators along with human resource and higher education administration can work together to reduce burnout and increase support for this population.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Job burnout is one of the biggest occupational hazards of the Twenty-First Century and is reaching epidemic proportions among North American workers today (Leiter & Maslach, 2005). Job burnout has been most commonly defined as a psychological syndrome that involves a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors in the workplace. The use of the term “burnout” in research literature began to appear with some regularity in the 1970s in the United States (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). However, it wasn’t until 1997 that burnout was accepted as a legitimate reason for work absence (Socialstyrelsen, 1997 as cited in Eriksson, Starrin & Janson, 2008). Burnout is currently classified as a mental illness in accordance with the ICD-10 medical classification system (Eriksson, Starrin & Janson, 2008).

Burnout consists of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal achievement that may occur among individuals that work with other people in some capacity (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1997). Burnout is reaching epidemic proportions because of fundamental workplace changes and the nature of American jobs. The American workplace can be emotionally, physically and spiritually exhausting (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). According to the Grant Thornton International Business Report (2007), Americans work an average of 55 hours

per week, while the worldwide average is 53 hours per week. In addition, American home life has changed. Households are increasingly headed by a single working parent, or in most of the intact families, both parents work due to economic necessity (Fishkin, 1994). As a result, “Americans face a faster, tension-packed world than in the so-called ‘Golden Years’ that exist now only in American myth” (Fishkin, 1994, p. 2).

Job burnout has become a serious problem as companies are downsizing, reducing resources, outsourcing and restructuring, while at the same time demanding greater productivity (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Job stress is estimated to cost the U.S. economy over \$300 billion in sick time, long-term disability and excessive job turnover (Leiter & Maslach, 2005). Long-term disability claims based on stress, burnout and depression are the fastest-growing category of claims in North America and Europe. A study by the Harvard School of Public Health concluded that stressful jobs were as bad for women’s health as were smoking and obesity (Leiter & Maslach, 2005).

Many believe that the university setting is set apart from the rest of society, free from job-related stress and strain (Fairweather, 1996; Gates, 2000). In fact, higher education has been largely ignored in the study of stress. In one of the first studies on work-related stress in academe, professorship was found to be a relatively stress free occupation (French, Caplan, & Van Harrison, 1982; Gates, 2000). Within a few years, however, researchers noted changing conditions in higher learning institutions and reported numerous sources of stress

such as lack of time, poorly prepared students, cumbersome bureaucratic rules, high self-expectation, unclear institutional expectations and inadequate salaries (Brown et al., 1986; Gates). Additionally, while teachers are faced with uncertain professional futures with tremendous challenges and stress, they are not exempt from their own family and relationship problems, thus increasing burnout (Fishkin, 1994)

Assessing the impact of burnout on service and research productivity on universities may be difficult because of the fact that higher burnout levels are associated with lower rank, non-tenured faculty (Gmelch, Wilke, & Lovrich, 1983; Todd-Mancillas & Johnson, 1987). The faculty at the lower ranks are often assigned burdensome teaching and service responsibilities while struggling to do publishable research. Even though their activity levels are high, often times their burnout reduces both the quality and quantity of their productivity (Todd-Mancillas & Johnson, 1987). Oddly enough, the growth of part-time and non-tenured track faculty has increased by 103 and 92 percent, respectively, since 1975 (Hamilton, 2005), while the number of full-time tenured professors has been decreasing since 1975 (U.S. Department of Education, 2005).

Because of academic burnout's negative impact on teaching, service and research, along with the lack and need for research on university faculty burnout, universities should seek prevention strategies and intervention programs for understanding and reducing burnout (Agte, 1984; Todd-Mancillas & Johnson, 1987 and Terry, 1997). Burnout prevention and intervention strategies should

focus on helping faculty meet their responsibilities (Todd-Mancillas & Johnson, 1987).

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine factors which predict professional burnout among university full-time faculty who are employed in traditional, virtual, public and private institutions in the United States. Differences in professional burnout by age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, tenured status, type of university, academic discipline, primary mode of teaching delivery (online vs. face to face), number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and number of students advised were assessed. The goal of this research is to contribute empirical research to the fields of worksite health promotion and higher education as well as to develop relevant worksite health education strategies for this population.

Theoretical Framework

Two theories on burnout and job stress include the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory and the Job Demand-Control (JDC) model. In the early 1990s scholars adapted the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory to understand the process of burnout and stress in organizational settings (Gorgievski & Hobfoll (In press). The COR theory is a basic motivation theory which postulates that stress occurs when resources are threatened, when resources are lost or when individuals invest resources without the expected

payoff. These resources are broadly defined as valued objects, conditions, personal characteristics or energies (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993).

The JDC model has been widely tested since the introduction by Karasek in 1979 (de Rijk, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & de Jonge, 1998). According to Karasek and Theorell (1990) this model assumes two main hypotheses:

1. The combination of high job demands along with low job control precipitates psychological and physical strain ("high strain" jobs).
2. Jobs in which both psychological demands and control are high produce well-being, learning and personal growth ("active" jobs).

Research Questions

For this study, the research questions investigated were as follows:

1. What factors contribute to feelings of burnout among university faculty?
2. What can be done to reduce feelings of burnout among university faculty?

Hypotheses

For this study, the following hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance:

H1 : Age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, type of university, tenured status, academic discipline and primary mode of class delivery (online vs. face to face), number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and number of students advised are statistically significant predictors of burnout scores (i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced sense of personal

- accomplishment) among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.
- H2: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores by age group among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.
- H3: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores by gender among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory– Educators Survey.
- H4: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among university full-time faculty when grouped by marital status as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.
- H5: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among university full-time faculty when grouped by ethnicity as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.
- H6: There is a statistically significant difference between university full-time faculty employed in traditional (brick and mortar) vs. virtual universities as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.
- H7: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores between university full-time faculty employed at public vs. private institutions as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.

- H8: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores between tenured and non-tenured full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.
- H9: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by academic discipline (e.g. Arts and Sciences, Health Sciences, Education) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.
- H10: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by primary format of instruction (i.e. online, hybrid or face to face) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey

Delimitations

This study had the following delimitations:

1. The study population was limited to university faculty currently employed in the United States.
2. This study was limited to full-time university professors.
3. This study was limited to university professors who subscribe to listservs and/or blogs from higher education and distance education professional organizations and/or university professors who received an electronic invitation to participate in the study via a snowball sample.

Limitations

This study had the following limitations:

1. The research sample was limited to full-time professors in the United States. These participants may not have been representative of all full-time university professors in the United States.
2. Responses were self-reported by the participants and were dependent upon the honesty, cooperation and understanding of the participants.

Assumptions

For this study, the research assumptions were as follows:

1. The participants responded honestly to survey questions.
2. The participants were able to read and understand the survey questions.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined:

1. Burnout – The operational term most widely used in burnout research is defined as a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity (Maslach, 1993).
2. Burnout Score – The score exhibited by full-time university faculty found on the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES).

3. Classroom teaching – This term is used to describe traditional face to face style learning.
4. Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory – This term refers to a theory that assumes people strive to obtain and maintain resources that they value. When valued resources are lost or threatened, negative outcomes, such as burnout can occur (Taris, Schreurs & Van lersel-Van Silfhout, 2001).
5. Depersonalization – This term refers to unfeeling and impersonal responses towards recipients of a professor's instruction (Raiger, 2005). Depersonalization burnout scores of ≤ 2 , 3-8 and ≥ 9 represent, respectively, low, average and high degrees of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1996).
6. Emotional Exhaustion – This term refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted from one's work (Raiger, 2005). Emotional Exhaustion burnout scores ≤ 13 represent a low degree of burnout; scores 14-23 represent an average degree of burnout; and scores ≥ 24 represent a high degree of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1996).
7. Job Demand-Control (JDC) model – This term refers to a model in which a work environment can be characterized by a combination of the demands of the work situation and the amount of control

employees have with which to cope with these demands (Taris, Kompier, De Lange, Schaufeli and Schreurs, 2003).

8. Personal accomplishment – This term refers to feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work (Taris et al., 2003).

Personal Accomplishment burnout scores of ≥ 43 , 36-42 and ≤ 35 represent low, average and high degrees of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1996).

9. Stress – An imbalance between the demands made upon an individual and the resources available to handle the demands (Godt, 2006).

10. Traditional University – An additional term used to describe face to face style learning.

11. University – For purposes of this study, this term is based on the Carnegie Foundation's 2000 classification (and latest edition) of universities and refers to either an Associates, Masters or Doctoral-level teaching establishment or virtual institution.

12. Virtual teaching – This term is used to describe on-line instruction via the internet.

Importance of the Study

Burnout is a serious problem in the American workplace today. The cost of unhappy workers is high because burned out employees do the bare minimum instead of their very best (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Higher education instructors are likely candidates for burnout due to a number of stress-producing factors:

inadequate participation in institutional planning and governance; too many tasks to do in too little time; low pay and poor working conditions; inadequate faculty recognition and reward; unrealized career expectations and goals; and unsatisfactory interactions with students, colleagues and department chairs (Seldin, 1987). For educators today, job security is based on budgetary factors rather than on professional talent or dedication. Even those with tenure or tremendous demonstrated ability are no longer protected against a lay-off (Fishkin, 1994). Burnout has most often been discussed and written about in relation to teaching and teachers at the primary and secondary levels. Research on burnout related to university professors has been very limited, especially in the United States (Azeem and Nazir, 2008). This study may serve as a needs assessment for health educators to create relevant worksite health interventions at the university level and also for administrators, faculty and those working in higher education to advocate for change in policies that impact the work environment.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The relationship that people have with their work and the difficulties that can arise when that relationship goes awry have been recognized as a significant phenomenon of the modern age. Defined as burnout, this concept began to appear with some regularity in the 1970s in the United States (Maslach et al., 2001). Symptoms include general stress symptoms such as anxiety, headaches, sleeplessness, restlessness and resignation, accompanied by a range of physical symptoms such as increased sensitivity to pain, susceptibility to infection, muscle tension, dizziness and stomach, heart and vascular problems (Eriksson et al., 2008).

When the concept of burnout was first introduced, it was described as a psychological condition primarily in those who worked in caring professions, such as nurses, social welfare officers, social workers and teachers. The symptoms of burnout were frequent sick leave, anxiety, life crises and physical disorders. The causes were thought to be low pay; great responsibility combined with little power; poor career opportunities; bad and bureaucratic management and lack of support (Eriksson et al., 2008).

Burnout is a societal problem that affects workers of all types, academic and non-academic, public and private (Lackritz, 2004). Burnout has been

studied among many professions, including nurses, psychologists, teachers, policemen, physicians, human service professionals and managers (Wu, Zhu, Li, Wang & Wang, 2008). In the current American workplace environment, burnout thrives and is a common problem in people's working lives. It is a consequence of a combined exposure to a multitude of factors in the work environment and employment conditions (Wu et al., 2008).

Definition and History of Burnout

The term "burnout" was initially a very elusive concept because there was no standard definition of it and different people used the term to mean very different things; thus, there was not always a solution for it. There was a wide variety of opinions about what it was and what could be done about it (Maslach et al., 2001). The term "burn-out" was first defined by Freudenberger (1974) as personal failure, exhaustion and excessive demands on energy, strength and resources. Freudenberger (1974) used the concept when describing employees working intensively in the free clinic movement as being too dedicated and over committed. The work environment of the free clinics was characterized by long hours, low pay, emotionally demanding encounters with clients and coworkers, meager resources and eventually, boredom (Cox, Kuk & Leiter, 1993). Freudenberger (1974) also observed these same burn-out traits in employees seeking to respond to the recognized needs of people, employees who worked in therapeutic communities, hot lines, crisis intervention centers, women's clinics, gay centers and runaway houses.

Despite Freudenberger being known as the pioneer of burn-out to social psychology, it was actually Maslach and her colleagues who were credited years later, in 1986, with the development of burnout as a scientific concept (Cox et al., 1993). Maslach and Jackson defined burnout as physical, emotional and intellectual exhaustion, including physical burnout, chronic fatigue, helplessness, hopelessness, negative ego development and negative attitudes towards occupation, life and other people (Tümkiye, 2006). A burnout risk emerges if occupational demands are higher than the existing conditions and resources (Tümkiye, 2006). Findings suggest that burnout can lead to deterioration in the quality or service provided. It appears to be a factor in job turnover, absenteeism and low morale. Furthermore, burnout seems to be correlated with various self-reported indexes of personal dysfunction, including physical exhaustion, insomnia, increased use of alcohol and drugs, and marital and family problems (Maslach et al., 1997).

Dimensions of Burnout

The three key dimensions of burnout include overwhelming exhaustion; depersonalization, or feelings of cynicism and detachment from a job; and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment (Maslach, 2003). Exhaustion is the central quality of burnout and the most obvious manifestation of this complex syndrome. Of the three aspects of burnout, exhaustion is the most widely reported and the most thoroughly analyzed. Although exhaustion reflects

the stress dimension of burnout, it fails to capture the critical aspects of the relationship people have with their work (Maslach et al., 2001).

Depersonalization refers to the development of negative attitudes and impersonal responses towards the people with whom one works (Friesen & Sarros, 1989). “Depersonalization denotes the tendency to deindividuate and dehumanize others through cynical, callous and uncaring attitudes and behaviors” (Boles, Dean, Ricks, Short, & Wang, 2000, p. 16). When people feel cynical, they assume a cold, distant, depersonalized attitude toward their work and the people that they encounter through work. They tend to minimize their involvement at work and even abandon their ideals (Friedman, 2000).

Personal accomplishment, or lack of personal accomplishment, reflects the loss of perceptions of satisfying levels of achievement and fulfillment in the job (Gold, 1984). Reduced personal accomplishment refers to a decrease in the feeling of competence and productivity at work (Fernet, Guay & Senécal, 2002).

Phases of Burnout

The research on job burnout has gone through distinct phases of development (Maslach et al., 2001). In the first phase, the pioneer phase, the work was exploratory. The initial articles on burnout provided a description of the burnout phenomenon, gave it its name and showed that it was not an uncommon response among a few people (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Freudemberger’s early writing titled “Staff Burn-out” (1974) was based on the experience of people working in human services and health care – occupations in which the goal is to

provide aid and service to people in need, and which can be characterized by emotional and interpersonal stressors (Maslach et al., 2001). Burnout was described as a form of extreme and continuous work stress leading to personal exhaustion and inability to continue working (O'Donnell & Harris, 1994). The clinical and social psychological perspectives of the initial articles influenced the nature of the first phase of burnout research. On the clinical side, the focus was on symptoms of burnout and on mental health issues. On the social side, the focus was on relationships - usually between provider and recipient, but also between provider and coworkers or family members. Most of this initial research was descriptive and qualitative in nature with the use of interviews, case studies and on-site observations (Maslach et al., 2001).

In the empirical phase in the 1980s, the work on occupational burnout shifted to more systematic empirical research and entered a more focused and constructive period. Authors of books and articles about burnout during this time outlined working models of the phenomenon, proposed ideas and interventions and presented various forms of corroborative evidence such as survey and questionnaire data, interview responses and clinical case studies (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Researchers began utilizing questionnaires and survey methodologies and studying larger subject populations and the work was more quantitative in nature (Maslach et al., 2001). Standardized measures of burnout were developed which provided researchers with more precise definitions and methodological tools for studying the phenomenon (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993).

Up until the early 1980s, burnout was studied exclusively in the United States. Gradually, the phenomenon drew attention in other countries and soon articles and books were translated into other languages. By the late 1980s, research instruments (particularly the MBI) were also being translated into several different languages. Soon, the first cross-national studies on burnout were completed (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993).

In the 1990s, the empirical phase continued, but with several new directions. First, the concept was extended to occupations beyond human services and education and second, burnout research was enhanced by more sophisticated methodology and statistical tools. Third, a few longitudinal studies began to assess the links between the work environment at one time and an individual's thoughts and feelings at a later time. Longitudinal studies were important for assessing the impact of interventions to alleviate burnout (Maslach et al., 2001).

Academic Burnout

Many believe that university faculty have lower degrees of stress and burnout than workers in the public and private sector because they have opportunities not typically available to non-academic employees. Faculty can get tenure and sabbatical opportunities and have flexibility in which they can generate grants to buy out teaching obligations and generate additional support for their work (Lackritz, 2004). A public university study conducted by Lackritz (2004) revealed that burnout is clearly a problem in academia, with

approximately 20% of all faculty members feeling the highest levels of burnout. Higher education instructors are candidates for burnout because of their relationship with large numbers of students, staff and administration (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix, 1994). In addition, teaching is one of the many professions that focuses on customer service involving face to face and/or voice to voice interactions (Teven, 2007). Academic burnout, which is defined as an emotional phenomenon associated with high achievement in the academic role, is experienced across all disciplines (Talbot, 2000).

Cited reasons for academic burnout included extremely stringent requirements for promotion and tenure; academic environment changes caused by reductions in expenses, jobless faculty and the changing composition of student bodies; discrepancies between the hopes and expectations of professors and the actual rewards offered; fewer opportunities to change jobs, giving professors a feeling of being stuck; and perceptions by many full-time faculty that part-time faculty are a potential job threat (Seldin, 1987). In contrast to the tasks of primary and secondary school teachers, teaching makes up only part of the tasks of university staff; they are usually involved in scientific research and management tasks, as well. In order to progress in their academic careers, faculty have to keep up with innovations, improve themselves intellectually and meet the assessment requirements for professional development (Tümekaya, 2006). These supplemental tasks may be considered a healthy diversification of one's job on one hand, while on the other hand, these tasks may become an

important cause of job stress and strain, eventually causing burnout (Taris et al., 2001).

In one study by Tümkaya, (2006), it was revealed that working environments which consist of factors such as belief to be promoted, work guarantee, work prestige and recommending his/her job to someone else were also important factors in the emergence of burnout among faculty. Among the faculties of large universities and small colleges, the more important differences center on their orientation to research and teaching. University faculties are primarily research oriented, whereas college faculties are essentially teaching oriented (Quick, 1987 as cited in Talbot, 2000).

Professors who experience negative emotions at work and who have lost interest in their jobs are likely to be less caring and experience emotional exhaustion. Professors experiencing depersonalization likely develop negative attitudes toward work and students, dehumanize their students and ultimately, care less about their immediate work environment. When teachers begin to undergo a reduced sense of accomplishment, they experience a loss of sense of efficacy at work (Teven, 2007). The consequences of burnout in higher education include some form of withdrawal behavior or the faculty member may leave the university to enter another line of work. The withdrawal may be subtle, whereas the individual may remain on the faculty payroll, but retreat psychologically from the work environment, making only contributions necessary to hold a position. In

extreme cases, disruptive behavior may be evident (Seller & Pearson, 1984-1985).

Changes in Higher Education

The entire system of American post-secondary education has been undergoing a transformation for several decades. The composition, duties and classifications of the profession are being reshaped by economic realities driven by diminished public support and concurrent increased demand for access (Plater, 2008). Over the last three decades, the number of university and college faculty members with full academic qualifications, meaning those with earned doctorates who either have tenure or are serving a probationary period for tenure, has been declining steadily. In many large research universities, the number of academically qualified faculty not on tenured track now exceeds the number of academically qualified faculty on the tenured track (Zemsky, 2008). About 70% of the people teaching in colleges today are made up of temporary or fixed-term full and part-time faculty members and are commonly referred to as “contingent” faculty and instructors (JBL Associates, Inc., 2008). According to the American Association for University Professors (AAUP), full-time tenured positions increased by only about 16% between 1975 – 2003, while full-time non-tenured positions grew by 178% and part-time appointment rose by 189% (U.S. Department of Education, 2005). In 2003, the National Center for Education Statistics reported that 44% of faculty at all institutional types worked part-time (Chisholm, 2006).

