

Nursing Faculty Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the causal effects among the variables mentoring, job stress, incivility, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment on faculty job satisfaction and the intent to stay in academia of Georgia's associate degree nursing (ADN) faculty. An 87-item Nursing Faculty Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay Questionnaire was constructed from seven existing instruments and validated. A total of 134 of 217 (61.8%) nursing faculty responded to the survey. A structural equation model was generated and tested to examine the relationships among variables and to identify the effects on job satisfaction and intent to stay in academia. In the final path model, job stress, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment were significant predictors of job satisfaction. Occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were significant predictors of the nursing faculty's intent to stay in academia.

Keywords: nursing faculty, nursing education, job satisfaction, intent to stay

1. Introduction

The turbulent healthcare environment today is impacting everyone in the United States whether it is personally or professionally. Although not addressed in the currently proposed legislature, the nursing profession will be the most profoundly affected group of healthcare workers in the upcoming years. With the current nursing shortage and the unstable healthcare marketplace, nursing education is key to stabilizing our healthcare system (Davis, Davis, & Williams, 2010). Kowalski and Kelley (2013) stated: "even though they do not directly provide health care services, nursing faculty have a larger-than-life impact on access to and the cost of health care" (p. 71). Nursing faculty comprise less than 13% of the nursing workforce yet are responsible for educating 100% of the future nursing workforce (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, AACN, 2012a).

With nursing being the largest single healthcare occupation in the nation, a shortage of faculty can, in turn, threaten the nation's ability to educate nurses and support the healthcare needs. According to the American Association of Colleges of Nursing (2012b), this shortage will ultimately impact access and cost of healthcare. The reasons that were given for the vacant positions were for personal reasons, newly created position and higher-paying clinical job, retirement, and another faculty position, respectively (USG, 2010). Unfortunately, the projection of an increased nursing faculty shortage will impact our healthcare system almost as much as the shortage of bedside nurses (Nardi & Gyurko, 2013).

Nationally, the AACN (2012a) reported the nurse faculty vacancy rate was 7.6% in 2011. An estimated 14,000 nursing students have turned away from master's degree programs and doctoral programs due to lack of faculty (AACN, 2012a). To understand and alleviate the nursing faculty shortage we must first examine the variables that are contributing to the shortage. Studies have explored the various aspects of faculty work-life in colleges and represent an important piece of the higher education research puzzle. Job satisfaction, the role of job stress in faculty work life, mentoring, faculty individual characteristics, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment represent a few of the variables under study in nursing education. Various factors influencing the probability of faculty members to leave one institution for another institution or their decision to leave academia altogether have been studied to create a plan to recruit and retain productive, quality faculty members (Roughton, 2013).

The extent and depth of understanding nursing faculty and their complex roles has important implications for higher education (Ryan et al., 2012).

The current focus in nursing education reflects the complex health care system, changing student population, technological advances, and moral dilemmas (Ferguson & Day, 2005). Cranford (2013) reported role strain is a significant predictor of job satisfaction and intent to stay in academia, with faculty reporting concerns of exhaustion, job functions unrelated to the job, and lack of awareness of multiple role expectations.

Another issue associated with a nurse faculty's role is the lack of scientific evidence in nursing education which forces educators to base their decisions from their own experiences, not evidence-based practices. Epstein and Hundert (2002) defined professional judgment as to the nursing faculty's ability to make decisions based on integrated evidence and practice knowledge from the clinical setting with psychosocial knowledge of individual students. This lack of research causes role conflict in nursing education because faculty must devise their curricular and teaching strategies based on experience and not on previously tested research methods (Ferguson & Day, 2005).

Academic leadership in nursing education should ensure partnerships exist among clinical and academic settings to produce quality clinician-educators (Al-Hussami et al., 2011). Goldenberg (1990) reported most nursing programs do not address the need to prepare nursing leaders to assume leadership roles and many nurses are entering leadership positions with little or no preparation. This lack of training has been associated with poor leadership behaviors which in turn result in poor faculty job satisfaction (Young, Pearsall, Stiles, & Horton-Deutsch, 2011). Nursing leaders report being thrust into leadership roles and urge administrators to ensure leadership concepts and practices are taught to new nursing leaders (Young et al., 2011).

Nursing faculty have the responsibility and commitment to educating students to become competent nurses encountering the complicated ethical dilemmas in the health care system (Rosenkoetter & Milstead, 2010). Although the literature reveals other disciplines have similar issues in educating students, nursing education is an interdisciplinary profession that requires the integration of concepts from education, psychology, medicine, and other health care disciplines (Ferguson & Day, 2005). Nurse faculty in academia should act as advocates for students, patients, the community, and the discipline (Rosenkoetter & Milstead, 2010) and are often the ones that have contributed to the knowledge of the profession of nursing (Ferguson & Day, 2005). This daunting role has the underlying premise to safeguard patients and the community from incompetent and unethical practices of others.

Novice and experienced nursing faculty are struggling to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse student population while trying to balance the components of the faculty role and the role of an expert clinician in the practice setting (Suplee & Gardner, 2009). The American Nurses Association (ANA) (2000) defined nursing professional development as "a life-long process of active participation by nurses in learning activities that assist in developing and maintaining their continuing competence, enhancing their professional practice, and supporting the achievement of their career goals" (p. 4). Orientation or mentoring programs can assist nursing faculty in making the transition from expert clinician to novice educator by providing opportunities for building teaching skills, networking, and integrating into the academic culture (Suplee & Gardner, 2009). Baker (2010) found mentoring can increase job satisfaction and retention by preparing nurse faculty for their new academic roles.

Kolanko et al. (2006) found nursing faculty across the nation are reporting an increase in uncivil behaviors by students in the classroom. Previous research on uncivil behavior has been performed primarily in the clinical practice and not on faculty experiences and their reactions to uncivil behavior (Kolanko et al., 2006). A variety of student-to-faculty uncivil behaviors have been cited in the literature, such as arriving late to class, students threatening to give unwarranted poor faculty evaluations, profanity, inappropriate racial and sexual slurs, and violent acts against nursing faculty members (Luparell, 2007). Luparell (2007) reported these behaviors have impacted nursing faculty physically and emotionally by decreasing their self-esteem and in some instances causing faculty to leave nursing education. Collegial incivility or faculty-to-faculty incivility has been attributed to nurse faculty resigning or leaving academia (Yildirim, Yildirim, & Timucin, 2007). Faculty reported isolation in the workplace after experiencing attacks on their personality and professional status from other faculty members.

2. Purpose

A need exists to better understand nursing faculty roles in the various program levels, teaching modalities, and the variables that will assist in recruiting and retaining nursing faculty (AACN, 2012a). The primary purpose of this study was to examine variables (mentoring, incivility, occupational commitment, organizational commitment, job stress associated with job satisfaction and intent of nursing faculty to stay or leave academia (i.e., associate degree programs in Georgia). A secondary purpose was to test the adequacy of the theoretical structural equation model.

3. Methodology

The methodology section is divided into three subsections. First, we will discuss the research design. Second, we will present information about the population. Finally, we will discuss the instrumentation.

3.1 Research Design

A nonexperimental, survey research design with multivariate correlational analysis was employed. There were five exogenous variables (i.e., mentoring, job stress, incivility, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment) and two endogenous variables (i.e., job satisfaction and intent to stay) in the study. After an initial descriptive analysis of the variables, a structural equation model was generated and tested to examine the relationships among variables(i.e., mentoring, job stress, incivility, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment) and to identify the direct effects, indirect effects, and total effects on job satisfaction and the intent to stay in academia of ADN nursing faculty from Georgia.