Contingent faculty members and instructors are now teaching a majority of all undergraduate public college courses. Not including graduate employees, contingent faculty members teach 49% of the more than 1.5 million undergraduate classes taught each term at U.S. public colleges and universities. Graduate employees teach between 16-32% of undergraduate courses at research institutions. Adding graduate employees to the calculation means that well over half of all undergraduate courses are taught by contingent faculty and graduate employees. Contingent faculty members teach nearly 60% of the classes at community colleges (JBL Associates, Inc., 2008).

Contingent faculty members are teaching in all disciplines, but the percentages differ by discipline. Contingent faculty members are most likely to teach courses in education, fine arts, human services and vocational education. The life sciences, engineering and social sciences disciplines have the highest percentage of classes taught by full-time tenured or tenured-track faculty members, although around half of the classes are still taught by contingent faculty members. Education has 77% of its classes taught by part-time or full-time non-tenured faculty members (JBL Associates, Inc., 2008).

Contingent faculty members are an important component of the teaching force. They bring unique experiences and specialized knowledge to the classroom, allowing colleges and universities to provide a diverse undergraduate curriculum (JBL Associates, Inc., 2008). However, contingent faculty cannot help students with advising, career planning or attention to individual learning

problems. Contingent faculty generally have larger work loads than regular faculty and they teach larger classes, most often lecture classes (Lerner, 2008).

Additionally, contingent faculty members are earning disproportionately lower wages per class than are full-time tenured and tenured-track faculty members. (JBL Associates, Inc., 2008).

Contingent faculty members are diverse and often reflect characteristics different from those of full-time faculty members. Women are more likely to be contingent members than men. Women are also more likely than men to be in full-time, non-tenured-track positions.

All racial and ethnic groups saw increases in their overall numbers in both full-time and part-time faculty from Fall 1992 to Fall 2003; however, both full-time and part-time faculty members are still more likely to be Caucasian than any other race or ethnic group. Part-time and adjunct faculty members are more concentrated at the ends of the age range than are full-time faculty members. A greater proportion of part-time faculty are under 35 or over 64 than are full-time faculty. It appears that part-time teaching may provide either an entrance into or an exit from the teaching profession, or that it might be a preliminary career or semi-retirement option for those from other professions. Another possibility could be that part-time faculty members are leaving the profession mid-career if they do not move to full-time positions (JBL Associates, Inc., 2008).

Research on Academic Burnout

Research on burnout related to higher education faculty is sparse despite the fact that they represent a group vulnerable to burnout. Lackritz (2004) found that teaching load and number of students taught directly correlate with burnout. Talbot (2000) studied burnout among college nursing faculty members. Of the three dimensions of burnout, faculty members reported experiencing high to moderate levels of emotional exhaustion, low feelings of personal accomplishment and minimal affects on the depersonalization dimension. Singh, Mishra, and Kim (1998), investigated the effects of intrinsic motivation to conduct research in relation to burnout among higher education faculty. They found a positive relationship between perceived lack of research rewards and burnout and a negative relationship between intrinsic motivation to conduct research and job satisfaction with burnout. Blix et al. (1994) examined burnout among 400 randomly selected tenured-track university teachers and found that burnout correlated positively with stress-related health problems, less productivity at work, inability to manage work stress well and job change consideration. A study by Hogan and McKnight (2007) explored burnout among university online instructors by age, gender, ethnicity, and education level as variables using Maslach's Burnout Inventory Educators - Survey (MBI-ES). The results of this study revealed that online instructors had an average score on the emotional exhaustion subscale, high degree of depersonalization and low degree of personal accomplishment.

Gender

A study in 2006 by Tmkaya using the MBI-ES revealed a considerable difference between the scores of emotional exhaustion on gender. Female faculty were found to experience emotional exhaustion much more than males. However, the study did not reveal a considerable difference in terms of depersonalization and personal accomplishment scores according to gender. A similar study by Lackritz (2004) also revealed that female faculty members have significantly higher mean levels of emotional exhaustion, but men have higher mean depersonalization levels. Female faculty have had to work harder than male faculty in order to achieve success in the work place because traditionally, universities have had significantly higher numbers of male faculty members, particularly in Science and Engineering (Lackritz, 2004). Although no statistical differences were found between male and female burnout scores in a study on online professors by Hogan and McKnight (2007), female faculty scored higher on all three burnout dimensions. These results point to a significant need for further research along with additional factors to investigate burnout in higher education faculty (Hogan & McKnight, 2007).

Age

The study by Lackritz (2004) revealed that age was a negative predictor of emotional exhaustion. Tmkaya's (2006) study also revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in age on emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment scores, but not on depersonalization scores. The higher the

age, the less the emotional exhaustion experienced by the faculty. Elder faculty define themselves as being more successful in terms of personal accomplishments, whereas young faculty do not define themselves as being successful. Younger faculty can have additional pressures from the early stages of career-building and the potential time conflicts with other aspects of their careers and lives, whereas one would expect older faculty to have more experience balancing time demands (Lackritz, 2004).

In accordance with age, the dimension scores of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment show differences according to the faculty's academic status in Tümkaya's (2006) study. However, as in the case of gender and age, there were no considerable differences in the depersonalization scores of academic status. Professors experience emotional exhaustion the least, whereas research assistants experience the most burnout. Among professors, there is less burnout in terms of emotion, whereas a higher sense of the desire to be successful affects younger faculty. Young faculty experience disappointment due to their inexperience in faculty practices, negative working conditions, the administrative system, low wages, student behavior and varying reactions of evaluations. In time, emotional exhaustion and personal failure can increase among this group. Professors can cope with the problems they encounter because of the ease and confidence they have acquired by the late stage of their academic life (Tümkaya, 2006).

Position and Tenure

A study conducted by Azeem and Nazir in 2008 on burnout in university professors in India revealed that lecturers have a moderate level of emotional exhaustion compared to readers and professors. They have less teaching loads as compared to lecturers and that may be a reason for scoring low on emotional exhaustion. No statistically significant difference was found on depersonalization and personal accomplishment among lectures, readers and professors. The study by Lackritz (2004) showed that tenured and probationary faculty experienced higher levels of burnout than lecturers.

Numbers of graduate students and total numbers of students were positive predictors of both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in the study by Lackritz (2004). Emotional exhaustion showed significant positive correlations with teaching load, time grading, office hours, grant money, service time, number of service activities and overall time spent as a faculty member. Student evaluations, office hours, overall productivity and overall time spent as a faculty member were positive predictors of personal accomplishment.

Ethnicity

Universities across the United States have racial/ethnic representation in the student populations. As racial/ethnic composition of the workforce has been given increased attention in America, it creates both external and internal pressures at the university to have faculty reflecting the makeup of student body (Lackritz, 2004). Only a couple of studies were found which tested for

ethnic/racial differences in burnout at the university level. The Lackritz (2004) study showed that there were not any significant differences across race/ethnicity for emotional exhaustion, depersonalization or personal accomplishment. Future studies are needed; however because over 80% of the faculty members at the university in the Lackritz (2004) study were Caucasian. The ethnic makeup of the population in the online study by Hogan and McKnight (2007) was also made up of 89.5% Caucasians.

Theoretical Framework

Two theories on burnout and job stress include the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory and the Job Demand-Control (JDC) model. In the early 1990s scholars adapted the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory to understand the process of burnout and stress in organizational settings (Gorgievski & Hobfoll (In press). The COR theory is a basic motivation theory which postulates that stress occurs when resources are threatened, when resources are lost or when individuals invest resources without the expected payoff. Resources are entities that have intrinsic or instrumental value. These resources are broadly defined as valued objects, such as cars, houses and other luxurious objects; conditions, such as parental roles and supportive social networks and personal characteristics, including personal skills, or energies (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993).

People work to obtain resources they do not have, retain the resources they possess, protect threatened resources and foster resources by positioning

themselves so that their resources can be best used. Major life stressors are likely to have significant impact on resource acquisition and protection, but collectively, minor hassles may act to diminish one's capacity to cultivate and guard their resources (Hobfoll, 1998).

The JDC model has been widely tested and has been a leading work stress model in occupational health psychology since the introduction by Karasek in 1979 (de Rijk et al., 1998). At the heart of the model lies the assumption that a psychological work environment can be characterized by a combination of the demands of the work situation and the amount of control employees have with which to cope with these demands (Taris et al., 2003). This model suggests that job control protects individuals from the unhealthy effects of the work environment (Fernet et al., 2002). This model assumes two main hypotheses:

1. The combination of high job demands along with low job control precipitates psychological and physical strain ("high strain" jobs).
2. Jobs in which both psychological demands and control are high produce well-being, learning and personal growth ("active" jobs; Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

Although the JDC model proves to be useful for understanding the link that exists between job demands and work adjustment, the latter does not take into account individual differences to explain such a link (Fernet et al., 2002).

Implications for Worksite Wellness

Reducing stress in one's life means clarifying values, separating the significant from the insignificant and learning to cope with what cannot be controlled (Arnold, 1990). An important measure in combating burnout is to raise the awareness of stress and burnout either prior to entering the teaching profession or during the first year in teaching (Friedman, 2000). Because of the negative impact of academic burnout on teaching, service and research, efforts must be made both locally and nationally to design appropriate prevention and intervention programs (Agte, 1984 as cited in Todd-Mancillas & Johnson, 1987).

Burnout prevention strategies must be implemented if one is to continue teaching year after year with enthusiasm. Self-assessment, stress reduction and proper diet, rest and exercise are essential (Terry, 1997). Humor is commonly considered to be a positive power in human life and many theorists define humor a suitable coping strategy (Tümkiye, 2006). Additional recommendations to address the needs of teachers are as follows: (a) provide assistance with adjusting to the diverse teacher roles; (b) offer workshops that teach skills such as priority-setting, time management, communication, assertiveness and stress management; (c) reinforce positive self-esteem; (d) strengthen the support system; (e) encourage mentor relationships between teachers; (f) provide flexibility in managing heavy workloads; (g) support research with release time and funding; and (h) promote collaborative research (Blix et al., 1994).

Since several studies revealed that females experience more stress symptoms than their male colleagues, the following strategies are suggested: (a) campus support groups of female teachers to provide opportunities for role modeling and mentoring; (b) greater sensitivity by administration to women's issues and needs and (c) collaboration between female teachers and administration to create an academic environment more conducive to the needs and values of female teachers (Blix et al., 1994).

Conclusion

According to Maslach (2003), job burnout is a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment that involves a prolonged response to stressors in the workplace. University faculty members are not exempt from problems associated with burnout (Lackritz, 2004). In addition to teaching, professors are expected to prepare for classes, keep current in their discipline, pursue research, write journal articles, attend committee meetings, perform community and institutional service and attend professional conferences (Seldin, 1987). Additionally, women in particular are also expected to juggle their various roles as mother, wife, caregiver and housekeeper (Fishkin, 1994).

The higher education system in America has been undergoing change over the last three decades. There are less tenured-track faculty members and more "contingent" faculty members, which includes fixed term full and part-time

faculty members. More specifically, as of 2004, two in five of all instructional faculty staff hold contingent appointments (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006).

Despite the fact that university faculty members represent a group vulnerable to burnout, few studies have focused on the occupational stress experience of this group (Blix et al., 1994). Of the studies previously published, most are limited in scope and have focused on gender, age, ethnicity, tenure and position. The current literature does not include primary mode of delivery as a factor associated with burnout. Coincidentally, there is a growing body of research that suggests that teaching online is more time intensive for faculty than face to face instruction (National Education Association, 2002; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Shifter, 2002;). This current study is unique in that it not only reviews age, gender, ethnicity, position and tenured status, but also marital status, type of university, academic discipline, primary mode of class delivery (online vs. face to face) number and type of courses taught, degree type, and the number of students advised.

Because burnout and stress can lead to mental and physical health problems, it is important to find ways to relieve stress and develop long-term coping strategies. Because stress is a complex and highly individualized process, personalized programs for coping must be developed. Success lies in identifying techniques that are most effective. In addition, a change in attitude toward the situations that cause stress and a willingness to adapt to conditions which are not amenable to change are necessary (Arnold, 1990).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Sampling

The voluntary sample for this study included full-time university professors currently employed in the United States. The proposed sample was comprised of full-time university faculty who subscribed to electronic listservs and/or blogs specific to higher education, or online learning and/or who were members of academic professional organizations. Participation was voluntary and participants who subscribed to the selected listservs received an electronic invitation to participate in the study; if they chose to participate in the research, the participants could click on a link to the MBI-ES. A snowball sample was also administered and e-mails were sent to friends of university faculty who did not subscribe to electronic listservs and/or blogs to refer them to the MBI-ES link for participation in this study. Voluntary participants were also encouraged to refer other full-time university faculty.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation used for the data collection in this study was the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI- ES). Christina Maslach and Susan E. Jackson developed the MBI instrumentation in 1981. Special permission was granted by the publishing company owning the rights to post the

MBI-ES online for purposes of this research (Appendix A). The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is the most widely used rating scale for burnout and has been found to be reliable, valid and easy to administer. The validity and reliability of the MBI has been assessed via a series of analyses and researchers. Internal consistency for the MBI using Cronbach's alpha were .90 for emotional exhaustion, .79 for depersonalization and .71 for personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 1997). A study among university teachers further examined the reliability of the MBI-ES reporting Cronbach alpha estimates of .90, .79 and .71 for emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment respectively (Blix et al., 1994).

The questionnaire provides scores on three subscales – depersonalization, emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment – by measuring responses to 22 statements rated on a seven-point frequency continuum, with zero being never and six being every day. There were nine items comprising the emotional exhaustion (EE) scale of the MBI-ES, which asked respondents to rate interpersonal stress in his/her job. The depersonalization (DP) scale was composed of five items, which asked respondents to rate how frequently he/she has had negative experiences with colleagues and clients. The personal accomplishment (PA) scale was composed of eight items, which asked respondents to rate how frequently he/she has had positive experiences in his/her job (Lambert & McCarthy, 2006). The questionnaire could be completed in approximately 10 to 15 minutes. The higher

the respondent's score on depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, the higher the level of burnout. The lower the score on the personal accomplishment scale, the higher the level of burnout (Kumar, Fischer, Robinson, Hatcher & Bhagat, 2007). Because the Maslach's Burnout Inventory – Educator's Survey is a copyrighted instrument, it was not be included in the appendices. A copy of the demographic survey questions and open ended research questions are found in Appendix B. The demographic survey question variables included age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, types of university, tenured status, academic discipline, primary mode of class delivery (online vs. face to face), number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and the number of students advised.

The open-ended research questions to be addressed provided a context for the quantitative results of this study and were as follows: what factors contribute to feelings of burnout among university faculty and what can be done to reduce feelings of burnout among university faculty.

Procedures

After approval from the IRB at Texas Woman's University, an invitation message was sent via email to professional higher education and distance learning professional organizations who agreed to allow the researcher to post a listserv or blog announcement for recruiting participants (Appendix D). Faculty who subscribe to these listservs or blogs, and/or who knew faculty who subscribed to listservs or blogs, were sent a study invitation along with a description of the study and an active hyperlink to the Maslach Burnout Inventory

– Educators Survey (MBI-ES) and demographic survey. In addition, “snowball” e-mails were sent to faculty members asking them to participate. Those who chose to participate clicked on the active link to the survey and found an introductory statement regarding informed consent that provided an explanation of the search, what they were required to do as participants and a statement that read, “Submission of this electronic survey will signify your informed consent to participate in this research” (Appendix C). Participants were informed that no identifying information was required and the online questionnaire was available for eight weeks. To encourage participation, participants could choose to enter their email in a raffle to win electronic Amazon gift cards. Participants could enter their email by clicking on a separate link at the end of the survey that took them to an entirely different survey, which was not connected to the MBI-ES and demographic response. There was no identifying mechanism from the online survey to the random drawing link.

Treatment of the Data

This study used primarily quantitative data that was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software program version 15. Data was screened for outliers and normal distribution. Descriptive statistics, cross-tabulations, frequencies and measures of central tendency were used to analyze the demographic data and item responses. Stepwise multiple regression models were used to determine whether age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, tenured status, type of university, academic discipline, primary mode of class

delivery (online vs. face to face), number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and the number of students advised were predictors of professional burnout. Separate one-way multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were used to test hypotheses two through ten. The dependent variable for this study was the overall score of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey, which included subscales measuring emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. The independent variables in this study were gender, age, marital status, ethnicity, tenure, academic discipline and primary mode of teaching (online vs. face to face). Results from the analyses will be described in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this current study was to determine factors which predict professional burnout among university full-time faculty who are employed in traditional, virtual, public and private institutions in the United States. Differences in professional burnout by age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, tenured status, type of university, academic discipline, primary mode of teaching delivery, number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and the number of students advised were assessed.

Different scales were used for the burnout dimensions that included Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment. Emotional Exhaustion scores could range from 0 to 54, Depersonalization scores from 0 to 30 and Personal Accomplishment scores from 0 to 48 (Maslach & Jackson, 1996). Maslach and Jackson (1996) provided criteria for categorization of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS) scores into low, average and high degrees of experienced burnout. For Emotional Exhaustion, scores ≤ 13 represent a low degree of burnout; scores 14-23 represent an average degree of burnout; and scores ≥ 24 represent a high degree of burnout. Scores of ≤ 2 , 3-8 and ≥ 9 in Depersonalization represent, respectively, low, average and high degrees of burnout. Scores of ≥ 43 , 36-42

and ≤ 35 in Personal Accomplishment represent low, average and high degrees of burnout. Higher scores on Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization subscales indicate higher levels of burnout. However, the Personal Accomplishment subscale score is opposite to Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization; meaning that the higher the score, the lower the burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1996).

Subscale scores for this study were created for the dependent measures by summing the individual items in each scale. The average score on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale score was 20.11; the average score of the Depersonalization subscale score was 6.34 and the average Personal Accomplishment subscale score was 35.99.

Descriptives

Demographics

A total of 411 individuals participated in this current study. As shown in Table 1, the majority of participants (64.7%) were female ($n = 266$), whereas 32.6% were males ($n = 134$), and 2.7% ($n = 11$) declined to report their gender. In addition, most of the participants (90.3%) were Caucasian ($n = 371$), 3.4% were African American ($n = 14$), 1.0% were Hispanic/Latino ($n = 4$), 0.2% were American Indian ($n = 1$), 0.2% were Asian American ($n = 1$), 0.2% were Middle Eastern ($n = 1$), and 3.2% were classified as Other ($n = 13$). Finally, 2.9% declined to report their ethnicity ($n = 12$). As to the type of university of employment, the majority of participants who responded (83.0%) were employed

by a public university ($n = 341$), 13.6% were employed at a private university ($n = 56$), 1.2% were classified as Other ($n = 5$) and 2.2% declined to answer ($n = 9$). Due to the small sample size of participants who indicated that they worked at a virtual university, an analysis could only be run on public and private universities. The majority of participants (86.9%) taught courses in semester sessions ($n = 357$), 10.0% taught in quarters ($n = 41$), 0.5% taught in blocks ($n = 2$) and 2.7% declined to answer ($n = 11$). Further, when asked the method by which they taught, 54.5% ($n = 224$) reported they taught face to face, 43.1% said they taught by a hybrid method ($n = 159$), 4.4% said they taught by an online method ($n = 18$) and 2.4% declined to answer ($n = 10$). For purposes of this study, because the sample size for online class delivery was so small, the online and hybrid modes of class delivery were categorized and analyzed together. When reporting their marital status, a majority of participants (68.1%) said that they were married ($n = 280$), 11.9% reported being single ($n = 59$), 11.4% said they were divorced ($n = 47$), 1.2% stated that they were widowed ($n = 5$), and 4.9% stated that they were in an Other category ($n = 20$).

Participants were asked to report their tenured status. As shown in Table 1, approximately one-quarter of participants (24.8%) reported that they were not on tenured track ($n = 102$), 24.1% reported they were on tenured track ($n = 99$), and the remaining participants (48.9%) reported that they were tenured ($n = 201$) or declined to answer (2.2%, $n = 9$). Further, participants were asked to report the classification of their university. Most respondents (41.6%) stated that their

university was a doctorate-granting university ($n = 171$); 25.8% said that their university was a master's college or university ($n = 106$); 22.1% of participants reported that their university was a baccalaureate college ($n = 91$); 6.6% reported that their university was an associate college ($n = 27$); 1.5% of participants were classified as working for an other college ($n = 6$) and .2% declined to report their classification ($n = 10$).

As to their academic discipline, 1.7% ($n = 7$) reported that they were of an agricultural/home discipline, 5.6% ($n = 23$) said they were of a business discipline, 1.0% reported that they were of an economics discipline ($n = 4$), and 12.9% ($n = 53$) reported that they were of an education discipline. Additionally, 1.0% reported that they were in an engineering discipline ($n = 4$), 3.2% said they were of a fine arts discipline ($n = 13$), 27.3% reported that they were associated with a health sciences discipline ($n = 112$), 7.5% reported that they were of a humanities discipline ($n = 31$). Furthermore, 7.5% reported that they were of a natural sciences discipline ($n = 31$), 11.4% reported that they were of a social sciences discipline ($n = 47$), 19.0% reported belong to an Other discipline ($n = 78$). Finally, 2.4% ($n = 10$) declined to report their discipline.

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages for Categorical Demographic Variables

	n	%
Gender		
Male	134	32.6
Female	266	64.7
No response	11	2.7
Ethnicity		
African American	14	3.4
American Indian	1	0.2
Asian-American	1	0.2
Caucasian	365	90.3
Middle Eastern	1	0.2
Hispanic/Latino	4	1.0
Other	13	3.2
No response	12	2.9
Type of University		
Private	56	13.6
Public	341	83.0
Other	5	1.2
No response	9	2.2
Semester Type		
Semesters	357	86.9
Quarters	41	10.0
Blocks	2	0.5
No response	11	2.7

Table 1, continued

Frequencies and Percentages for Categorical Demographic Variables

	n	%
Type of Courses Taught		
Face to face	224	54.5
Online	18	4.4
Hybrid	159	38.7
No response	10	2.4
Marital Status		
Single	59	11.9
Married	280	68.1
Divorced	47	11.4
Widowed	5	1.2
Other	20	4.9
Tenured Status		
Tenured	201	48.9
On tenured track	99	24.1
Not on tenured track	102	24.8
No response	9	2.2
Type of Degree Granted		
Doctorate	171	41.6
Master	106	25.8
Baccalaureate	91	22.1
Associate	27	6.6
Other	6	1.5
No response	10	.02

Table 1, continued 2

Frequencies and Percentages for Categorical Demographic Variables

	n	%
Academic discipline		
Agriculture/Home		
Economics	7	1.7
Business	23	5.6
Economics	4	1.0
Education	53	12.9
Engineering	4	1.0
Fine Arts	13	3.2
Health Sciences	112	27.3
Humanities	31	7.5
Natural Sciences	31	7.5
Social Sciences	47	11.4
Other	78	19.0
No response	8	.02
Job Title		
Full Professor	88	21.4
Associate Professor	121	29.4
Assistant Professor	100	24.3
Visiting/Interim Professor	4	1.0
Adjunct Professor	13	3.2
Clinical Professor	7	1.7
Instructor	36	8.8
Lecturer	4	1.0
Other	29	7.1
No response	9	2.2

Table 1, continued 3

Frequencies and Percentages for Categorical Demographic Variables

	n	%
Number of Undergrads Advised		
None	124	30.2
1-30 Students	131	31.9
31-1000 Students	112	27.3
No response	44	10.7
Number of Graduates Advised		
None	126	30.7
1-14 Students	79	19.2
15-250 Students	69	16.8
No response	137	33.3

As to their university title, 21.4% of participants were a Full Professor ($n = 88$); 29.4% were an Associate Professor ($n = 121$); 24.3% of participants said they were an Assistant Professor ($n = 100$); 1.0% were a Visiting or Interim Professor ($n = 4$), 3.2% said they were an Adjunct Professor ($n = 13$), 1.7% were a Clinical Professor ($n = 7$), 8.8% were an Instructor ($n = 36$), 1.0% were an Lecturer ($n = 4$), and 7.1% were classified as Other ($n = 29$). Finally, 2.2% declined to provide their university title ($n = 9$).

As to the number of undergraduates participants advised, approximately one-third (30.2%) reported they did not advise any students ($n = 124$);

approximately another one-third (31.9%) reported they advised between one and 30 students ($n = 131$), 27.3% stated they advised between 30 and 1000 students ($n = 112$) and approximately ten percent declined to answer (10.7%, $n = 44$). Finally, when asked how many graduate students they advised, 30.7% of participants reported that they did not advise any graduate students ($n = 126$); 19.2% reported they advised between one and 14 graduate students ($n = 79$); 16.8% of participants stated they advised between 15 and 250 graduate students ($n = 69$), and one third of the total respondents (33.3%, $n = 137$) declined to answer (see Table 1).

The average age of respondents was approximately fifty years of age ($M = 49.63$, $SD = 10.55$) and ranged from 24 to 71 years. On average, the number of courses taught per term or semester by participants ranged from 0 to 30 courses, with a mean of 6.51 ($SD = 3.66$) (see Table 2).

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Continuous Demographic Variables

	n	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Age	399	49.63	10.55	24	71
Courses Taught	389	6.51	3.65	0	30

Preliminary Analyses

Relationships Among Categorical Demographic Variables

A series of analyses were conducted in order to uncover potential relationships between the categorical demographic variables. More specifically, crosstab analyses with Pearson's chi-square (χ^2) test and Cramer's V test were conducted on the categorical demographic variables. Crosstab analyses were used to examine the relationships between categorical variables measured on nominal or ordinal scales. Pearson's chi-square (χ^2) tests were used to determine whether or not a significant relationship exists between the variables. Cramer's V tests were used to determine the strength of the relationship between the variables.

Gender. As shown in Table 3, the relationships between ethnicity, type of university, how courses are taught, class delivery, marital status, tenured status, undergraduate advising, graduate advising and gender were not significant, all *ns*. There was, however, a significant relationship between classification and gender, $\chi^2(3) = 14.07, p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .19$. A greater percentage of females reported working at a doctorate-granting University (48.1%) than males (32.8%). A greater percentage of males reported working at a master's college or university (33.6%) than females (23.5%). A greater percentage of males reported working at an associate college (11.2%) than females (4.5%). There was also a significant relationship between academic discipline and gender, $\chi^2(4) = 18.20, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .216$. A greater percentage of females reported being

disciplined in the health sciences (41.6%) than males (22.6%). A greater percentage of males reported being disciplined in business/humanities (27.1%) than females (15.2%). A greater percentage of males reported being disciplined in the social sciences (19.5%) than females (12.8%). A similar percentage of males and females reported being disciplined in applied, natural or information sciences and education.

Table 3

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Gender

	Male		Female		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Ethnicity					.50	.479
Caucasian	124	94.7	244	92.8		
Non-Caucasian	7	5.3	19	7.2		
Type of University					.43	.513
Private	21	15.7	35	13.3		
Public	113	84.3	229	86.7		
Semester Type					.46	.496
Semesters	120	90.9	235	88.7		
Quarters or Blocks	12	9.1	30	11.3		
Type of Courses Taught					2.86	.091
Face to Face	83	61.9	140	53.0		
Hybrid or Online	51	38.1	124	47.0		

Table 3, continued

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Gender

	Male		Female		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Marital Status					3.84	.146
Single	15	11.3	34	12.9		
Married/Partnered	106	79.7	188	71.5		
Divorced/Widowed/Separated	12	9.0	41	15.6		
Tenured Status					5.12	.077
Tenured	77	57.5	123	46.4		
On tenured track	31	23.1	67	25.3		
Not on tenured track	26	19.4	75	28.3		
Type of Degree Granted					14.07	.003*
Doctorate-granting university	44	32.8	127	48.1		
Master's college or university	45	33.6	62	23.5		
Baccalaureate college	30	22.4	63	23.9		
Associate college	15	11.2	12	4.5		
Academic Discipline					18.20	.001**
Social Sciences	26	19.5	33	12.8		
Business/Humanities	36	27.1	39	15.2		
Applied/Natural/Information Sciences	22	16.5	40	15.6		
Education	19	14.3	38	14.8		
Health Sciences	30	22.6	107	41.6		
Job Title					11.84	.019***
Full Professor	41	30.6	48	18.1		
Associate Professor	42	31.3	77	29.1		
Assistant Professor	27	20.1	73	27.5		
Instructor/Lecturer	14	10.4	29	10.9		
Other	10	7.5	38	14.3		

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

Table 3, continued 2

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Gender

	Male		Female		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Number of Undergrads Advised					4.44	.109
None	36	29.0	87	36.3		
1-30 Students	42	33.9	89	37.1		
31-1000 Students	46	37.1	64	26.7		
Number of Graduates Advised					1.16	.560
None	42	50.6	83	43.9		
1-14 Students	23	27.7	56	29.6		
15-250 Students	18	21.7	50	26.5		

Finally, there was a significant relationship between university title and gender, $\chi^2(4) = 11.84, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .17$. As shown in Table 3, a greater percentage of males reported that they were full professors (30.6%) than females (18.1%). Similarly, a greater percentage of males reported that they were associate professors (31.3%) than females (29.1%). A greater percentage of females, however, indicated that they were assistant professors (27.5%) than males (20.1%). A greater percentage of females also reported that they had another title (14.3%) than males (7.5%). Finally, a similar percentage of males (10.4%) and females (10.9%) reported that they were instructors or lecturers.

Type of university: Private vs. public. As shown in Table 4, the relationships between how are courses taught, marital status, tenured status, academic discipline and type of university were not significant, all *ns*. There was, however, a significant relationship between methods of teaching and type of university, $\chi^2(1) = 9.41, p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .15$. A greater percentage of private university employees taught face to face courses (75.0%) than public university employees (53.1%). A greater percentage of public university employees taught hybrid courses (46.9%) than private university employees (25.0%).

There was also a significant relationship between classification of university and type of university, $\chi^2(3) = 27.62, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .26$. As displayed in Table 4, a greater percentage of public university employees reported working at a doctorate-granting university (45.8%) than private university employees (25.0%). A greater percentage of public university employees reported working at a master's college or university (27.4%) than private university employees (23.2%). A greater percentage of private university employees reported working at baccalaureate universities (50.0%) than public university employees (19.0%). A greater percentage of public university employees reported working at an associate college (7.9%) than private university employees (1.8%).

Table 4

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Type of University

	Private		Public		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Semester Type					2.01	.157
Semesters	53	94.6	302	88.3		
Quarters or Blocks	3	5.4	40	11.7		
Type of Courses Taught					9.41	.002*
Face to Face	42	75.0	182	53.1		
Hybrid or Online	14	25.0	161	46.9		
Marital Status					.90	.639
Single	5	9.4	45	13.1		
Married/Partnered	42	79.2	252	73.3		
Divorced/Widowed/Separated	6	11.3	47	13.7		
Tenured Status					1.76	.415
Tenured	31	56.4	170	49.3		
On tenured track	14	25.5	84	24.3		
Not on tenured track	10	18.2	91	26.4		
Type of Degree Granted					27.62	.000*
Doctorate-granting university	14	25.0	157	45.8		
Master's college or university	13	23.2	94	27.4		
Baccalaureate college	28	50.0	65	19.0		
Associate college	1	1.8	27	7.9		

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

Table 4, continued

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Type of University

	Private		Public		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Academic Discipline					3.04	.551
Social Sciences	6	10.7	53	15.8		
Business/Humanities	13	23.2	62	18.5		
Applied/Natural/Info.Sciences	9	16.1	52	15.5		
Education	11	19.6	46	13.7		
Health Sciences	17	30.4	122	36.4		
Job Title					12.85	.012*
Full Professor	13	23.2	76	22.1		
Associate Professor	26	46.4	95	27.6		
Assistant Professor	13	23.2	87	25.3		
Instructor/Lecturer	1	1.8	41	11.9		
Other	3	5.4	45	13.1		
Number of Undergrad Advised					17.64	.000**
None	10	18.5	112	36.0		
1-30 Students	33	61.1	98	31.5		
31-1000 Students	11	20.4	101	32.5		
Number of Graduates Advised					5.86	.053*
None	20	66.7	105	43.4		
1-14 Students	5	16.7	74	30.6		
15-250 Students	5	16.7	63	26.0		

Note. * $p \leq .05$, ** $p < .001$

Additionally, there was a significant relationship between undergraduate advising and type of university, $\chi^2(2) = 17.64, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .22$. A greater percentage of private university employees reported that they advised between one and 30 undergraduates (61.1%) than public university employees (31.5%). As shown in Table 4, a greater percentage of public university employees did not advise undergraduates (36.0%) compared to private university employees (18.5%). Similarly, a greater percentage of public university employees advised between 31 and 1000 undergraduates (32.5%) than private university employees (20.4%). Finally, there was a marginally significant relationship between advising graduate students and type of university, $\chi^2(2) = 17.64, p = .053$, Cramer's $V = .15$. A greater percentage of private university employees did not advise graduates (66.7%) than public university employees (43.4%). A greater percentage of public university employees, on the other hand, advised 1 to 14 graduates (30.6%) than private university employees (16.7%). A greater percentage of public university employees advised between 15 and 250 graduates (26.0%) than private university employees (16.7%).

Semester type: Semesters vs. quarters or blocks. As shown in Table 5, there were no significant relationships between semester type (semesters vs. quarters or blocks) and type of courses taught (face to face vs. hybrid), tenured status, academic discipline, university title, number of undergraduates advised, and number of graduates advised and semester type, all *ns*. There was, however, a significant relationship between marital status and semester type

(semesters vs. quarters or blocks), $\chi^2(2) = 6.22, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .13$. More respondents who taught in semesters were married or partnered (75.4%) than those who taught in quarters (62.8%), whereas more respondents who taught in quarters were divorced, widowed, or separated (25.6%) than those who taught in semesters (11.9%). Respondents who taught in semesters and those who taught in quarters or blocks were equally single.

Table 5

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Semester Type

	Semesters		Quarters/Blocks		χ^2	<i>P</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Type of Courses Taught					2.12	.146
Face to Face	203	57.0	19	45.2		
Hybrid or Online	153	43.0	23	54.8		
Marital Status					6.22	.045*
Single	45	12.7	5	11.6		
Married/Partnered	266	75.4	27	62.8		
Divorced/Widowed/ Separated	42	11.9	11	25.6		
Tenured Status					1.68	.432
Tenured	177	49.7	21	48.8		
On tenured track	91	25.6	8	18.6		
Not on tenured track	88	24.7	14	32.6		

Note. * $p < .05$

Table 5, continued

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Semester Type

	Semesters		Quarters/Blocks		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Type of Degree Granted					10.28	.016*
Doctorate-granting university	143	40.3	28	65.1		
Master's college or university	100	28.2	7	16.3		
Baccalaureate college	87	24.5	5	11.6		
Associate college	25	7.0	3	7.0		
Academic Discipline					2.90	.575
Social Sciences	51	14.7	8	19.0		
Business/Humanities	66	19.0	9	21.4		
Applied/Natural/Information Sciences	56	16.1	4	9.5		
Education	54	15.5	4	9.5		
Health Sciences	121	34.8	17	40.5		
Job Title					1.29	.863
Full Professor	80	22.5	8	18.6		
Associate Professor	105	29.5	14	32.6		
Assistant Professor	88	24.7	12	27.9		
Instructor/Lecturer	40	11.2	3	7.0		
Other	43	12.1	6	14.0		
Number of Undergrad Advised					1.76	.415
None	112	34.4	12	31.6		
1-30 Students	112	34.4	17	44.7		
31-1000 Students	102	31.3	9	23.7		

Note. * $p < .05$

Table 5, continued 2

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Semester Type

	Semesters		Quarters/Blocks		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Number of Graduates Advised					8.50	.014*
None	117	48.5	8	25.8		
1-14 Students	69	28.6	9	29.0		
15-250 Students	55	22.8	14	45.2		

Note. * $p < .05$

Additionally, there was a significant relationship between classification of university and semester type, $\chi^2(3) = 10.28, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .16$. More respondents who taught in quarters or blocks were employed at a doctorate-granting university (65.1%) than those who taught in semesters (40.3%). More respondents, however, who taught in semesters, were employed at a master's college or university (28.2%) than those who taught in quarters or blocks (16.3%). Furthermore, there was a significant relationship between number of graduate students advised and semester type, $\chi^2(2) = 8.50, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .18$.

Roughly half of those who taught at universities with semesters indicated that they did not advise graduate students (48.5%) compared to about one-quarter of those who taught in quarters or blocks (25.8%). A greater proportion of those who taught in quarters or blocks advised between 15 and 250 graduate students (45.2%) compared to those who taught in semesters (22.8%).

Class delivery: Face to face vs. hybrid/online. As displayed in Table 6, there were no significant relationships between marital status, academic discipline, university title, and class delivery (face to face vs. hybrid), all *ns*. There was, however, a significant relationship between tenured status and class delivery, $\chi^2(2) = 9.61, p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .16$. More respondents who taught using face to face teaching methods were tenured (56.7%) than those who taught using hybrid or online methods (42.0%). More respondents who taught using hybrid or online methods were not on tenured track (31.3%) than those who used face to face teaching methods (20.1%). Those who were on a tenured track, however, were equally distributed on which teaching method they used.

There was also a significant relationship between classification of university and teaching methods, $\chi^2(2) = 13.17, p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .18$. More respondents who used hybrid or online teaching methods were employed at a doctorate-granting university (50.3%) than those who used face to face teaching methods (37.1%). More respondents who taught using a face to face teaching method, however, were employed at baccalaureate colleges (29.0%) than those who used hybrid or online teaching methods (15.4%). Additionally, there was a

significant relationship between number of undergraduate students advised and teaching method, $\chi^2(2) = 17.33, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .22$. As shown in Table 6, more respondents who used a hybrid or online teaching method did not advise undergraduate students (45.5%) than those who used face to face teaching methods (25.1%). On the other hand, more respondents who used face to face teaching methods advised between 31 and 1000 undergraduate students (36.0%) compared to those who used hybrid or online teaching methods (22.7%).

Finally, respondents who advised between 1 and 30 undergraduate students were somewhat equally distributed between those who use either teaching method. Finally, there was a significant relationship between the number of graduate students advised and teaching method, $\chi^2(2) = 22.61, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .29$. More respondents who used face to face teaching methods did not advise graduate students (49.6%) than those who used hybrid or online teaching methods (42.0%). More respondents who used hybrid or online teaching methods advised between 15 and 250 graduate students (37.4%) than those who used face to face teaching methods (13.5%).