3.2 Participants

The target population for the study was 217 nursing faculty in 23 ADN programs. A total of 134 of 217 (62.2%) nursing faculty responded with 124 surveys (57.1%) being usable for analysis. In addition, nursing faculty were asked to respond to demographic characteristic questions. The reported educational level was 2 (1.6%) faculty with a BSN degree, 93 (75%) faculty with an MSN degree, 2 (1.6%) faculty identified as being ABD, and 18 (14.5%)faculty with a doctoral degree. One hundred sixteen (93.5%) nursing faculty reported being full-time faculty and six (4.8%) nursing faculty reported being part-time faculty. The reported race or ethnicity was 1(0.8%) faculty identified as Asian, 22 (17.7%) faculty identified as Black, 1 (0.8%) faculty identified as Hispanic, and 98 (79.0%) faculty identified as White. Sixty-four (51.6%) faculty reported having additional employment outside of her or his faculty responsibilities. Ninety (73%) nursing faculty reported having a mentor and 68 (76%) of these faculty reported their mentor was formally assigned rather than informally assigned to them. The mean number of years nursing faculty reported teaching full-time in academia was 9.61 years ($SD = 7.47$) with 17 (13.7%) nursing faculty reporting being in academia for 20 years or longer. The mean number of years teaching in their current full-time position was less at 5.69 years ($SD = 5.44$).

3.3 Instrumentation

A questionnaire was developed for this study by using questions from seven previously validated instruments. The developed questionnaire included items fromthe Gmelch, Wilke, and Lovrich's(1986) Faculty Stress Index (FSI), Martin's (1991) National Faculty Satisfaction Questionnaire (NFSQ),Clark's (2010) Incivility in Nursing Education Survey (INE), Mowday et al.'s (1982) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ),Blau's (2003) Occupational Commitment Instrument (OCI), Dreher and Ash's (1990) Mentoring Scale, and Garbee and Killacky's (2008) Intent to Stay Scale.

The Nursing Faculty Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay (NFJSIS) Questionnaire was created by selecting items from each instrument to decrease the instrument length to promote nursing faculty participation. Items were specifically selected from each instrument to be representative of the domain of items on the original instrument. A content validation study was conducted to examine the newly developed NJSIS Questionnaire. Six content experts were asked to evaluate each item for clarity, appropriateness, and relevance. In addition, the content experts examined the coverage of items on the instrument from the original instruments. The content experts agreed the NFJSIS questionnaire covered the domains and subdomains on the original instruments. Feedback from content experts was evaluated and taken into consideration for instrument modification.

The mentoring scale consists of nine items on a rating scale of 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a very large extent*) with a Cronbach's alpha of .95. The occupational commitment (five items), organizational commitment (eight items), and intent to stay (four items) scales employ a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) with a Cronbach's alpha of .89, .88, and .85, respectively. The eight-item incivility scale employs a rating scale of 1 (never) to 4 (often) with a Cronbach's alpha of .79, whereas the job stress scale consists of 23 items on a rating scale of 1 (*rarely or never stressful*) to 5 (*always or almost always stressful*) with a Cronbach's alpha of .93.The 20-item job satisfaction scale consists of a rating scale of 1 (*very satisfied*) to 5 (*very dissatisfied*) with a Cronbach's alpha of .92.Reliability for each of the seven scales was deemed adequate to very good based on the Cronbach's alpha values. Negatively worded items were reverse coded for the estimates of reliability and subsequent analyses.

3.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis included generating descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients among variables along with generating and interpreting the structural equation model (SEM). Of the 134-nursing faculty in the study, 10 cases had greater than 50% of missing data and were excluded. In the remaining 124 cases, there was less than 1% of missing

data and for these few items, the median value was imputed. Items within each scale were added together to yield a total score for each individual. Univariate outliers, multivariate outliers, univariate normality, and multivariate normality were examined. Six multivariate outliers were identified and removed from the SEM analysis. Normality was violated, but when we applied the Box-Cox transformation to all variables the statistical considerations and assumptions were met.

4. Results

The results section consists of two subsections: scale-level analysis and analysis of the structural equation model. First, summary descriptive statistics of each scale and the correlation among scales are reported. Second, the results of the hypothesized structural equation models are presented.