Table 6

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Type of Courses Taught

	Face to Face		Hybrid or Online		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Marital Status					.45	.799
Single	26	11.8	24	13.6		
Married/Partnered	167	75.6	128	72.7		
Divorced/Widowed/ Separated	28	12.7	24	13.6		
Tenured Status					9.61	.008*
Tenured	127	56.7	74	42.0		
On tenured track	52	23.2	47	26.7		
Not on tenured track	45	20.1	55	31.3		
Type of Degree Granted					13.17	.004*
Doctorate-granting university	83	37.1	88	50.3		
Master's college and university	63	28.1	45	25.7		
Baccalaureate college	65	29.0	27	15.4		
Associate college	13	5.8	15	8.6		
Academic Discipline					8.67	.070
Social Sciences	36	16.7	22	12.5		
Business/Humanities	45	20.9	30	17.0		
Applied/Natural/ Information Sciences	40	18.6	22	12.5		
Education	25	11.6	32	18.2		
Health Sciences	69	32.1	70	39.8		

Note. **p* < .01

Table 6, continued

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Type of Courses Taught

	Face to Face		Hybrid or Online		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%		
Job Title					9.25	.055
Full Professor	61	27.2	28	15.9		
Associate Professor	67	29.9	54	30.7		
Assistant Professor	54	24.1	46	26.1		
Instructor/Lecturer	19	8.5	24	13.6		
Other	23	10.3	24	13.6		
Number of Undergrad Advised					17.33	.000*
None	53	25.1	70	45.5		
1-30 Students	82	38.9	49	31.8		
31-1000 Students	76	36.0	35	22.7		
Number of Graduates Advised					22.61	.000*
None	70	49.6	55	42.0		
1-14 Students	52	36.9	27	20.6		
15-250 Students	19	13.5	49	37.4		

Note. **p* < .001

Marital status. As shown in Table 7, there were no significant relationships between marital status and tenured status, classification of university, academic discipline, and number of undergraduate students advised, all *ns*. There was a significant relationship between marital status and semester type, $\chi^2(2) = 6.22, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .13$. A majority of single; married or partnered; and divorced, widowed, or separated respondents reported working at a university with semester courses (79.2-90.8%) than quarters or blocks (9.2-20.8%). A greater percentage of divorced, widowed, or separated respondents reported working at a university with quarters or blocks (20.8%) than married or partnered (9.2%) or single respondents (10.0%). Additionally, there was a significant relationship between university title and marital status, $\chi^2(8) = 17.18, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .15$. A greater percentage of single respondents reported they were associate professors (36.0%) than divorced, widowed, or separated (32.1%) and married or partnered respondents (29.2%). While, a greater percentage of divorced, widowed, or separated respondents reported they were full professors (28.3%) compared to married or partnered (21.4%) and single respondents (18.0%). A greater percentage of married or partnered respondents reported they were assistant professors (27.8%) than those divorced, widowed, or separated (18.9%) and single (14.0%). A greater percentage of single respondents reported they were instructors or lecturers (24.0%) than married or partnered (9.5%) or divorced, widowed, or separated respondents (5.7%).

Finally, there was a significant relationship between the number of graduate student advised and marital status, $\chi^2(4) = 10.63, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .20$. A greater percentage of single respondents reported not advising any graduate students (70.4%) than married or partnered (45.3%) or divorced, widowed, or separated respondents (30.0%). A greater percentage of divorced, widowed, or separated respondents reported advising between 1 and 14 graduate students (37.5%) compared to single respondents (14.8%) and married or partnered respondents (29.1%). Finally a greater percentage of divorced, separated, or widowed respondents reported advising between 15 and 250 graduate students (32.5%) compared to single respondents (14.8%) and married or partnered respondents (25.6%).

Table 7

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Marital Status

	Single		Married/ Partnered		Divorced/ Widowed/ Separated		X ²	p
	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Tenured Status							8.13	.087
Tenured	25	50.0	140	47.3	34	65.4		
On tenured track	9	18.0	81	27.4	8	15.4		
Not on tenured track	16	32.0	75	25.3	10	19.2		
Type of Degree Granted							10.80	.095
Doctorate-granting university	19	38.0	124	42.2	27	50.9		
Master's college or university	14	28.0	83	28.2	9	17.0		
Baccalaureate college	14	28.0	62	21.1	17	32.1		
Associate college	3	6.0	25	8.5	0	.0		
Academic Discipline							8.16	.418
Social Sciences	7	14.3	45	15.5	7	14.3		
Business/Humanities	12	24.5	53	18.2	9	18.4		
Applied/Natural/Information Sciences	12	24.5	42	14.4	8	16.3		
Education	2	4.1	48	16.5	7	14.3		
Health Sciences	16	32.7	103	35.4	18	36.7		

Table 7, continued

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Marital Status

		Single		Married/ Partnered		Divorced/Widowed /Separated		χ^2	<i>p</i>
		n	%	n	%	n	%		
R	Job Title							17.18	.028*
	Full Professor	9	18.0	63	21.4	15	28.3		
	Associate Professor	18	36.0	86	29.2	17	32.1		
	Assistant Professor	7	14.0	82	27.8	10	18.9		
	Instructor/Lecturer	12	24.0	28	9.5	3	5.7		
	Other	4	8.0	36	12.2	8	15.1		
	Number of Undergrad Advised							1.88	.759
	None	15	33.3	93	34.2	14	30.4		
	1-30 Students	17	37.8	99	36.4	14	30.4		
	31-1000 Students	13	28.9	80	29.4	18	39.1		
	Number of Graduates Advised							10.63	.031*
	None	19	70.4	92	45.3	12	30.0		
	1-14 Students	4	14.8	59	29.1	15	37.5		
	15-250 Students	4	14.8	52	25.6	13	32.5		

Note. **p* < .05

Tenured status. As shown in Table 8, the relationship between academic discipline and tenured status was not significant. There was a significant relationship between classification of university and tenured status, $\chi^2(6) = 24.11, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .17$. More respondents who were on tenured track were employed at a baccalaureate college (29.6%) than those who were tenured (24.5%) and those who were not on tenured track (14.7%). More respondents who were not on tenured track were employed at an associate college (16.7%) than those who were tenured (4.5%) or those who were on tenured track (2.0%). There was also a significant relationship between university title and tenured status, $\chi^2(8) = 428.34, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .73$. More respondents who were tenured reported that they were full professors (40.8%) than those who were on tenured track (4.0%) or those who were not on tenured track (3.0%). Additionally, more respondents who were tenured reported that they were associate professors (49.3%) than those who were on tenured track (16.2%) or those who were not on tenured track (5.0%). More respondents who were on tenured track were assistant professors (73.7%) than those who were tenured (7.0%) or those who were not on tenured track (12.9%). More respondents who were not on tenured track were instructors or lecturers (36.6%) than those who were tenured (1.5%) or those who were on tenured track (3.0%). Finally, more respondents who were not on tenured track reported having another title (42.6%) compared to those who were tenured (1.5%) or those who were on tenured track (3.0%).

Table 8

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Tenured Status

	Tenured		On tenured Track		Not on tenured track		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Type of Degree Granted							24.11	.000*
Doctorate-granting university	87	43.5	40	40.8	44	43.1		
Master's college or university	55	27.5	27	27.6	26	25.5		
Baccalaureate college	49	24.5	29	29.6	15	14.7		
Associate college	9	4.5	2	2.0	17	16.7		
Academic Discipline							5.57	.696
Social Sciences	29	14.8	14	14.6	16	16.0		
Business/Humanities	38	19.4	15	15.6	22	22.0		
Applied/Natural/Information Sciences	32	16.3	19	19.8	11	11.0		
Education	24	12.2	17	17.7	16	16.0		
Health Sciences	73	37.2	31	32.3	35	35.0		

Note. **p* < .001

Table 8, continued

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Tenured Status

	Tenured		On tenured Track		Not on tenured track		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Job Title							428.34	.000*
Full Professor	82	40.8	4	4.0	3	3.0		
Associate Professor	99	49.3	16	16.2	5	5.0		
Assistant Professor	14	7.0	73	73.7	13	12.9		
Instructor/Lecturer	3	1.5	3	3.0	37	36.6		
Other	3	1.5	3	3.0	43	42.6		
Number of Undergrads Advised							10.31	.035**
None	53	28.8	31	36.0	40	41.7		
1-30 Students	62	33.7	33	38.4	36	37.5		
31-1000 Students	69	37.5	22	25.6	20	20.8		
Number of Graduates Advised							42.56	.000*
None	44	31.9	33	43.4	49	81.7		
1-14 Students	52	37.7	21	27.6	6	10.0		
15-250 Students	42	30.4	22	28.9	5	8.3		

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

The results also revealed a significant relationship between the number of undergraduate students advised and tenured status, $\chi^2(4) = 10.31, p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .12$. As shown in Table 9, a greater proportion of participants with tenured status advised between 31 and 1000 students (37.5%) compared to those on tenured track (25.6%) and those not on tenured track (20.8%). A greater proportion of those not on a tenured track, on the other hand, indicated that they did not advise students (41.7%) than those on tenured track (36.0%) and those with tenured status (28.8%). Finally, there was a significant relationship between the number of graduate students participants advised and tenured status, $\chi^2(4) = 42.56, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .28$ (see Table 8). A greater proportion of participants not on tenured track reported that they did not advise graduate students (81.7%) compared to tenured participants (31.9%) and those on tenured track (43.4%). More tenured participants indicated that they advised between 1 and 14 graduate students (37.7%) than those on tenured track (27.6%) and those not on tenured track (10.0%).

University classification. The relationships between university classification and academic discipline, university title, and number of students (undergraduate and graduate) advised are displayed in Table 9. There was a significant relationship between academic discipline and university classification, $\chi^2(12) = 33.73, p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .17$. Although the relationship was significant, the results should be interpreted with some caution, due to low sample counts in two cells ($n < 5$). A greater proportion of doctorate-granting

universities were classified as health science universities (44.2%) compared to a master's college or university (31.8%), baccalaureate (33.0%), and associate colleges (3.6%). More associate colleges, on the other hand, were classified as business or humanities universities (32.1%) than were doctorate-granting universities (11.5%), master's colleges or universities (26.2%), and baccalaureate colleges (20.9%). Similarly, a greater proportion of associate colleges were classified as social science universities (25.0%) than doctorate-granting universities (14.5%), master's colleges or universities (11.2%), and baccalaureate colleges (17.6%).

The results also revealed a significant relationship between university title and academic discipline, $\chi^2(12) = 55.01, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .37$ (see Table 9). Although the relationship was significant, there were two cells with sample counts less than 5, and therefore, the results should be interpreted somewhat cautiously. Fewer participants at associate colleges were associate professors (7.1%) compared to those at doctorate-granting universities (33.9%), master's colleges or universities (29.6%), and baccalaureate colleges (30.1%). Similarly, a smaller proportion of those at associate colleges were assistant professors (7.1%) than those at doctorate-granting universities (20.5%), master's colleges or universities (24.1%), and baccalaureate colleges (38.7%). On the other hand, greater proportions of those at associate colleges were instructors or lecturers (39.3%) compared to those at other types of universities, including doctorate-granting (7.6%), master's colleges or universities (13.0%), and baccalaureate

colleges (5.4%). There was also a significant relationship between the number of undergraduates advised and university classification, $\chi^2(6) = 25.09, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .19$. As shown in Table 9, more respondents at doctorate-granting universities (44.9%) and associate colleges (46.4%) reported that they advised no students compared to those at master's colleges or universities (28.0%) and baccalaureate colleges (18.9%). Greater proportion of respondents at master's colleges or universities (39.0%) and baccalaureate colleges (36.7%) advised between 31 and 1000 undergraduate students compared to those at doctorate-granting universities (20.4%) and associate colleges (28.6%).

Finally, the results revealed a significant relationship between the number of graduate students advised and university classification, $\chi^2(6) = 46.49, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .29$. However, there were two cells with no records ($n = 0$), therefore this finding should be interpreted cautiously. All respondents at associate colleges reported that they did not advise graduate students (100%). A greater proportion of respondents at doctorate-granting universities reported that they advised between 15 and 250 graduate students (35.1%) compared to those at a master's college or university (20.3%), and those at baccalaureate colleges (13.5%). Only 28.2% of those at doctorate-granting universities indicated that they did not advise graduate students compared to 51.4% of those at master's colleges or universities, and 67.3% of those at baccalaureate colleges.

Table 9

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Type of Degree Granted

	Doctorate-granting university		Master's college or university		Baccalaureate college		Associate college		χ^2	<i>p</i>
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Academic Discipline									33.73	.001*
Social Sciences	24	14.5	12	11.2	16	17.6	7	25.0		
Business/Humanities	19	11.5	28	26.2	19	20.9	9	32.1		
Applied/Natural/Information Sciences	25	15.2	12	11.2	18	19.8	7	25.0		
Education	24	14.5	21	19.6	8	8.8	4	14.3		
Health Sciences	73	44.2	34	31.8	30	33.0	1	3.6		
Job Title									55.01	.000**
Full Professor	40	23.4	25	23.1	19	20.4	5	17.9		
Associate Professor	58	33.9	32	29.6	28	30.1	2	7.1		
Assistant Professor	35	20.5	26	24.1	36	38.7	2	7.1		
Instructor/Lecturer	13	7.6	14	13.0	5	5.4	11	39.3		
Other	25	14.6	11	10.2	5	5.4	8	28.6		

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

Table 9, continued

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Type of Degree Granted

		Doctorate-granting university		Master's college or university		Baccalaureate college		Associate college		χ^2	<i>p</i>
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Number of Undergrad Advised										25.09	.000*
72	None	66	44.9	28	28.0	17	18.9	13	46.4		
	1-30 Students	51	34.7	33	33.0	40	44.4	7	25.0		
	31-1000 Students	30	20.4	39	39.0	33	36.7	8	28.6		
Number of Graduates Advised										46.49	.000*
None		37	28.2	38	51.4	35	67.3	16	100.0		
1-14 Students		48	36.6	21	28.4	10	19.2	0	.0		
15-250 Students		46	35.1	15	20.3	7	13.5	0	.0		

Note. * $p < .001$

Academic discipline. The relationships between academic discipline, university title, the number of undergraduate students advised, and the number of graduate students advised are displayed in Table 10. There was a significant relationship between academic discipline and university title, $\chi^2(16) = 31.46$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .14$. Despite the significant relationship, there were two cells with less than 5 records, and therefore the results should be interpreted with caution. Roughly similar proportions of those in the five academic disciplines were full professors or associate professors. Smaller proportions of those in business or humanities disciplines were assistant professors (17.3%) compared to those in applied, natural, or information sciences (29.0%); health sciences (27.5%); social sciences (25.4%); or education (22.4%). A greater proportion of those in business or humanities were instructors or lectures (22.7%) compared to those in the social sciences (11.9%); education (3.4%); health sciences (5.1%); or applied, natural or information sciences (16.1%). Finally, more of the respondents in the education area indicated that they had another title (22.4%) than those in the social sciences (15.3%); health sciences (11.6%); business or humanities (6.7%); or applied, natural, or information sciences (6.5%).

Table 10

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Academic Discipline

	Social Sciences		Business/ Humanities		Applied/Natural/ Information Sciences		Education		Health Sciences		χ^2	P
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Job Title											31.46	.012*
Full Professor	13	22.0	18	24.0	12	19.4	12	20.7	31	22.5		
Associate Professor	15	25.4	22	29.3	18	29.0	18	31.0	46	33.3		
Assistant Professor	15	25.4	13	17.3	18	29.0	13	22.4	38	27.5		
Instructor/Lecturer	7	11.9	17	22.7	10	16.1	2	3.4	7	5.1		
Other	9	15.3	5	6.7	4	6.5	13	22.4	16	11.6		
Number of Undergrads Advised											8.44	.391
None	21	37.5	22	31.9	24	41.4	20	39.2	36	29.0		
1-30 Students	18	32.1	31	44.9	20	34.5	13	25.5	49	39.5		
31-1000 Students	17	30.4	16	23.2	14	24.1	18	35.3	39	31.5		
Number of Graduates Advised											24.09	.002**
None	17	43.6	28	70.0	31	63.3	16	32.7	32	35.2		
1-14 Students	13	33.3	6	15.0	11	22.4	16	32.7	31	34.1		
15-250 Students	9	23.1	6	15.0	7	14.3	17	34.7	28	30.8		

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

The results failed to reveal a significant relationship for academic discipline and the number of undergraduates advised (*ns*). There was, however, a significant relationship between academic discipline and the number of graduate students advised, $\chi^2(8) = 24.09$, $p < .01$, Cramer's $V = .21$ (see Table 10). A majority of those in business or humanities (70.0%) and applied, natural, or information sciences (63.3%) indicated that they did not advise graduate students compared to those in the social sciences (43.6%), education (32.7%), and health sciences (35.2%).

University title. The relationships between university title and the number of undergraduate and graduate students advised are displayed in Table 11. The results revealed a significant relationship between university title and the number of undergraduates advised, $\chi^2(8) = 19.91$, $p < .05$, Cramer's $V = .17$. A greater proportion of instructors or lecturers (47.6%) and those with another title (50%) reported that they did not advise undergraduate students compared to full professors (34.6%), associate professors (24.3%), or assistant professors (30.8%). More associate professors (45.0%) and assistant professors (40.7%) reported advising between 1 and 30 undergraduate students than full professors (25.6%), instructors or lecturers (28.6%), or those with other titles (25.0%). Finally, greater proportions of full professors advised between 31 and 1000 undergraduates (39.7%) compared to assistant professors (28.6%), instructors or lecturers (23.8%), and other titles (25.0%).

Table 11

Pearson's Chi-Square for Categorical Demographic Variables by Job Title

		Full Professor		Associate Professor		Assistant Professor		Instructor/Lecturer		Other		χ^2	<i>p</i>
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
76	Number of Undergrad Advised											19.91	.011*
	None	27	34.6	27	24.3	28	30.8	20	47.6	22	50.0		
	1-30 Students	20	25.6	50	45.0	37	40.7	12	28.6	11	25.0		
	31-1000 Students	31	39.7	34	30.6	26	28.6	10	23.8	11	25.0		
Number of Graduates Advised												61.07	.000**
	None	20	32.8	22	25.6	33	47.8	23	95.8	27	81.8		
	1-14 Students	24	39.3	35	40.7	18	26.1	0	.0	2	6.1		
	15-250 Students	17	27.9	29	33.7	18	26.1	1	4.2	4	12.1		

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

There was also a significant relationship between university title and the number of graduate students advised, $\chi^2(8) = 61.07, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .33$ (see Table 11). However, two cells had fewer than 5 records, thus the results should be interpreted with caution. Nearly all of the instructors or lecturers (95.8%) and those with other titles (81.8%) indicated that they did not advise graduate students compared to 47.8% of assistant professors, 25.6% of associate professors, and 32.8% of full professors. A smaller proportion of assistant professors reported advising between 1 and 14 graduate students (26.1%) than full professors (39.3%) or associate professors (40.7%).

Number of undergraduates advised. The relationship between the number of undergraduate students advised and the number of graduate students advised is displayed in Table 12. The results revealed a significant relationship between the two variables, $\chi^2(4) = 38.54, p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .28$. Over half of those who did not advise undergraduate students also did not advise graduate students (63.7%), whereas only 31.3% of those who advised between 1 and 30 undergraduates did not advise graduate students (31.3%) and less than half of those who advised between 31 and 1000 undergraduates did not advise graduate students (45.6%). Approximately half of those who advised between 1 and 30 undergraduates also advised between 1 and 14 graduate students (53.7%). Smaller proportions of those who did not advise undergraduates reported advising between 1 and 14 graduate students (12.1%) and those who

advised between 31 and 1000 undergraduates reported advising between 1 and 14 graduate students (33.3%).

Table 12

Pearson's Chi-Square for Number of Graduate Students Advised by Number of Undergraduates Advised

	Number of Undergraduates Advised						χ^2	<i>p</i>
	None		1-30 Students		31-1000 Students			
	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Number of Graduates Advised							38.54	.000*
None	79	63.7	21	31.3	26	45.6		
1-14 Students	15	12.1	36	53.7	19	33.3		
15-250 Students	30	24.2	10	14.9	12	21.1		

Note. **p* < .001

Effects Of Categorical Demographics On Continuous Demographics

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted to examine the effects of the categorical demographic variables on the continuous demographic variables (age, number of courses taught). ANOVAs are used to determine whether there are differences between levels of a categorical independent variable on a continuous (i.e., interval or ratio scaled) dependent variable. A significant main effect indicates that the independent variable has a direct effect

on the dependent variable. ANOVAs use *F*-tests in order to determine whether the groups are significantly different from each other. If the test reveals that the groups are significantly different from each other (i.e., a significant *F*-test), and the independent variable has more than two levels, a post hoc comparison test must be utilized in order to determine which values of the independent variable differ from each other.

Gender. The one-way ANOVA for gender on respondent age was not significant (*ns*). The results did, however, reveal a significant effect for gender on the number of courses taught per term or semester, $F(1, 384) = 3.92, p < .05$ (see Table 13). Male respondents taught more courses ($M = 7.05, SD = 3.76$) than female respondents ($M = 6.27, SD = 3.58$).

Table 13

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Gender

	n	Mean	SD	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Age				3.35	.068
Male	133	50.95	11.10		
Female	263	48.90	10.21		
Courses Taught				3.92	.048*
Male	132	7.05	3.76		
Female	254	6.27	3.58		

Note. * $p < .05$

School type. As shown in Table 14, the results failed to reveal significant effects for school type (private vs. public) on respondent age and on the number of courses taught per term or semester ($p > .05$).

Table 14

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Type of University

	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Age				2.88	.090
Private	55	51.91	10.20		
Public	342	49.32	10.56		
Courses Taught				.22	.640
Private	55	6.29	3.00		
Public	332	6.54	3.73		

Course type. There was a significant effect for course type (face to face vs. hybrid or online) on the number of courses taught each term or semester, $F(1, 386) = 6.42, p < .05$. As shown in Table 15, those who taught hybrid or online courses reported teaching significantly more courses each term or semester ($M = 7.05, SD = 3.64$) compared to those who taught face to face courses ($M = 6.12, SD = 3.61$). The results failed to reveal a significant effect for course type on respondent age (*ns*).

Table 15

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Type of Courses Taught

	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Age				.90	.344
Face to Face	222	49.27	10.38		
Hybrid or Online	175	50.27	10.62		
Courses Taught				6.42	.012*
Face to Face	217	6.12	3.61		
Hybrid or Online	171	7.05	3.64		

Note. * $p < .05$

Marital status. The results revealed a significant effect for marital status (single vs. married or partnered vs. divorced, widowed, separated) on respondent age, $F(2, 392) = 4.53, p < .05$ (see Table 16). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD revealed that respondents who were divorced, widowed, or separated were significantly older ($M = 53.23, SD = 7.36$) than those who were single ($M = 47.18, SD = 12.29, p < .05$) and those who were married or partnered ($M = 49.34, SD = 10.58, p < .05$). The effect for marital status on the number of courses taught per term or semester was not significant (*ns*).

Table 16

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Marital Status

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Age				4.53	.011*
Single	49	47.18	12.29		
Married/Partnered	294	49.34	10.58		
Divorced/Widowed/Separated	52	53.23	7.36		
Courses Taught				1.45	.237
Single	50	6.58	3.71		
Married/Partnered	284	6.65	3.66		
Divorced/Widowed/Separated	51	5.71	3.65		

Note. * $p < .05$

Tenured status. There was a significant effect for tenured status (tenured vs. on tenured track vs. not on tenured track) on respondent age, $F(2, 395) = 29.47, p < .001$ (see Table 17). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD revealed that respondents on tenured track were significantly younger ($M = 43.81, SD = 10.91$) than those who were tenured ($M = 53.03, SD = 8.21, p < .001$) and those who were not on tenured track ($M = 48.40, SD = 12.22, p < .01$). In addition, respondents who were not on tenured track were significantly younger ($M = 48.40, SD = 12.22$) than those who were tenured ($M = 53.03, SD =$

8.21, $p < .001$). The results, however, did not reveal a significant effect for tenured status on the number of courses taught per term or semester (*ns*).

Table 17

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Tenured Status

	n	Mean	SD	F	P
Age				29.47	.000*
Tenured	199	53.03	8.21		
On tenured track	97	43.81	10.19		
Not on tenured track	102	48.40	12.22		
Courses Taught				1.87	.155
Tenured	196	6.17	3.42		
On tenured track	96	7.01	3.89		
Not on tenured track	97	6.70	3.84		

Note. * $p < .001$

Type of degree granted. The results revealed a significant effect for type of degree granted (doctorate vs. master's vs. baccalaureate vs. associate) on respondent age, $F(3, 393) = 5.46$, $p < .01$ (see Table 18). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD revealed that those at baccalaureate colleges were significantly younger ($M = 45.97$, $SD = 10.15$) than those at doctorate-granting universities ($M = 51.19$, $SD = 10.28$, $p < .01$) and those at master's colleges or

universities ($M = 50.63$, $SD = 10.35$, $p < .01$). There was also a significant effect for type of degree on the number of courses taught per term or semester, $F(3, 383) = 8.10$, $p < .001$. Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD revealed that those at doctorate-granting universities taught significantly fewer courses per term or semester ($M = 5.77$, $SD = 3.53$) than those at master's colleges or universities ($M = 7.45$, $SD = 3.91$, $p < .01$) and those at associate colleges ($M = 8.65$, $SD = 4.77$, $p < .01$). In addition, those at associate colleges taught significantly more courses per term or semester ($M = 8.65$, $SD = 4.77$) than those at baccalaureate colleges ($M = 6.22$, $SD = 2.74$, $p < .05$).

Table 18

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Type of Degree Granted

	N	Mean	SD	F	P
Age				5.46	.001*
Doctorate-granting university	170	51.19	10.28		
Master's college or university	107	50.63	10.35		
Baccalaureate college	92	45.97	10.14		
Associate college	28	49.21	11.44		
Courses Taught				8.10	.000**
Doctorate-granting university	166	5.77	3.53		
Master's college or university	103	7.45	3.91		
Baccalaureate college	92	6.22	2.74		
Associate college	26	8.65	4.77		

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

Academic discipline. There was a significant effect for academic discipline (social sciences vs. business or humanities vs. applied, natural, information sciences vs. education vs. health sciences) on the number of courses taught per term or semester, $F(4, 374) = 2.68, p < .05$ (see Table 19). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD indicated that those in business or humanities disciplines taught more courses ($M = 7.58, SD = 3.86$) compared to those in the health sciences ($M = 5.93, SD = 3.67, p < .05$). The results failed to reveal a significant effect for academic discipline on respondent age ($p > .05$).

Table 19

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Academic Discipline

	N	Mean	SD	F	P
Age				1.21	.308
Social Sciences	58	47.98	10.43		
Business/Humanities	73	49.34	11.56		
Applied/Natural/Information Sciences	61	48.13	9.89		
Education	58	50.91	10.99		
Health Sciences	139	50.64	10.17		
Courses Taught				2.68	.032*
Social Sciences	59	6.25	3.09		
Business/Humanities	74	7.58	3.86		
Applied/Natural/Information Sciences	56	6.68	2.84		
Education	54	6.44	3.96		
Health Sciences	136	5.93	3.67		

Note. * $p < .05$

University title. The results revealed a significant effect for university title (full professor vs. associate professor vs. assistant professor vs. instructor or lecturer vs. other) on respondent age, $F(4, 393) = 24.40, p < .001$ (see Table 20). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test revealed that full professors were significantly older ($M = 55.30, SD = 7.00$) than assistant professors ($M = 43.12, SD = 10.19, p < .001$), instructors or lecturers ($M = 44.88, SD = 11.49, p < .001$), and those with another title ($M = 50.02, SD = 12.14, p < .05$). The effect for university title on the number of courses taught was not significant ($p > .05$).

Table 20

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Job Title

	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Age				24.40	.000*
Full Professor	89	55.30	7.00		
Associate Professor	119	52.24	8.45		
Assistant Professor	98	43.12	10.19		
Instructor/Lecturer	43	44.88	11.49		
Other	49	50.02	12.14		
Courses Taught				2.21	.067
Full Professor	88	6.30	4.00		
Associate Professor	117	6.50	3.93		
Assistant Professor	97	6.92	2.84		
Instructor/Lecturer	43	7.40	3.34		
Other	43	5.30	3.83		

Note. * $p < .001$

Number of graduate students advised. There was a significant effect for the number of graduate students advised on respondent age, $F(2, 268) = 3.76, p < .05$ (see Table 21). Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test indicated that respondents who reported advising between 15 and 250 graduate students were significantly older ($M = 51.41, SD = 10.09$) than those who reported that they did not advise graduate students ($M = 47.43, SD = 11.29, p < .05$). The results also revealed a significant effect for number of graduate students advised on the number of courses taught per term or semester, $F(2, 260) = 3.83, p < .05$. Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test revealed that those who did not advise students taught significantly more courses ($M = 7.19, SD = 4.37$) than those who advised between 1 and 14 students ($M = 5.64, SD = 2.83, p < .05$).

Table 21

One-Way ANOVA for Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester by Number of Graduates Advised

	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Age				3.76	.025*
None	124	47.43	11.29		
1-14 Students	79	50.23	8.92		
15-250 Students	68	51.41	10.09		
Courses Taught				3.83	.023*
None	117	7.19	4.37		
1-14 Students	78	5.64	2.83		
15-250 Students	68	6.56	3.81		

Note. * $p < .05$

Descriptive Statistics And Relationships Between Dependent Variables

Subscale scores were created for the dependent measures by summing the individual items in each scale. The means and standard deviations for these subscale summed scores are presented in Table 22. The average score on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale was 20.11 ($SD = 11.57$) and ranged from 0 to 54. Respondents had an average score of 6.34 ($SD = 4.86$) on the Depersonalization subscale, with scores ranging from 0 to 22. Finally, the average Personal Accomplishment score was 35.99 ($SD = 7.61$) and ranged from 0 to 48.

Table 22

Means and Standard Deviations for the Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment Subscales

	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Emotional Exhaustion	411	20.11	11.57	0	54
Depersonalization	411	6.34	4.86	0	22
Personal Accomplishment	411	35.99	7.61	0	48

Pearson's Product Moment correlations were conducted to examine the relationships between the subscale scores (see Table 23). The results revealed that Emotional Exhaustion was significantly positively correlated with

Depersonalization, $r(409) = .53, p < .001$, indicating that higher scores on Emotional Exhaustion were associated with higher Depersonalization scores. In addition, Emotional Exhaustion was significantly negatively correlated with Personal Accomplishment, $r(409) = -.22, p < .001$. In other words, as Emotional Exhaustion scores increased, Personal Accomplishment decreased. The results also revealed a significant negative correlation between Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment, $r(409) = -.35, p < .001$, indicating that greater Depersonalization scores were associated with lower Personal Accomplishment scores.

Table 23

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment

	Emotional Exhaustion	Depersonalization
Depersonalization	.527**	
Personal Accomplishment	-.220**	-.350**

Note. ** $p < .01$

Primary Analysis

A series of analyses were conducted to examine the effects of the categorical demographic variables on the dependent measures, including Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment. More specifically, separate one-way multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were performed using the categorical demographic variables as the between subjects effects and the three subscale scores as the dependent measures. Pearson's Product Moment correlations were conducted to examine the relationships between the continuous demographic variables (age, number of courses taught) and the subscale scores.

Gender

The MANOVA conducted to examine the effects of gender on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores revealed a significant multivariate effect, $F(3, 396) = 5.38, p < .01$. As shown in Table 24, there was a significant gender effect on emotional exhaustion scores, $F(1, 398) = 4.10, p < .05$. Females had significantly higher emotional exhaustion scores ($M = 20.99, SD = 11.53$) compared to males ($M = 18.53, SD = 10.82$). Gender, however, did not have a significant effect on depersonalization scores or personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Table 24

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Gender

	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				4.10	.044*
Male	134	18.53	10.82		
Female	266	20.99	11.80		
Depersonalization				3.19	.075
Male	134	6.96	4.85		
Female	266	6.04	4.82		
Personal Accomplishment				1.13	.288
Male	134	35.68	7.91		
Female	266	36.48	6.75		

Note. * $p < .05$

Ethnicity

The MANOVA conducted to examine the effects of ethnicity (Caucasian vs. other) on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores indicated that the overall multivariate effect was not significant, $F(3, 393) = 2.56, p = .081$ (see Table 25). The analyses failed to

reveal any significant effects of ethnicity on emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Table 25

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Ethnicity

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				0.28	.596
Caucasian (White)	371	20.25	11.46		
Non-Caucasian	26	19.00	12.79		
Depersonalization				1.17	.281
Caucasian (White)	371	6.40	4.83		
Non-Caucasian	26	5.35	4.84		
Personal Accomplishment				2.90	.089
Caucasian (White)	371	36.40	7.05		
Non-Caucasian	26	33.92	8.96		

University Type

A MANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of university type (private vs. public) on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores. The overall multivariate effect was not significant, $F(3,$

397) = .09, $p = .966$. As shown in Table 26, the analyses also failed to reveal significant effects of university type on respondent emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Table 26

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Type of University (Public vs. Private)

	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				.01	.933
Private	56	19.95	11.56		
Public	345	20.08	11.39		
Depersonalization				.06	.814
Private	56	6.41	5.31		
Public	345	6.25	4.67		
Personal Accomplishment				.08	.776
Private	56	36.52	6.55		
Public	345	36.23	7.21		

Courses Taught

The MANOVA conducted to examine the effects of courses taught (semesters vs. quarters or blocks) on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores failed to reveal a significant overall multivariate effect, $F(3, 396) = .15, p = .933$. As shown in Table 27, the analyses failed to reveal significant effects of courses taught on respondent emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Table 27

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Semester Type

	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				.39	.533
Semesters	357	20.25	11.49		
Quarters or Blocks	43	19.09	11.84		
Depersonalization				.02	.886
Semesters	357	6.34	4.87		
Quarters or Blocks	43	6.23	4.59		
Personal Accomplishment				.02	.878
Semesters	357	36.17	7.19		
Quarters or Blocks	43	36.35	7.34		

Teaching Type

A MANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of teaching type (face to face vs. hybrid or online) on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores. Again, for purposes of this study, because the sample size for online teaching type was so small, hybrid and online were combined for analysis. The multivariate effect was not significant, $F(3, 397) = .05, p = .987$. As shown in Table 28, the analyses failed to reveal significant effects of teaching type on respondent emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Table 28

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Type of Courses Taught

	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				.07	.797
Face to Face	224	20.32	11.72		
Hybrid or Online	177	20.02	11.28		
Depersonalization				.13	.717
Face to Face	224	6.42	4.80		
Hybrid or Online	177	6.24	4.89		
Personal Accomplishment				.01	.914
Face to Face	224	36.19	7.08		
Hybrid or Online	177	36.27	7.29		

Marital Status

A MANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of marital status on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores. The overall multivariate effect was not significant, $F(6, 788) = 1.09, p = .364$. As shown in Table 29, the results failed to reveal significant effects of marital status on respondent emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Table 29

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Marital Status

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				.92	.399
Single	50	21.76	11.92		
Married/Partnered	296	19.61	11.38		
Divorced/Widowed/Separated	53	20.87	11.04		
Depersonalization				1.88	.153
Single	50	7.54	5.12		
Married/Partnered	296	6.14	4.74		
Divorced/Widowed/Separated	53	6.08	4.87		
Personal Accomplishment				1.92	.149
Single	50	34.54	8.03		
Married/Partnered	296	36.39	7.08		
Divorced/Widowed/Separated	53	37.17	6.76		

Tenured Status

The MANOVA conducted to examine the effects of tenured status (tenured vs. on tenured track vs. not on tenured track) on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores revealed a significant overall multivariate effect, $F(6, 794) = 3.10, p < .01$. As shown in Table 30, tenured status had a significant effect on emotional exhaustion scores, $F(2, 399) = 7.78, p < .001$. Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test indicated that respondents who were not on tenured track had significantly lower emotional exhaustion scores ($M = 16.42, SD = 11.57$) than those who were tenured ($M = 20.91, SD = 11.07, p < .01$) or those who were on tenured track ($M = 22.26, SD = 11.37, p < .01$). In addition, tenured status had a significant effect on depersonalization scores $F(2, 399) = 3.68, p < .05$. Post hoc tests using Tukey's HSD revealed that respondents who were not on tenured track had significantly lower depersonalization scores ($M = 5.21, SD = 4.43$) than those who were tenured ($M = 6.62, SD = 4.91$) or those were on tenured track ($M = 6.81, SD = 4.86$). The analysis failed to reveal a significant effect of tenured status on respondent personal accomplishment, *ns*.

Table 30

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Tenured Status

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				7.78	.000*
Tenured	201	20.91	11.07		
On tenured track	99	22.26	11.37		
Not on tenured track	102	16.42	11.57		
Depersonalization				3.68	.026**
Tenured	201	6.62	4.91		
On tenured track	99	6.81	4.86		
Not on tenured track	102	5.21	4.43		
Personal Accomplishment				.05	.950
Tenured	201	36.34	7.61		
On tenured track	99	36.07	6.34		
Not on tenured track	102	36.17	7.14		

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

University Classification

A MANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of university classification (doctorate vs. master's vs. baccalaureate vs. associate) on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores.