4.1 Scale Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for each variable before data transformation, whereas Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for each variable after data transformation. The exception is the mentoring variable used in the analysis. At this point, we chose to use the scale 0 (*no mentor*) and 1 (*mentor*) rather than the nine-item mentoring scale since participants skipped these items if she or he had no mentor which resulted in almost 30% data loss. When comparing Table 1 with Table 2, one can see the reduction in the skewness as a result of the data transformation and in meeting the univariate and multivariate normality assumptions.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Variable's Total Scale Score before Data Transformation

Scale	Min	Max	Mdn	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Occupational Commitment	8	25	21.00	20.51	4.05	-.72	-.18
Organizational Commitment	9	40	29.00	28.76	6.13	-.44	.39
Incivility	12	31	21.00	20.96	4.17	.14	-.48
Job Stress	23	99	56.00	57.57	18.17	.24	-.85
Job Satisfaction	46	100	75.00	74.98	12.44	.02	-.50
Intent to Stay	4	20	13.00	13.01	4.34	-.37	-.50

Note. n = 124

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Variable's Total Scale Score after Data Transformation

Scale	Min	Max	Mdn	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Occupational Commitment	1.38	110.74	72.17	71.70	31.28	-.28	-1.06
Organizational Commitment	6.08	94.74	53.40	54.47	19.38	.08	-.42
Incivility	1.00	20.00	10.00	9.94	4.17	.11	-.47
Job Stress	1.00	21.10	12.40	12.39	4.52	-.19	-.73
Job Satisfaction	1.00	55.00	30.00	30.03	12.31	-.02	-.42
Intent to Stay	1.08	25.91	13.97	14.30	6.60	-.17	-.63

Note. n = 118

Table 3 presents the relationship among variables generated after the data transformation by employing the point biserial correlation between the mentor variable and all the other variables and by employing the Pearson correlation with all the other variables. In general, most of the variables are significantly correlated with one another except for the relationship between the mentor and the other variables. Note that incivility and job stress are usually negatively correlated with each of the other variables. Job satisfaction and intent to stay had the highest correlations with the other variables.

Table 3
Correlations among Variables after Data Transformation

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Mentor	1.00						
2. Occupational Commitment	.17	1.00					
3. Organizational Commitment	.18*	.52**	1.00				
4. Incivility	.14	-.32**	-.30*	1.00			
5. Job Stress	.04	-.53**	-.54**	.37**	1.00		
6. Job Satisfaction	.14	.60**	.72**	-.28**	-.71**	1.00	
7. Intent to Stay	.24**	.62**	.59**	-.16	-.47**	.64**	1.00

Note. $n = 118$. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$.

4.2 Structural Equation Models

In this phase, a model based on previous research and theory was constructed. The three path models in the study examined the relationship between the exogenous variables mentoring, occupational commitment, organizational commitment, incivility, and job stress, and the endogenous variables job satisfaction and intent to stay. Several fit indices were used to assess the quality of the model fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker and Lewis fit index (TLI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) with cutoff values were 0.95, 0.95, 0.06, and 0.08, respectively.

The initial baseline model did not allow correlation among the exogenous variables, whereas the second baseline model allowed the correlation between all the exogenous variables. The fit indices for the initial model did not meet the criteria for a good model fit (see Table 4).

Table 4
Summary of the Model Fit Indices for each Path Model

		Chi-Square	df	p value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Initial Baseline Model – no correlation among factors		130.23	10	< .001	.31	.26	.32
Second Baseline Model – with correlation among factors		0.00	0	< .001	1.00	1.00	.16
Final Model – with two correlations removed		2.44	2	.30	.99	.99	.04

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root-Mean-Square-Error of Approximation.

The fit indices for the second baseline model were improved over the first model, but still, the fit indices were not indicative of a good model fit. The modification indices from this second model indicated the model would be improved if the correlations between mentoring and incivility and mentoring and job stress were eliminated. The final model (see Figure 1) with the two exogenous correlations eliminated per the modification indices resulted in a model that was much improved. All fit indices examined indicated a good model fit. In addition, the standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) in the final model was .04 indicating a good model fit as well.