The overall multivariate effect was not significant, $F(9, 961) = 1.51, p = .140$. As shown in Table 31, the analyses also failed to reveal significant effects of classification on respondent emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Table 31

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Type of Degree Granted

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				1.29	.278
Doctorate-granting university	172	21.23	11.70		
Master's college or university	108	19.57	11.81		
Baccalaureate college	93	19.91	10.35		
Associate college	28	17.07	12.13		
Depersonalization				.75	.520
Doctorate-granting university	172	6.05	4.81		
Master's college or university	108	6.22	4.48		
Baccalaureate college	93	6.81	4.95		
Associate college	28	7.11	5.93		
Personal Accomplishment				.61	.608
Doctorate-granting university	172	36.03	7.20		
Master's college or university	108	36.91	6.60		
Baccalaureate college	93	36.14	7.66		
Associate college	28	35.07	7.79		

Academic Discipline

A MANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of academic discipline (social sciences vs. business or humanities vs. applied, natural, information sciences vs. education vs. health sciences) on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores. The overall multivariate effect was not significant, $F(12, 1021) = 1.64, p = .076$. As shown in Table 32, the analyses also failed to reveal significant effects of academic discipline on respondent emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

University Title

The MANOVA conducted to examine the effects of university title on Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment scores revealed a significant overall multivariate effect, $F(12, 1045) = 1.94, p < .05$. As shown in Table 33, university title had a significant effect on emotional exhaustion scores, $F(4, 397) = 3.25, p < .05$. Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD revealed that instructors or lecturers had significantly lower emotional exhaustion scores ($M = 15.44, SD = 11.43$) than associate professors ($M = 22.14, SD = 11.43, p < .01$). The analyses, however, failed to reveal any significant results of university title on depersonalization scores or personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Table 32

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Academic Discipline

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				1.94	.103
Social Sciences	59	19.83	10.73		
Business/Humanities Applied/Natural/ Information Sciences	75	17.92	11.37		
Education	62	23.31	12.70		
Health Sciences	58	20.62	12.53		
	139	19.90	10.72		
Depersonalization				1.83	.123
Social Sciences	59	6.47	5.07		
Business/Humanities Applied/Natural/ Information Sciences	75	6.63	4.72		
Education	62	7.61	5.56		
Health Sciences	58	5.79	4.89		
	139	5.77	4.37		
Personal Accomplishment				1.12	.345
Social Sciences	59	35.19	7.22		
Business/Humanities Applied/Natural/ Information Sciences	75	36.33	7.59		
Education	62	35.71	6.64		
Health Sciences	58	37.79	7.62		
	139	36.30	6.63		

Table 33

MANOVA for the Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Job Title

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				3.25	.012*
Full Professor	89	20.27	11.13		
Associate Professor	121	22.14	11.43		
Assistant Professor	100	20.78	10.86		
Instructor/Lecturer	43	15.44	11.43		
Other	49	18.08	12.62		
Depersonalization				1.41	.229
Full Professor	89	6.57	4.93		
Associate Professor	121	6.64	4.67		
Assistant Professor	100	6.38	5.03		
Instructor/Lecturer	43	6.67	4.82		
Other	49	4.84	4.49		
Personal Accomplishment				.02	.999
Full Professor	89	36.29	7.69		
Associate Professor	121	36.28	7.15		
Assistant Professor	100	36.32	6.83		
Instructor/Lecturer	43	36.00	6.98		
Other	49	36.06	7.41		

Note. * $p < .05$

Number of Undergraduate Students Advised

A MANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of the number of undergraduate students advised (none vs. 1-30 students vs. 31 to 1000 students)

on respondents' emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores. The overall multivariate effect was marginally significant, $F(6, 724) = 2.02, p = .060$. As shown in Table 34, the number of undergraduate students advised had a significant effect on emotional exhaustion scores, $F(2, 364) = 3.43, p < .05$. Post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test revealed that respondents who reported advising between 31 and 1000 undergraduate students had significantly lower emotional exhaustion scores ($M = 17.44, SD = 10.67$) than those respondents who did not advise undergraduate students ($M = 20.95, SD = 12.14$). The analyses, however, failed to reveal any significant results of the number of undergraduate students advised on depersonalization scores or personal accomplishment scores, all *ns*.

Number of Graduate Students Advised

A MANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of the number of graduate students advised on respondents' emotional exhaustion scores, depersonalization scores, and personal accomplishment scores. As shown in Table 35, number of graduate students advised had a significant effect on personal accomplishment scores, $F(2, 271) = 4.59, p < .05$. Respondents who reported advising between 15 and 250 graduate students had significantly higher personal accomplishment scores ($M = 38.45, SD = 6.46$) than those respondents who did not advise graduate students ($M = 35.41, SD = 7.20$) and those who advised between 1 and 14 students ($M = 36.06, SD = 6.32$). Although the analysis showed a significant effect of number of graduate students advised, the

effect size was .033, suggesting that this finding was an anomaly. The analyses, however, failed to reveal any significant results of number of graduate students advised on emotional exhaustion scores or depersonalization scores, all *ns*.

Table 34

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Number of Undergraduates Advised

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				3.43	.033*
None	124	20.95	12.11		
1-30 Students	131	20.60	10.95		
31-1000 Students	112	17.44	10.67		
Depersonalization				.39	.676
None	124	6.19	5.15		
1-30 Students	131	6.39	4.80		
31-1000 Students	112	5.85	4.26		
Personal Accomplishment				2.39	.093
None	124	35.17	7.07		
1-30 Students	131	36.60	6.22		
31-1000 Students	112	37.07	7.86		

Note. * $p < .05$

Age

Pearson's Product Moment correlations were utilized to examine the relationships between age and the subscale scores (Emotional Exhaustion,

Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment). As shown in Table 36, the results revealed that age was significantly negatively correlated with depersonalization, $r(397) = -.10, p < .05$, and positively correlated with personal accomplishment, $r(397) = .12, p < .05$. These findings indicate that older age is associated with lower depersonalization scores and higher personal accomplishment scores.

Table 35

MANOVA for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment by Number of Graduates Advised

	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Emotional Exhaustion				2.12	.122
None	126	19.78	11.46		
1-14 Students	79	22.82	10.75		
15-250 Students	69	22.23	11.38		
Depersonalization				.91	.405
None	126	6.48	5.10		
1-14 Students	79	6.73	4.44		
15-250 Students	69	5.71	4.64		
Personal Accomplishment				4.59	.011*
None	126	35.41	7.20		
1-14 Students	79	36.06	6.32		
15-250 Students	69	38.45	6.46		

Note. * $p < .05$

Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester

As shown in Table 36, the results failed to reveal significant correlations between the number of courses taught per term or semester and the subscale scores (all *ns*).

Table 36

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment with Age and Number of Courses Taught per Term or Semester

	Age r		Number of Courses Taught R
Emotional Exhaustion	-.069		.070
Depersonalization	-.102	*	.099
Personal Accomplishment	.121	*	.040

Note. * $p < .05$

Predictive Models

Stepwise multiple regression models were used to predict the subscale scores using both university and demographic variables as predictors. More specifically, the predictors included, age, number of courses taught per term or semester, number of students advised, marital status, gender, ethnicity,

university type, course type, tenured status, degree type, academic discipline, and job title. Because categorical predictor variables cannot be entered directly into a regression model and be meaningfully interpreted, dummy variables are a way of adding the values of a nominal or ordinal variable to a regression equation. The process of creating dichotomous variables from categorical variables is called dummy coding (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

The standard approach to modeling categorical variables is to include the categorical variables in the regression equation by converting each level of each categorical variable into a variable of its own, usually coded 0 or 1. In general, a categorical variable with k levels was transformed into $k-1$ variables each with two levels. For example, if a categorical variable has six levels, then five dichotomous variables could be constructed that would contain the same information as the single categorical variable. One of the levels has to be left out of the regression model to avoid perfect multicollinearity (singularity; redundancy), which will prevent a solution (for example, leave out "Male" to avoid singularity). The omitted category is the reference category because b coefficients must be interpreted with reference to it. A positive beta coefficient for any included group means it scored higher on the response variable than did the reference group, or if negative, then lower. A significant beta coefficient for any included group means that group is significantly different on the response variable from the reference group (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Stepwise regression techniques are used to find the best fitting equation given a set of predictors.

The predictors are selected and eliminated based on their predictive values until the best fitting model is found.

Emotional exhaustion. The regression model predicting emotional exhaustion was significant, $F(1, 209) = 6.92, p < .01$ and accounted for 3.2% of the variance ($R^2 = .032$). As shown in Table 37, the final model included one predictor, other university title ($Beta = -.179, p < .01$). This finding suggests that having another university title predicts lower emotional exhaustion scores.

Table 37

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Emotional Exhaustion from University and Demographic Variables

	Unstandardized Coefficients		<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	B	SE			
Other University Title	-6.26	2.38	-0.18	-2.63	.009*

Note. * $p < .01$

Depersonalization. The regression analysis predicting Depersonalization revealed two models. The first model was significant, $F(1, 209) = 6.71, p < .05$ and accounted for 3.1% of the variance ($R^2 = .031$). The second model was also significant, $F(2, 208) = 6.52, p < .01$ and accounted for 5.9% of the variance ($R^2 = .059$). The second model accounted for significantly more variance than the

first model and therefore was selected as the final model (see Table 38). The results revealed that advising between 15 and 250 graduate students was a significant predictor of depersonalization ($Beta = -.205, p < .01$). In addition, other university title was a significant predictor of depersonalization ($Beta = -.170, p < .05$). These findings indicate that advising between 15 and 250 graduate students as well as having another university title predicted lower depersonalization scores.

Table 38

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Depersonalization from University and Demographic Variables

	Unstandardized Coefficients		<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	B	SE			
15-250 Students	-2.30	0.76	-0.21	-3.01	.003*
Other University Title	-2.58	1.04	-0.17	-2.48	.014**

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

Personal accomplishment. The regression analysis predicting Personal Accomplishment revealed one significant model, $F(1, 209) = 5.87, p < .05$, that accounted for only 2.7% of the variance ($R^2 = .027$). There was one significant

predictor, respondent age ($Beta = .165, p < .05$). This finding indicates that older ages predicted greater scores on personal accomplishment (see Table 39).

Table 39

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Reduced Personal Accomplishment from University and Demographic Variables

	Unstandardized Coefficients		<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>			
Age	.102	.042	.165	2.42	.016*

Note. * $p < .05$

Open-Ended Data

For this study, two open-ended research questions were posted on the demographic survey. These questions were

1. What factors contribute to feelings of burnout among university faculty?
2. What can be done to reduce feelings of burnout among university faculty?

Of the 411 participants, 352 (85.6%) answered question number one and 334 of the 411 participants (81.3%) answered question number two.

Interpretation of the open-ended questions was based on a five-step method for analyzing qualitative data by Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003) which included (a)

becoming familiar with the data; (b) finding a focus for the analysis; (c) categorizing the material; (d) finding patterns and (e) bringing the data all together. This type of analysis is based on themes that emerge as the data becomes more familiar (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003). The common themes and direct quotes for the research questions are in Tables 40-41.

There were many qualitative responses to both questions and as the material was reviewed, several recurrent themes emerged which formed categories. The categories consisted of Administration, Student related, Financial, Personal, Political, Social, Technical and Workload. Common factors that contribute to burnout among university faculty were actually factors that could be changed to reduce feelings of burnout among university faculty.

Administration

For question one, *what factors contribute to feelings of burnout among university faculty*, under the category titled Administration, lack of support and lack of recognition and/or rewards from administration were common themes from numerous faculty members. This same theme was found in question two as a factor that can be changed, *what can be done to reduce feelings of burnout among university faculty*. Under the category Administration, several university faculty members suggested that administration better recognize and reward faculty and listen to faculty more.

Student Related

For question one, under the category Student related, some of the common themes included: lack of student commitments, unprepared students and poor student performance. For question two under the Student related category, the common themes included: better prepare and/or qualify students, make students more accountable and teach students to be independent.

Financial

For question one under the Financial category, inadequate or low pay; inadequate or poor benefits and budgets too low were listed as common themes. For question two under the Financial category, common themes included increase salaries and set salaries equal to experience.

Personal

Under the Personal category for question one, work-family imbalance, family responsibilities and health issues were listed as common themes. Under the Personal category for question two, common themes were exercise, better work-life balance and seek stress management and time management assistance.

Political

For question one, under the Political category, red tape and/or office politics and rigidly structured university environments were listed as common themes. For question two, under the Political category, reduce beaurocracy and/or politics was listed as a common theme. Struggles and/or fighting among

faculty, lack of support from colleagues and lack of colleague respect were listed as common themes for question one. Whereas mentor faculty members, foster collaborative relationships and encourage faculty civility to reduce faculty fighting were listed as common themes for question two.

Technical

Under the Technical category, lack of innovation, outdated software and computer security precautions were listed as common themes for question one. Provide better technological support was listed as the common theme for question two.

Workload

For question one, the Workload category, which coincidentally contained the most themes, included: classes too large; lack of administrative support; heavy teaching and advising; too many meetings; too many e-mails; expectations for research and publications and unrealistic standards and deadlines. For question two, the Workload category, the themes included: limit class size, get administrative support, reduce teaching loads, allow release time and/or sabbaticals for grant writing and/or research and reduce the number of committee meetings and committee work.

Table 40

Factors that Contribute to Burnout Among University Faculty

Categories

- Common Themes

- Direct comments

Administration

- Lack of support from administration
- Poor decision-making from administration
- Under appreciated from administrators
- Ineffective administrators
- Overbearing administrators
- Lack of recognition and/or rewards from administrators
- Too much top-down administration

- “Biggest contributing factor is not feeling that administration, especially at the unit level, does not have my back.”
- “Lack of communication/ direction/feedback from supervisors”
- “Not being appreciated/ recognized for dedication, after all, we didn’t enter this profession for the money”
- “Unrealistic administrative expectations”

Student related

- Difficult and/or rude students
- Lack of student commitments
- Unprepared students
- Lack of student interest/motivation
- Poor student performance
- Lack of student work ethics
- Academic dishonesty in students

- “They have no respect for instructors. They speak to their instructors in ways that previous generations of learners would never dare.”
 - “Lack of student motivation, accountability, and responsibility”
 - “Students are increasingly entitled and lazy; they want to be entertained rather than taught. They can’t buy books, but have touch phones, laptops, wear expensive clothes and drive nice cars.”
-

Table 40, continued

Factors that Contribute to Burnout Among University Faculty

Categories	
- Common Themes	- Direct comments
Financial	
- Inadequate or low pay	- "There is an issue with new hires making more money than existing faculty."
- Inadequate or poor benefits	- "Lack of fair pay – a living wage reflective of one's level of education and experience"
- Budgets too low	- "Salaries not keeping pace with the 'real' world"
- Budget cuts	- "We are among the most highly educated people in the country and among the worst paid."
- No travel funds	
Personal	
- Work-family imbalance	- "Problems within one's personal life that interfere with success on the job"
- Health issues	- "No time for personal re-fueling (exercise, relaxing, resting, reading for enjoyment)"
- Family responsibilities	
- Low morale	
Political	
- Red tape and/or office politics	- "Too much bureaucracy"
- Rigidly structured university environments	- "Political attacks against higher education, including campaigns for "tax relief" which further reduce political and economic support"
- Inflexible office hour mandates	- "Universities are becoming businesses focused on numbers rather than education."

Table 40, continued 2

Factors that Contribute to Burnout Among University Faculty

Categories

- Common Themes

- Direct comments

Social

- Struggles and/or fighting among faculty
- Lack of support from colleagues
- Lack of colleague respect

- "In-fighting among faculty"
- "Antagonistic colleagues"
- "Rude faculty members that have former "cliques"
- "Lack of faculty support"
- "I have found some stress in collaborating with colleagues on research projects."
- "Lack of collegiality among the faculty in my department"

Technical

- Outdated software
- Computer security precautions
- Lack of innovation

- "All software is out of date."
 - "Can't keep up with student software abilities"
 - "Executive management attitudes toward innovation"
-

Table 40, continued 3

Factors that Contribute to Burnout Among University Faculty

Categories

- Common Themes

- Direct comments

Workload

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Classes too large- Lack of administrative support- Heavy teaching loads- Heavy advising loads- Too many e-mails- Not enough faculty and/or staff cutbacks- Too many committees- Too many meetings- Expectations for research and publications- Lack of resources- Lack of time- Paperwork and/or reports- Unrealistic standards and deadlines- Teaching the same class every year and/or semester | <ul style="list-style-type: none">- “Classes are too big. Service load is too high.”- “High teaching loads when research and service is also expected”- “Understaffing and no funds to rehire”- “Pressures from committees and meetings”- “Being overworked with too little resources”- “Stress of keeping up with accreditation requirements” |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
-

Table 41

What Can Be Done to Reduce Feelings of Burnout Among University Faculty?

Categories	
- Common Themes	- Direct comments
Administration	
- Better recognize and reward faculty	- "Encourage interaction between administration and faculty."
- Listen to faculty more	
- Reduce faculty reports	- "Avoid faculty frustration by having a mechanism for problems with the work environment to be heard, addressed and solved."
- Set realistic tenured expectations	
- Support and or recognize family commitments	- "Support true family friendly policies. Put true support in place for everyone so that they may enjoy a whole life." "Have every administrator take one online class as an online student."
Student related	
- Better prepare and/or qualify students	- "Have a behaviour contract for students in universities that includes how to act with instructors."
- Make students more accountable	
- Teach students to be independent	- "Keep a good perspective on our priorities as educators. Get back to basics."
Financial	
- Increase salaries	- "Increase pay commensurate with responsibility."
- Set salaries equal to experience	- "Money to go to conferences and training."
- Budget for travel support	
- Budget additional money for conferences	

Table 41, continued

What Can Be Done to Reduce Feelings of Burnout Among University Faculty?

Categories

- Common Themes

- Direct comments

Personal

- Exercise
- Take on a hobby
- Reassess priorities
- Seek personal development
- Seek stress management assistance
- Seek time management assistance
- Better work-life balance
- Seek humor; laugh
- Work-family imbalance
- Health issues
- Family responsibilities
- Low morale

- "Pay gym membership, why should faculty have to pay to use the health facilities?"
- "Recognize outside commitments (family, communities, etc.) faculty have."
- "Promoting healthy lifestyle habits at work (i.e. smoke-free work place)."
- "Require vacation be taken."
- "Problems within one's personal life that interfere with success on the job."
- "No time for personal re-fueling (exercise, relaxing, resting, reading for enjoyment)"

Political

- Reduce bureaucracy and/or politics

- "Reduce some roadblocks set in place by college bureaucracy or politics."
 - "The politics of the academic setting can also be quite draining to the human spirit"
-

Table 41, continued 2

What Can Be Done to Reduce Feelings of Burnout Among University Faculty?

Categories

- Common Themes

- Direct comments

Social

- Mentor faculty members
- Encourage more open informal faculty discussions
- Foster collaborative relationships
- Encourage cross disciplinary interactions
- Encourage faculty civility to reduce faculty fighting

- "Support from others outside of your department can be very beneficial."
- "Have some realistic mechanism to significantly reduce bullying behavior by senior faculty members."
- "Encourage friendships among faculty."
- "Plan social activities which allow for colleague interactions in a non-work related environment."

Technical

- Provide better technological support

- "Have an instructional design group that is available to help faculty develop online courses."
 - "Provide opportunities for professional development beyond academic conferences (e.g., increasing teaching skills, managing new technology, etc.)."
-

Table 41, continued 3

What Can Be Done to Reduce Feelings of Burnout Among University Faculty?

Categories

- Common Themes

- Direct comments

Workload

- Reduce the number of repeated classes taught
 - Learn to say no
 - Limit class sizes
 - Get administrative support
 - Reduce teaching loads
 - Allow release time and/or sabbaticals for grant writing and/or research
 - Reduce the number of committee meetings and committee work
 - Vary the curriculum
 - Teach students to advise
- "Give faculty the option to rotate to different courses."
 - "Allow faculty opportunities to teach new classes."
 - "Provide a research semester."
 - "Tenure track faculty who are expected to participate in research should have somewhat reduced teaching loads."
 - "Offer faculty the chance to swap positions with someone in a different discipline or at a different institution, for a year."
-

Summary

The results of this study provide valuable information in determining what factors predict professional burnout among university full-time faculty who are employed in traditional, virtual, public and private institutions in the United States. The results may serve as a needs assessment for health educators so that they can work with administrators and human resources to create appropriate worksite health interventions and advocate for change in policies that impact faculty and their work environments. The findings presented in this chapter are further discussed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine factors which predict professional burnout among university full-time faculty who are employed in traditional, virtual, public and private institutions in the United States. Differences in professional burnout were assessed by age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, tenured status, type of university, academic discipline, primary mode of teaching delivery, number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title, number of students advised. Another purpose was to contribute empirical research to the fields of worksite health promotion and higher education as well as to develop relevant worksite health education strategies for this population.

The sample used for this study included a total of 411 participants who were full-time university professors currently employed across the United States. The voluntary participants were recruited using electronic listservs and/or blogs specific to higher education or online learning and/or who were members of academic professional organizations; or who knew faculty who used electronic listservs and/or blogs and/or who were members of academic professional organizations. The survey was administered at the end of the fall semester in December 2008. The instrument used for the data collection in this study was

the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES). Reliability of the MBI and MBI-ES have been assessed in several studies using Cronbach’s alpha estimates of .90 for emotional exhaustion, .79 for depersonalization and .71 for personal accomplishment (Blix et al., 1994; Maslach et al., 1997). Special permission was granted by the publishing company owning the rights to put the MBI-ES online for purposes of this research. The MBI-ES was used to assess the three dimensions of burnout as defined by Maslach et al., (1997): emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. A demographic survey was also used to assess independent and categorical variables such as age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, types of university, tenured status, academic discipline, mode of class delivery (online vs. face to face), number and type of classes taught, degree type, job title and number of students advised. Two open-ended questions at the end of the demographic survey were also used to assess factors that contribute to feelings of burnout and what could be done to reduce feelings of burnout.

Several inferential tests were used in the data analysis using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software program version 15. The data were analyzed using cross-tabulations, correlation analyses, One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVAs) and Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVAs). Statistical tests were run at .05 alpha.

Conclusions

As noted in Chapter IV, Emotional Exhaustion scores ≥ 24 , Depersonalization scores ≥ 9 and Personal Accomplishment scores ≤ 35 represent high degrees of burnout. The mean burnout subscale scores for faculty in this study were 20.11 for emotional exhaustion; 6.34 for depersonalization and 35.99 for personal accomplishment. In comparison, a study by Blix et al. (1994) showed that full-time, tenured-track university faculty from California State University (CSU) had mean burnout subscale scores of 18.51 for emotional exhaustion, 5.39 for depersonalization and 37.03 for personal accomplishment. Mean burnout scores have shown an increase since that study 15 years ago. A study by Hogan and McKnight (2007) among online university instructors in the United States showed mean burnout subscale scores of 22.08 for emotional exhaustion, 9.81 for depersonalization and 46.91 for personal accomplishment. The online only instructors in the Hogan and McKnight (2007) had higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscale scores than this current study indicating a higher burnout, but higher personal accomplishment subscale scores indicating lower burnout. The sample size of the Hogan and McKnight (2007) study; however, consisted of only 76 participants, thus, further research is needed to validate.

Burnout scores for this current study were also higher than scores found in other existing studies. Lackritz (2004) found mean scores of 19.36 for emotional exhaustion, 6.14 for depersonalization and 36.90 for personal accomplishment

among full-time university faculty members at a state university on the west coast in the United States. In addition, Brewer and McMahan (2004) reported mean scores of 19.28 for emotional exhaustion, 6.15 for depersonalization and 37.27 for personal accomplishment among industrial and technical educators in the United States. Both studies in 2004 (Lackritz; Brewer and McMahan) found similar mean scores in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. These mean scores again indicate that burnout is increasing among university faculty.

The context of burnout scores among higher education faculty is better understood when comparing these scores to other service professions. A study by Kumar et al. (2007) among psychiatrists in New Zealand, revealed that the mean burnout score for emotional exhaustion was 22.4, 6.6 for depersonalization and 36.5 for personal accomplishment. Comparing the results of this study, faculty were less burned out in terms of emotional exhaustion but exhibit similar depersonalization and personal accomplishment scores. A study among college nursing faculty members in Texas revealed mean burnout scores of 15.79 for emotional exhaustion, 3.92 for depersonalization and 40.02 for personal accomplishment (Talbot, 2000). The results of this study revealed that faculty in the current study experienced higher levels of burnout in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment compared to the nursing faculty in the Talbot (2000) study. A study among managers belonging to the government in public and private sectors in India revealed burnout scores

of 13.64 for emotional exhaustion, 5.66 for depersonalization and 35.87 for personal accomplishment (Chauhan, 2009). Faculty members in this current study scored higher in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, thus indicating higher burnout. However, the scores for personal accomplishment among the faculty members and managers in the Chauhan (2009) study were similar. Both groups revealed a high degree of burnout with scores higher than 35.

The discussion of findings is structured by an analysis of the findings for each hypothesis. Pertinent findings from previous studies are included in the discussion of the findings.

H1 : Age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, type of university, tenured status, academic discipline and primary mode of class delivery (online vs. face to face), number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and number of students advised are statistically significant predictors of burnout scores (i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced sense of personal accomplishment) among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.

A stepwise multiple regression model test was performed to determine if age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, type of university, tenured status, academic discipline and primary mode of class delivery (online vs. face to face), number of courses taught per term or semester, number of students advised, degree type and job title were significant predictors of burnout scores. The regression model

predicting emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment was partially statistically significant. The predictor, other university title, was significant in predicting emotional exhaustion. The predictor, advising between 15 and 250 graduate students, was a significant predictor for depersonalization. For personal accomplishment, the predictor, age, was significant. This finding indicated that older ages had greater scores on personal accomplishment, meaning that as faculty age, burnout actually decreases.

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by university title. For emotional exhaustion, full professors, associate professors and assistant professors had significantly higher scores than instructors and lecturers. These results are not consistent with the findings in studies conducted by Tümkaya (2006) and Gmelch, Wilke & Lovrich (1986). Higher ranks, such as professors experienced the least emotional exhaustion, whereas lower ranks, such as research assistants experienced the most emotional exhaustion. In time, emotional exhaustion and personal failure can increase among this group since these young faculty are at the beginning of their professions and can experience disappointment due to their inexperience in faculty practices, negative working conditions, the administrative system, low wages, student behavior and varying reactions of evaluation managers (Tümkaya (2006). Professors can cope with the problems they encounter because of the eases and confidence they have acquired by the late stage of

their academic life (Tümkiye (2006). For this current study, there were no statistically significant differences in depersonalization or personal accomplishment scores based on university title among full-time university faculty. In the study by Tümkiye (2006), no significant difference occurred in depersonalization scores according to academic status. The study by Lackritz (2004) found opposite findings, tenured and probationary faculty actually experienced higher levels of burnout than lecturers.

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty and the number of undergraduate students advised. For emotional exhaustion, scores were significant based on the number of undergraduate students advised. Findings revealed that respondents who reported advising between 31 and 1000 undergraduate students had significantly lower emotional exhaustion scores than those respondents who did not advise undergraduate students. There were no significant differences in the depersonalization or personal accomplishment scores among full-time university faculty and the number of undergraduate students advised.

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty and the number of graduate students advised. The number of graduate students advised had significant effect on personal accomplishment scores. Respondents who reported advising between 15 and 250 graduate students had significantly higher

personal accomplishment scores than those who advised between one and 14 students and those respondents who did not advise graduate students. Since higher personal accomplishment scores indicate lower burnout, faculty members may have a sense of gratification advising graduate students. Although the analysis showed a significant effect, the effect size was .033, suggesting that this finding was an anomaly. For emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores, there were no significant results for full-time university faculty and the number of graduate students they advised.

H2: *There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores by age group among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.*

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores by age group among full-time university faculty. There was a significant negative relationship between the variables and depersonalization scores such that younger respondents tended to have a higher depersonalization scores than older respondents. For personal accomplishment, there was a positive relationship between the variables such that older respondents had higher scores than younger respondents. There was no significant difference in emotional exhaustion scores and age among full-time university faculty. A study by Tümkaya (2006) among full-time faculty in Turkey found that age was statistically significant in terms of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment scores, but not on depersonalization scores.

Emotional exhaustion was experienced less the higher the age of the faculty member. Elder faculty define themselves more successful in terms of personal accomplishment, whereas the younger ones state that they personally don't find themselves to be successful (Tümekaya, 2006). Age was a negative correlation of emotional exhaustion in a study by Lackritz (2004). Younger faculty are candidates for burnout because they have additional pressures from the early stages of career-building and potential time conflicts with other aspects of their careers and lives, whereas older faculty tend to have more experience balancing time demands (Lackritz, 2004). Younger faculty mostly lecture without having any experience in class management, especially in crowded classes where there are students who are similar in age. In addition, they have to conduct scientific research for academic progress, pass many exams in a limited period of time, frequently have inadequate management support and experience anxiety not obtaining tenure (Tümekaya, 2006).

H3: *There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores by gender among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory– Educators Survey.*

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores by gender among full-time university faculty. For emotional exhaustion, females had significantly higher scores than males. Other studies have revealed similar findings in that female faculty, including female online instructors, were found to experience emotional

exhaustion much more than males (Lackritz, 2004, Tümkaya, 2006 and Hogan & McKnight, 2007). These findings are also consistent with studies by Blix et al. (1994) and Maslach et al. (2001) which reported higher levels of stress in females than males. Whereas, this study revealed that there were no significant differences in depersonalization and personal accomplishment scores based on gender among full-time university faculty, the study by Lackritz (2004), did show that males had significantly higher mean scores for depersonalization than females. The Lackritz (2004) study appeared to be the first study in education to show significance in different directions across different measures of burnout.

H4: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among university full-time faculty when grouped by marital status as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a significant difference in burnout scores among university full-time faculty when grouped by marital status. There were no statistically significant findings in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization or personal accomplishment scores by marital status among full-time faculty. The study findings differed from a study by Fong & Amatea (1992) which found that single female faculty, researchers and administrators at a southeastern university without children experienced higher levels of stress than their multiple-role (married with children) counterparts.

Coincidentally, divorced, widowed and separated respondents were significantly older than married/partnered or single respondents and they advised significantly more graduate students than married/partnered respondents.

H5: *There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among university full-time faculty when grouped by ethnicity as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.*

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a significant difference in burnout scores among university full-time faculty when grouped by ethnicity. There were no statistically significant findings in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization or personal accomplishment scores by ethnicity. However, most of the participants (90.3%) were Caucasian. These findings are similar to those in studies by Hogan and McKnight (2007) and Lackritz (2004). Both of these studies; however, have similar demographics in that 89.5% of the participants in the Hogan and McKnight (2007) study and over 80% of the respondents in the Lackritz (2004) study were Caucasian. These demographic percentages are not surprising considering ethnic diversity within higher education is lacking. Individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds are underrepresented across the nation and comprise just over 10% of full-time undergraduate professors (Antonio, 2003).

In contrast to this current study, a Smith & Witt (1993) study differed in their results and found that African American faculty in the United States reported higher levels of occupational stress than their Caucasian counterparts, especially

in the areas of research and service activities. Because of the contrasting results of this study, the need for further research related to ethnicity and burnout in university faculty is warranted.

H6: *There is a statistically significant difference between university full-time faculty employed in traditional (brick and mortar) vs. virtual universities as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.*

Due to the sample size of the respondents who taught at a virtual university, an inferential analysis could not be run. Additional studies comparing faculty teaching at virtual vs. traditional campuses are warranted.

H7: *There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores between university full-time faculty employed at public vs. private institutions as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.*

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores between university full-time faculty employed at public vs. private institutions. There were no statistically significant differences in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization or personal accomplishment scores between university full-time faculty employed at public vs. private institutions. The majority of the respondents (83.9%) in this study were employed at a public university, whereas 13.6% of the respondents were employed in a private university. Currently, there is a lack of research exploring differences between public or private universities in relation to faculty burnout;

this current study offers preliminary insight. Additional studies which use larger, comparative groups are suggested.

H8: *There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores between tenured and non-tenured full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.*

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores between tenured and non-tenured full-time university faculty. For emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores, tenured and tenured track respondents had significantly higher scores than non-tenured respondents. These findings are consistent with those of Lackritz (2004), where tenured and probationary faculty experience higher levels of burnout than lecturers. However, Gmelch et al. (1986) found that untenured faculty reported higher levels of stress than tenured faculty. Untenured faculty may be more vulnerable to stress due to their lack of recognition and rewards for their activities, insufficient time to fulfill expectations that they and others have for themselves as faculty, powerlessness in influencing decisions that affect their careers and trying relationships with students. Tenured status is the professional recognition that the faculty member is successful in his or her role (Gmelch et al., 1986). For personal accomplishment, there were no significant differences in scores among tenured and non-tenured faculty.

H9: *There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by academic discipline (e.g., Arts and Sciences, Health Sciences, Education) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.*

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by academic discipline (e.g., Arts and Sciences, Health Sciences, Education). There were no statistically significant differences in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by academic discipline. Similar findings were found by Gmelch et al. (1983) among faculty members from doctoral-granting institutions in the United States. Faculty in clusters of academic disciplines responded similarly to items composing the scales of teaching, research and service stress. A comparison of the separate stress-producing items found that faculty in all areas of the university identify the same stressors (Gmelch et al., 1983).

H10: *There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by primary format of instruction (i.e. online, hybrid or face to face) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.*

A MANOVA was performed to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when

grouped by primary format of instruction (i.e., online, hybrid, or face to face). Because of the small sample size of online only respondents, respondents who taught online and hybrid courses were combined for analysis. There were no statistically significant differences in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment scores among full-time faculty when grouped by primary format of instruction. However, it is interesting to note that faculty who taught online or hybrid courses had slightly lower mean scores for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and slightly higher scores for personal accomplishment, indicating less burnout. This study is actually counter to the findings in the Hogan and McKnight (2007) study among online instructors for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The Hogan and McKnight study found higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization mean scores than this study. Further studies on burnout that compare face to face and online teaching are definitely warranted.

Table 42

Summary Research Hypotheses: Rejected or Fail to Reject the Null

Research Hypothesis	Research Hypothesis Rejected Or Fail to Reject the Null
H1: Age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, type of university, tenure status, academic discipline, primary mode of class delivery (online vs. face to face), number and type of courses taught, degree type, job title and number of students advised are statistically significant predictors of burnout scores (i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment) among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.	Partially Rejected the Null Other university title, age and advising between 15 and 250 graduate students were significant predictors.
H2: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores by age group among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory Educators Survey.	Fail to Reject the Null

Table 42, continued

Summary Research Hypotheses: Rejected or Fail to Reject the Null

Research Hypothesis	Research Hypothesis Rejected Or Fail to Reject the Null
H3: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores by gender among full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory– Educators Survey.	Fail to Reject the Null
H4: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among university full-time faculty when grouped by marital status as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.	Rejected the Null
H5: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among university full-time faculty when grouped by ethnicity as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.	Rejected the Null

Table 42, continued 2

Summary Research Hypotheses: Rejected or Fail to Reject the Null

Research Hypothesis	Research Hypothesis Rejected Or Fail to Reject the Null
140 H6: There is a statistically significant difference between university full-time faculty employed in traditional (brick and mortar) vs. virtual universities as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.	Not able to test due to low group size for those employed by virtual universities
H7: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores between university full-time faculty employed at public vs. private institutions as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.	Rejected the Null
H8: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores between tenured and non- tenured full-time university faculty as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.	Fail to Reject the Null

Table 42, continued 3

Summary Research Hypotheses: Rejected or Fail to Reject the Null

Research Hypothesis	Research Hypothesis Rejected Or Fail to Reject the Null
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H9: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by academic discipline (i.e. Arts and Sciences, Health Sciences, Education, etc.) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey.

Rejected the Null

H10: There is a statistically significant difference in burnout scores among full-time university faculty when grouped by primary format of instruction (i.e. online, hybrid or face to face) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey

Rejected the Null

Teach online only, hybrid and online respondents were combined for analysis

Discussion and Implications

Most college and university faculty face a multitude of responsibilities and pressures: teaching a number of courses each semester; conducting and publishing research, advising students and serving on various committees. These responsibilities are both time consuming and demanding. In addition, administrative “red tape,” inadequate research support and low pay (compared to comparably trained individuals outside of academia) add to the stress faculty often experience. Combined with the pressures of additional roles faculty may have, which include parent, spouse, caregiving, etc., it is easy to see why faculty members may suffer from burnout (Thurman, 1984).

Demographic results of this study can be compared to the latest faculty distribution numbers in the United States from 2006: women account for 39% of faculty overall and make up 51% of the faculty at community colleges; 42% of faculty at baccalaureate and master’s colleges or universities and 34% of faculty at doctoral-level institutions. Nationwide, women occupy 45% of tenured-track positions and 52% of non-tenured track positions and represent 24% of full professor positions and 57% of full-time instructor or lecturer positions that do not lead to consideration for tenure (West & Curtis, 2006).

In this sample a greater percentage of females reported working at a doctorate-granting University (48.1%) than males (32.8%). However, a greater percentage of males reported working at a master’s college or university (33.6%) and at an associate college (11.2%) than females (23.5%) and (4.5%)

respectively. Consistent with national findings that report women as being disproportionately represented at lower ranks and least represented among full professors (West & Curtis, 2006), the results of this study revealed that a greater percentage of males reported being a Full Professor (30.6%) than females (18.1%). A greater percentage of males reported being an Associate Professor (31.3%) than females (29.1%), as well. A greater percentage of females, on the other hand, reported being an Assistant Professor (27.5%) than males (20.1%). In addition, a greater percentage of females reported Other (14.3%) than males (7.5%). A similar percentage of males (10.4%) and females (10.9%) reported being an Instructor or Lecturer.

According to this study and other studies by Lackritz (2004), Tmkaya (2006), and Hogan and Mcknight (2007), females had significantly higher scores than males for emotional exhaustion. This study also revealed that a higher percentage of males were reported to be Full Professors and Associate Professors. Higher ranks, such as professors experienced the least emotional exhaustion, whereas lower ranks, such as research assistants experienced the most emotional exhaustion. These findings could be related to the conflict between gender roles and stereotypes (Maslach et al., 2001). Results from Tmkaya (2006) suggest that women may be more vulnerable to emotional exhaustion because of traditional gender expectations within the family (e.g., wife, mother, housekeeper). Future studies could explore the relationship

between women's adherence to traditional role expectations and emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

Faculty burnout is an issue that does not seem to be going away, but there are simple solutions that can have a major impact. According to Maslach (2003), there are six key domains of work life that bring some conceptual order to burnout and job stress. These six domains are keys to happiness and include: a manageable workload, a sense of control, the opportunities for reward, a feeling of community, faith in the fairness of the workplace and shared values (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Coincidentally, workload and control are reflected in Karasek and Theorell's (1990) Job Demand-Control (JDC) Model of job stress, according to which stress results from the combination of a high level of workload demands and a low level of autonomy and control over the job.

The qualitative results from this study are similar to findings in previous studies among university faculty by both Gmelch (1993) and Seldin (1987). Seldin (1987) found that academic stress is caused by: inadequate participation in institutional planning and governance; too many tasks to do in too little time; low pay and poor working conditions; inadequate faculty recognition and reward; unrealized career expectations and goals and unsatisfactory interactions with students, colleagues and the department chair. Gmelch (1993) revealed that there are five major sources of faculty stress: reward and recognition; time constraints; departmental influence; professional identity and student interaction. The majority of faculty stress comes from faculty rewards and recognition:

inadequate rewards, insufficient recognition and unclear expectations in teaching, research and service. The time constraint factor reflects faculty members' feelings of insufficient time for current developments; inadequate time for class preparation; interruptions from telephones and drop-in visitors; writing memos and letters; attending meetings; too heavy a workload; and job demands interfering with personal activities. The third area departmental influence, deals with attempts to influence chairs' decisions; resolving differences and/or conflicts with chairs; understanding how chairs evaluate faculty performance; and the overall lack of impact on departmental and institutional decision making.

Professional identity emerges as a source of burnout since faculty reputation can sometimes be tied to publications, conference presentations, grants and research. "One's reputation as a scholar is established on the basis of one's publications, one's presentations at professional meetings and one's successful securing of research grant support" (Gmelch et al., 1986). The final source of faculty stress is student and colleague interaction over evaluation, advising and teaching (Gmelch, 1993, p. 276). It is interesting, yet unfortunate, that the sources of faculty stress have remained unchanged for almost 25 years and that stress levels are actually increasing.