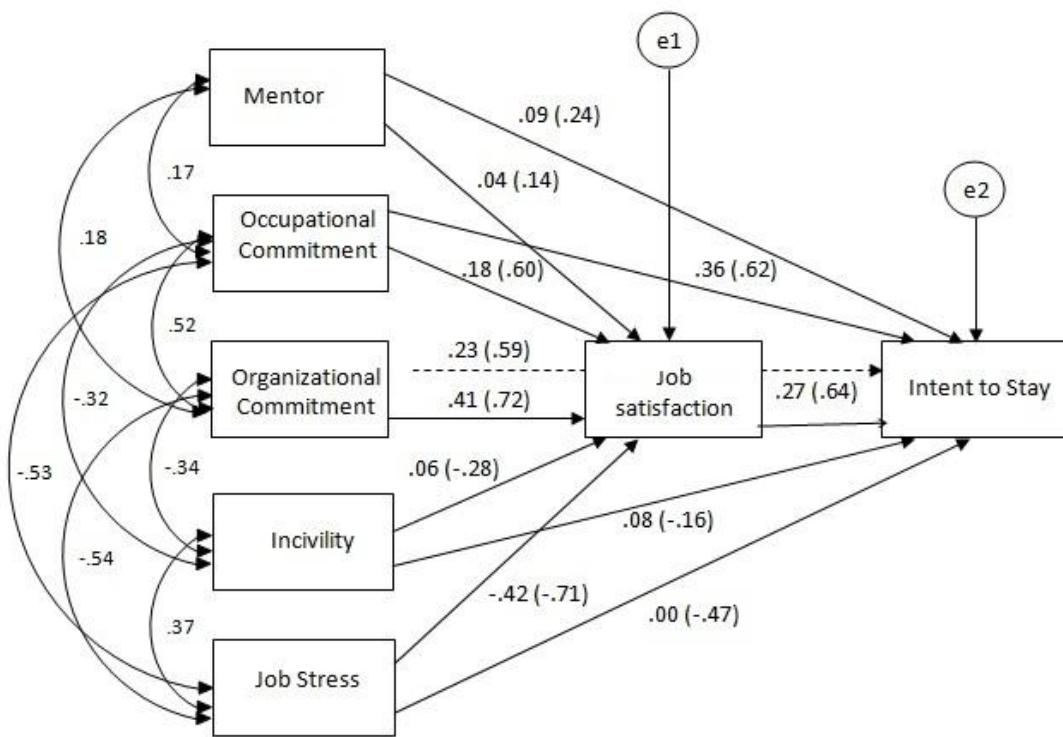


Figure 1. Final theoretical path model of factors affecting intent to stay of ADN nursing faculty with the covariances among the exogenous variables. The standardized coefficients are displayed with the correlation coefficients in parentheses for the endogenous variables. The correlation coefficients are only displayed for exogenous variables.

The squared multiple correlations (R^2) value for each of the endogenous variables (i.e., job satisfaction and intent to stay) indicate the percentage of variance accounted for by the exogenous variables. Schumacker and Lomax (2016) suggested comparing the R^2 values of each model to determine if changes in the model improved model fit. The amount of variance accounted for between job satisfaction and the exogenous variables increased from the initial baseline model ($R^2 = .56$) to the final model ($R^2 = .70$). The amount of variance accounted for between intent to stay in academia and the exogenous variables increased from the initial baseline model ($R^2 = .42$) to the final model ($R^2 = .55$).

After the determination that the theoretical model fit the data, the parameter estimates, and individual tests of significance of each parameter estimate were interpreted.

This process allowed for the estimation of causal relations among variables as well as mediating effects (Kline, 2011) of indirect and direct effects of mediator variables in the prediction between endogenous and exogenous variables. Table 5 presents the indirect, direct, and total effects of mentoring, occupational commitment, organizational commitment, incivility, and job stress on job satisfaction and intent to stay.

Table 5

Indirect, Direct, and Total Effects on Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay

Variable	Indirect Effect	Direct Effect	Total Effect
Job Satisfaction			
Mentor	-	.04	.04
Occupational Commitment	-	.18*	.18*
Organizational Commitment	-	.41**	.41**
Incivility	-	.06	.06
Job Stress	-	-.42**	-.42**
Intent to Stay			
Mentor	.01	.09	.10
Occupational Commitment	.05	.36**	.41**
Organizational Commitment	.11	.23*	.34*
Incivility	.02	.08	.10
Job Stress	-.11	.00	-.11
Job Satisfaction	.00	.27*	.27*

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

Job stress, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment each had a significant direct effect on job satisfaction, whereas mentoring and incivility did not have a significant direct effect on job satisfaction. Occupational commitment, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction had a significant direct effect on the intent to stay in academia. While job stress had a significant direct effect on job satisfaction, job stress had a nonsignificant direct effect on intent to stay in academia. Mentoring and incivility also had a nonsignificant direct effect on intent to stay in academia. On the other hand, the indirect effect of these endogenous variables and job satisfaction on the intent to stay in academia was very modest and nonsignificant. When model differences were examined across groups, the model was being examined for the property of measurement invariance (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). Simply stated, this meant the model was a good fit for the data of one group as it was for another group. This multiple group analysis was conducted by race or ethnicity, additional employment, and educational level. In these analyses, White, no additional employment, and a master's degree were the reference groups and Black, additional employment, and doctoral degree were the focal groups.

Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2006) by default constrains intercepts and factor loadings to be equal across groups, allows residual variances to be free, and factor means are held at zero in one group and free in the other groups. Muthén and Muthén (2006) contend that these default values are sufficient to establish measurement invariance. This multiple group analysis was performed in SPSS AMOS Version 23 and R software package. A series of model comparisons were performed to test for weak, strong, and strict invariance among all groups by defining more and more stringent equality constraints (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). Table 6 presents the results of these analyses.

Table 6

Model Fit Indices for Measurement Invariance across Specified Groups

	X ²	df	p value	RMSEA	CFI	ΔCFI
Race or Ethnicity (n = 114)						
Model 1: Baseline	2.47	4	-	.00	1.00	-
Model 2: Weak Invariance	2.47	4	1.00	.00	1.00	.00
Model 3: Strong Invariance	21.99	11	.01**	.13	.97	.03
Model 4: Strict Invariance	21.99	11	1.00	.13	.97	.00
Additional Employment (n = 116)						
Model 1: Baseline	7.98	4	-	.13	.99	-
Model 2: Weak Invariance	7.98	4	1.00	.13	.99	.00
Model 3: Strong Invariance	17.23	11	.24	.10	.98	.01
Model 4: Strict Invariance	17.23	11	1.00	.10	.98	.00
Educational level (n = 107)						
Model 1: Baseline	6.11	4	-	.10	.99	-
Model 2: Weak Invariance	6.11	4	1.00	.10	.99	.00
Model 3: Strong Invariance	16.58	11	.16	.09	.98	.01
Model 4: Strict Invariance	16.58	11	1.00	.09	.98	.00

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

Model 1 was the baseline model in which the same factor structure was imposed on each group. Model 2 included all components of model 1 in addition to constraining all the factor loadings to be equal across all groups. Weak invariance existed if the fit of the invariance model was not worse than the fit of the baseline model. Model 3 included all components of model 1 and model 2 with the addition of the structural weight to be equal across all groups and measured for strong measurement invariance by comparing the model against the weak measurement invariance model. Relying on the Muthén and Muthén definition meeting this level meets the requirement of measurement invariance. Model 4 included all components of the first three models with the addition of the structural means across all groups and measured for strict measurement invariance by comparing the model against the strong measurement invariance model.