Limitations

The following limitations should be considered when drawing conclusions from the findings of this study:

1. The research sample was limited to full-time professors in the United States. These participants may not be representative of all full-time university professors in the United States. Additionally, full-time university professors who teach outside of the United States may respond differently to the inventory.
2. Responses were self-reported by the participants and were dependent upon the honesty, cooperation and understanding of the participants. Participants may not have understood the questions or failed to respond to all or any of the questions. Participants may have answered the questions in less than honest ways to avoid being identified as “burned out.”
3. This study was limited to full-time university professors currently employed in the United States. Many burned out professors may have already retired or left the profession.
4. This study was limited to a time period of eight weeks during the end of the semester and the holiday break. Stress levels may have been elevated due to the time of the year.

Recommendations for Worksite Health

According to Arnold (1990), reducing stress in one’s life means clarifying values, separating the significant from the insignificant and learning to cope with what cannot be controlled. Recommendations for worksite health to reduce faculty stress include: working with faculty to adopt collectivistic values; working

with contingent faculty to develop ways to reduce stress; working with administration to recognize faculty stress and develop interventions to reduce it and developing faculty programs that address self-efficacy.

Results from the qualitative data for this study found that fighting, competition and lack of team work were factors that contributed to burnout among faculty. On the other hand, “fostering collaborative relationships”; “group discussions” and “increased collegiality among faculty” were listed as things that could be done to reduce feelings of faculty burnout. One way to form collaborative relationships is through collectivism. Collectivism occurs when the demands and interests of groups take precedence over the desires and needs of individuals (Wagner, 1995). In order to reduce university costs and expand faculty productivity, faculty members are being asked to do “more” with less (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Sadly, “more” with less is one of the contributing factors to burnout. According to Goncalo & Staw (2005), by adopting collectivistic values, cooperation and productivity can be promoted among faculty members. Individualistic values, on the other hand, should be avoided because they incite destructive conflict and opportunism (Goncalo & Staw, 2005).

According to the COR theory, workers are more sensitive to workplace phenomena that translate to losses for them. Major loss-related sources for stress for university faculty include negative interactions with problem students and colleagues and negative evaluations by administrators. These losses may be more salient than everyday rewards they might receive and include

organizational retrenchment and decline (which lead to staff and resource cutbacks) and insecurity of the job's future (i.e., potential for future loss; Hobfall & Freedy, 1993). Burnout may be reduced or eliminated by adopting collectivistic values, collaborating with colleagues and discussing negative interactions and evaluations with colleagues and administrators.

The process of changing higher education institutions in the United States along a corporate model has been going on for several decades (Lerner, 2008). These changes include the slow erosion of tenure by attrition and the increase in the use of contingent faculty; the rise in tuition; the dramatic decrease in federal and state aid to universities and state colleges and the outsourcing of campus bookstores, food services and custodial work (Lerner, 2008).

As of 2004, two in five of all instructional staff hold contingent appointments (Schuster & Finketstein, 2006). Contingent faculty generally have larger work loads than regular faculty and they teach larger classes, most often lecture classes. Contingent faculty cannot, however, help students with advising, career planning or assist with individual learning problems. Additionally, they are hired semester to semester, get paid low salaries with no health or retirement benefits and have no job guarantees (Lerner, 2008). In reviewing Karasek and Theorell's (1990) Job Strain Model, jobs can be ranked by the demand or strain exerted on the worker, as well as the level of control that the worker has in the position. Many studies demonstrate that workers in jobs characterized by high demands and low control report greater depression and anxiety (Karsek &

Theorell, 1990). Thus, because the work of contingent faculty may exhibit high demands and low control, they may exhibit greater depression and anxiety, which may in turn, may lead to burnout.

The qualitative results of this study reveal that administrative issues are still a large concern and cause of faculty burnout and have remained unchanged from several decades. The findings in this study were similar to the findings from the studies by Seldin (1987), Gmelch (1993), and Brewer and McMahan (2004). As stated by Brewer and McMahan (2004), a logical starting point for identifying factors impacting job stress is at the organizational level since faculty perceive lack of organizational support stressors as more severe than any other type of stressor. Because the moods and expectations of faculty affect the lives of college students in particular and society in general, the social and economic cost of faculty stress could be quite high (Azeem & Nazir, 2008; Brown et al., 1986). Administration needs to recognize development strategies and design interventions that address academic stress before it leads to faculty burnout (Brewer & McMahan, 2004). As stated by Wood and McCarthy (2002), it is far better if the roots of burnout are identified and eliminated before the syndrome develops, rather than treating it after it has already occurred.

Brown et al. (1986) suggested that an interactional perspective may be helpful for administrators who wish to reduce stress levels on their campuses and to provide preventive or remedial programs for faculty and staff. Workshops for administrative staff who work with faculty may be suggested after reviewing

administrative evaluation policies, communications about resources, and the ways in which department chairs and deans interact with faculty (Brown et al., 1986). Organizational practices that prevent teacher burnout are generally those that allow for control over daily challenges (Wood & McCarthy, 2002). A few suggestions for administration include the following (Kyriacou, 2001):

1. Consult with faculty on matters, such as curriculum development or instructional planning, which directly impacts their courses.
2. Provide adequate resources and facilities to support faculty in instructional practice.
3. Provide clear job descriptions and expectations in an effort to address role ambiguity.
4. Establish and maintain open lines of communication and provide administrative support and performance feedback that may act as a buffer against stress.
5. Allow for and encourage professional development activities such as mentoring and networking by providing release time, reducing workloads during certain times or rotating semesters.

Administration may be one cause of faculty burnout; however, during the current economic times of budget cuts, downsizing and increased teaching loads, the hands of administration are tied to some degree. There are other causes of faculty burnout at the individual level based on the results of this study. Brown et al. (1986) have stated that stress management and time management workshops

can be helpful for some individual faculty members. Some faculty members; however, thrive in a fast paced environment and will never experience burnout. One faculty member in this current study stated, "I do not feel burnout. It is possible that some faculty have feelings of burnout because they are not really interested in or actively involved in the intellectual dimension of their academic discipline." Stress can be the consequence of a "lack of fit" between the capacity and the needs of the individual and the demands of the work environment. (O'Donnell, 2002).

One way of addressing stress management at the individual faculty level is to address the notion of self-efficacy. In the context of stress, self-efficacy describes one's beliefs about the ability to handle stressful situations (Mills, Reiss, & Dombeck, 2008). People with stronger perceived self-efficacy experience less stress in threatening situations and situations are less stressful when people believe that they can cope successfully with them. Again, applying the JDC Theory, if high job demands occur in conjunction with high job control, people are thought to be able to deal with these demands, protecting them from excessive strain (Taris et al., 2003). People who believe they cannot manage potential threats experience high levels of stress and anxiety arousal (Bandura, 1989).

Recommendations for Future Studies

Because there are few studies on burnout among university faculty, there is still a need for future research. Recommendations for future research may explore the following:

1. Comparisons between international vs. United States faculty to explore the role culture plays in burnout levels. This would help evaluate the cultural impact that may be playing a role.
2. Use of a quasi-experimental design to test burnout reducing interventions in the academic setting.
3. A longitudinal study measuring changes in burnout levels among full-time faculty members throughout their university teaching career.
4. A comparison study using equal samples of full-time university faculty currently employed in virtual campuses and traditional (face to face) campuses.
5. A comparison study using equal samples of full-time university faculty grouped by primary format of instruction (i.e., online, hybrid, and face to face).
6. A comparison study using a large university where the university population shares the same university culture.
7. A replicated study that includes additional survey questions pertaining to current lifestyle habits and stress reduction practices, which would be beneficial in designing effective stress management programs.

8. A comparison study using only two different populations in different areas, such as a rural and urban university.
9. A comparison study using a university and a large size employer in the same geographic area and comparing the two populations.
10. A replicated study administered during the summer prior to the start of fall classes.

Stress is a major concern for faculty members across the United States. Excessive, prolonged stress can lead to job burnout (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). The results of this study found that gender, tenure and number of undergraduate and graduate students advised were significant predictors of burnout as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES). The results of this study serve as a needs assessment for health educators and present opportunities for health educators to work with university administrators and human resources to develop and implement effective programs to reduce university faculty stress.

During the current economic times of budget cuts, downsizing and increased teaching loads, faculty are being asked to do “more” with less. By applying the COR theory and adopting collectivistic values, rather than individualistic values, faculty and administration can promote cooperation and productivity. As one respondent wrote, “individual awards, grants, etc. are wonderful and needed, but cooperation and support of each other would produce even more. Workshops on cooperation and group projects can help, but a

change in philosophy from blaming to cooperation and support will go farther to increase trust and reduce stress and burnout.”

The world of academia is changing. Tenure faculty are decreasing and contingent faculty are increasing (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Contingent faculty have higher work loads and teach higher class loads, while getting paid lower salaries with no job guarantees. (Lerner, 2008). Contingent faculty have higher work loads and teach higher class loads, while getting paid lower salaries with no job guarantees. (Lerner, 2008). On the other hand, tenured faculty have the stress associated with research, publications and grants, in addition to service and committee requirements (Gmelch et al., 1986). According to the JDC model, stress levels can be a result of the combination of a high level of workload demands and a low level of autonomy and control over the job (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Appropriate worksite programs must be designed and implemented to reduce stress and avoid burnout among both tenured and non-tenured university faculty.

Stress management and time management programs may be helpful to some individual faculty members; however, for other faculty self-efficacy programs would be beneficial. According to Maslach (2003), researchers have found that situational and organizational factors play a bigger role in burnout than do individual roles. Thus, administration and human resources should consider faculty task groups to address organizational issues. As one respondent wrote,

I'd like to see us less isolated from one another--talking more, learning from each other and feeling encouraged by those relationships."

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APPENDIX A

LETTER OF PERMISSION TO POST SURVEY ONLINE

APPENDIX A

Letter of Permission to Post Survey Online

Lynda Murphy, Ed.D.
Texas Woman's University
Office of Lifelong Learning
P.O. Box 425649
Denton, TX 76204

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11.1 Prior to the adoption and use of a published test, the test user should study and evaluate the materials provided by the test developer. Of particular importance are those that summarize the test's purposes, specify the procedures for test administration, define the intended populations of test takers, and discuss the score interpretations for which validity and reliability data are available.

11.2 When a test is to be used for a purpose for which little or no documentation is available, the user is responsible for obtaining evidence of the test's validity and reliability for this purpose.

11.15 Test users should be alert to probable potential misinterpretations of test scores and to possible unintended consequences of test use; users should take steps to minimize or avoid foreseeable misinterpretations and unintended negative consequences."

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By _____
Authorized Representative

Date _____

I AGREE TO THE ABOVE CONDITIONS:

By _____
Lynda Murphy, Ed.D.

Date _____

APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

APPENDIIX B

Demographic Survey

Please answer the attached demographic survey questions:

- 1). What is your gender? 1. Male 2. Female
- 2). What is your current age? _____ years
- 3). What is your marital status?
 1. Single
 2. Married
 3. Divorced
 4. Widowed
 5. Other (please specify _____)
- 4). What is your ethnic background?
 1. African American
 2. American Indian
 3. Asian-American
 4. Caucasian (White)
 5. Middle Eastern
 6. Hispanic/Latino
 7. Other (please specify _____)
- 5). What is your type of university?
 1. Private, traditional
 2. Private, virtual
 3. Public, traditional
 4. Public, virtual
 5. Other (Please specify _____)

6. What is the classification of your university?
1. Doctorate-granting university (an institution which awards at least 20 doctorates per year)
 2. Master's college or university (an institution which awards at least 50 master's degrees, but fewer than 20 doctorates)
 3. Baccalaureate college (an institution at which bachelor's degrees account for at least 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees and award less than 50 master's degrees per year)
 4. Associates college (includes institutions where all degrees are at the associate's level or where bachelor's degrees account for less than 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees. Excludes institutions eligible for classification as Tribal Colleges or Special Focus Institutions)
 5. Other (Please specify _____)
- 7). What is your tenured status?
1. Tenured
 2. On tenured track
 3. Not on tenured track
- 8). What is your university title?
1. Full Professor
 2. Associate Professor
 3. Assistant Professor
 4. Visiting/Interim Professor
 5. Adjunct Professor
 6. Clinical Professor
 6. Instructor
 7. Lecturer
 8. Other (please specify _____)

9). What is your academic discipline?

1. Agriculture/Home Economics
2. Business
3. Economics
4. Education
5. Engineering
6. Fine Arts
7. Health Sciences
8. Humanities
9. Natural Sciences
9. Social Sciences
10. Other (please specify _____)

10). What is your primary (>50%) mode of class delivery?

1. Face to face
2. Online
3. Hybrid (face to face and online)

11). How many classes do you teach per term/semester? _____

12). Do you currently advise undergraduate or graduate students?

_____ yes _____ no

If yes, what is your typical advising load by number of students:

_____ grad students and/or _____ undergraduate students per semester

APPENDIX C
INVITATION LETTER

APPENDIX C

Invitation to Participate

Hi, my name is Janie Crosmer and I am a doctoral candidate at Texas Woman's University Health Studies Department. As a requirement for a Doctor of Philosophy degree, I am working on my dissertation research project, which is a study on job workload among full-time University faculty in the United States who are employed in traditional and virtual institutions. Your participation in this study contributes to the field of worksite health regarding workload in higher education, as well as develops relevant worksite health education for this population.

If you are a full-time faculty member at a four year university, I'd like to invite you to participate in my study by clicking on the attached link and taking the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES) and a short demographic survey. The MBI-ES can be completed in approximately 10-15 minutes and the demographic survey can be completed in approximately 5-10 minutes.

Submission of the electronic survey will signify your informed consent to participate in this research. All questionnaire results are anonymous and your name will not appear anywhere on the document. The data will be statistically analyzed and results of the study will be available, if requested.

You may choose to enter your email in a raffle to win one of eight \$25 electronic Amazon gift cards. Enter by the end of the week and you can win one of two \$50 electronic Amazon gift cards. You can enter your email by clicking on a separate link at the end of the survey. This link is not connected to the MBI-ES or demographic response. There will be no identifying mechanism from the online survey to the random drawing link.

Thank you very much for your help in this study. Additionally, please feel free to pass this link on to other faculty members who may be interested in participating.

Sincerely,

Janie Crosmer, MBA, MS, CHES

APPENDIX D
PERMISSION TO USE LISTSERV AND BLOG

APPENDIX D

Permission to Use Listserv and Blog

Begin forwarded message:

> From: "Blackburn, Rhonda D" <rblackburn@utdallas.edu>
> Date: August 22, 2008 7:48:59 AM CDT
> To: "Janie Crosmer" <jlcrosmer@verizon.net>, <info@txdla.org>
> Cc: "Lisa Fry" <lfry@eami.com>
> Subject: RE: Possible assistance with Dissertation Research Project
>
> Janie,
>
> I discussed this with several people within our leadership team. We
> decided that this is a worthy cause and we would like to support you
> on distributing this to the TxDLA membership. Please, work with Lisa
> Fry, our association manager, to disseminate this information.
>
> Thank you and good luck!
>
> Rhonda
>
> Rhonda D Blackburn, PhD

> Assistant Provost, Educational Enhancement
> Office of the Executive Vice President and Provost
> The University of Texas at Dallas
> 800 West Campbell Road, M/S HH 20
> Richardson, Texas 75080-3021
> Office: HH 2.408
> (972) 883-6963
> (972) 883-6961 fax
> rblackburn@utdallas.edu
> Join TxDLA <http://www.txdla.org>
> President, 2008-2009
>
> From: Janie Crosmer [<mailto:jlrosmer@verizon.net>]
> Sent: Thursday, August 21, 2008 11:14 AM
> To: info@txdla.org
> Subject: Fwd: Possible assistance with Dissertation Research Project
> I just wanted to follow up with you to find out if I can get
> permission to send out an email invitation announcement using your
> listserv for my Dissertation Research Project.
>
> Thanks,
> Janie Crosmer

> > Begin forwarded message:

>>

>> From: Janie Crosmer <jlrosmer@verizon.net>

>> Date: August 6, 2008 12:48:24 PM CDT

>> To: info@txdla.org

>> Subject: Possible assistance with Dissertation Research Project

>>

>> Hi, my name is Janie Crosmer and I am a Ph.D. candidate at Texas

>> Woman's University. I will be working on my Dissertation Research

>> project this fall, which is a study on occupational burnout among

>> full-time University professors in the United States who are employed

>> in traditional and virtual institutions. I will be assessing

>> differences in occupational burnout by age, gender, marital status,

>> ethnicity, tenure status, academic discipline and mode of teaching

>> delivery. The goal of my research is to contribute empirical research

>> to the field of worksite health regarding occupational burnout in

>> higher education, as well as, develop relevant worksite health

>> education for this population.

>>

>> I understand that you have a listserv and I would like to know if I

>> can get your permission to send out an email invitation announcement

>> from me inviting faculty to participate in an online survey using the

>> Maslach Burnout Inventory and a demographic survey for my research

>> project this fall.

>>

>> Please let me know if this would be possible. I appreciate any

>> assistance you can provide.

>>

>> Thanks,

>> Janie Crosmer, M.B.A., M.S., CHES

Begin forwarded message:

> From: "Chick, Nancy" <nancy.chick@uwc.edu>

> Date: August 26, 2008 10:37:39 AM CDT

> To: "Janie Crosmer" <jlcrosmer@verizon.net>

> Subject: RE: Assistance with Dissertation Research

>

> Hi, Janie. We actually don't use our listserv in this way, but you

> may post this message to our Blog by going to our website

> (<http://www.issotl.org/>) and clicking "Digest" on the left. (If you

> can't post to it, let me know, and I'll do it.)

> ~ Nancy

> Nancy L. Chick

> Associate Professor & Vice Chair of UW Colleges English Department

> UW System Wisconsin Teaching Fellows & Scholars Program Co-Director
> || ISSOTL Communications Coordinator
> University of Wisconsin-Barron County || 1800 College Drive Rice
> Lake, WI 54868 || nancy.chick@uwc.edu || 715.234.8176, x5425

>

> From: Janie Crosmer [mailto:jlcrosmer@verizon.net]

> Sent: Thursday, August 21, 2008 11:15 AM

> To: Chick, Nancy

> Subject: Fwd: Assistance with Dissertation Research

>

> Dear Ms. Chick,

>

> I just wanted to follow up with you to find out if I can get

> permission to send out an email invitation announcement using your

> listserv for my Dissertation Research Project.

>

> Thanks,

> Janie Crosmer

>>

>> From: Janie Crosmer <jlcrosmer@verizon.net>

>> Date: August 6, 2008 2:10:13 PM CDT

>> To: nancy.chick@uwc.edu

>> Subject: Assistance with Dissertation Research

>>

>> Hi, my name is Janie Crosmer and I am a Ph.D. candidate at Texas

>> Woman's University. I will be working on my Dissertation Research

>> project this fall, which is a study on occupational burnout among

>> full-time University professors in the United States who are employed

>> in traditional and virtual institutions. I will be assessing

>> differences in occupational burnout by age, gender, marital status,

>> ethnicity, tenure status, academic discipline and mode of teaching

>> delivery. The goal of my research is to contribute empirical research

>> to the field of worksite health regarding occupational burnout in

>> higher education, as well as, develop relevant worksite health

>> education for this population.

>>

>> If you have a listserv for the Society for Scholarship of Teaching

>> and Learning, I would like to know if I can get your permission and

>> assistance in sending out an email invitation announcement from me

>> inviting faculty in the United States to participate in an online

>> survey using the Maslach Burnout Inventory and a demographic survey

>> for my research project this fall.

>>

>> Please let me know if this would be possible. I appreciate any

>> assistance you can provide.

>>

>> Thanks,

>> Janie Crosmer, M.B.A., M.S., CHES

>>