Participants responded to the race or ethnicity question, but only two subgroups had more than 10 participants: White ($n = 98$) and Black or African American ($n = 22$). The factor structure and factor loading were the same, but significance if strong invariance indicated the intercepts were different and that weak invariance existed. We can infer from these data across these two groups that only partial measurement invariance was met with these data. For additional employment, participants responded with no ($n = 56$) or with a yes ($n = 60$). Comparisons of these models were statistically nonsignificant indicating strict measurement invariance across these two groups. Finally, the measurement invariance was examined across the educational level. Only two subgroups had more than 10 participants: MSN ($n = 93$) and Doctorate ($n = 18$). Comparisons of these models were statistically nonsignificant indicating strict measurement invariance across the educational level.

5. Discussion

This study represents a comprehensive review of the variables impacting Georgia ADN nursing faculty job satisfaction and intent to stay in academia along with the identification of a structural equation model that contributes to the successful retention of nursing faculty. In the final path model, job stress, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment were significant predictors of job satisfaction and occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were significant predictors of nursing faculty intent to stay in academia. This information can be used by administrators for recruiting and retaining Georgia nursing educators by creating best practices for nursing educators.

This study aimed at closing the gap in the literature by regarding factors that predict job satisfaction and intent to stay in academia by ADN nursing faculty rather than with nursing faculty at research, four-year sector institutions(Derby & Davis, 2014). Another gap in job satisfaction research was most studies were conducted on nurses in clinical practice while few were on academia and nursing faculty job satisfaction (Bittner & O'Conner, 2012). This study examined the extent to which various factors affected job satisfaction in ADN nursing faculty and the effect of job satisfaction on their intention to stay in academia.

This research is markedly different than previous research which studied job satisfaction more as a variable to an organization and structural issues that affect faculty turnover or intent to leave as opposed to being the primary focus of the study (Rosser & Towns, 2006).

These findings added dimensions to the theoretical framework, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, suggesting organizational commitment and occupational commitment along with job satisfaction may lead to the intent to stay of nursing faculty in academia. The findings added to previous qualitative research, where nursing faculty reported the main reason to stay in education was a love of working with students (Tufano, 2010). Through the quantitative findings, nursing faculty reported dedication to their organization and occupation with job satisfaction and an intent to stay in academia. Multigroup analysis indicated that the constructs of the model are the same for nursing faculty with additional employment and various educational levels.

The majority of participants in this study reported they were satisfied with their choice of occupation as well as caring about their institution. Guitierrez et al (2012) also used SEM to support the relationships among nursing faculty and organizational commitment and recommended that nursing faculty administrators use the model and findings to increase nursing faculty retention by making policy changes which would, in turn, increase nursing faculty commitment, job satisfaction and perceived organizational support. Unlike Guitierrez et al (2012), these findings can be applied specifically to associate degree nursing faculty.

The occupational and organizational commitment had the strongest positive correlations on both job satisfaction and intent to stay. This study had a majority of participants who reported they were satisfied with their choice of occupation and cared a lot about their institution. These were consistent with Garbee and Killaky's (2008) findings which related occupational commitment as being a part of student success and organizational commitment to the

collegial environment. Kirking (2007) revealed greater job satisfaction was associated with greater occupational commitment. Additionally, the findings were consistent with previous research on job satisfaction and its importance on intent to stay in academia.

6. Conclusion

During these turbulent times in healthcare, we need dedicated resources for nursing education. Through the quantitative findings of this study, nursing faculty reported a dedication to their organization and occupation with job satisfaction and an intent to stay in academia which gives hope to this withering profession. According to the IOM (2011), the shortage of nurses is directly related to the shortage of educators at all levels of nursing academia. Satisfied faculty may choose to teach for longer periods and potentially serve as a recruiting tool to entice new faculty to teach.

The findings of this study have tremendous implications for the nursing profession and their importance not only for nursing faculty and students but also for expanding our understanding of the conceptual phenomenon of job satisfaction. The filling anticipated vacancies and retaining current faculty in nursing education is essential to meet student demand for education (AACN, 2012a). To retain current faculty, should consideration be given to finding ways to increase nursing faculty salaries or decreasing their workload? Or better yet, should these even be the institution's responsibility when supplying nurses benefits the health care facilities the most? Whatever the case, it seems as though local economies drive what best meets the needs of institutions and their community (USG, 2014).

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