UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA GRADUATE COLLEGE

AN INVESTIGATION OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE WORKLOAD DISTRIBUTIONS OF FACULTY: GENDER, PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY, PROSOCIAL MOTIVATION, AND WORK CENTRALITY

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

BY

KYRA MIN GALLION

Norman, Oklahoma

2025

AN INVESTIGATION OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE WORKLOAD DISTRIBUTIONS OF FACULTY: GENDER, PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY, PROSOCIAL MOTIVATION, AND WORK CENTRALITY

A THESIS APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

BY THE COMMITTEE CONSISTING OF

Dr. Lori Anderson Snyder, Chair

Dr. Yaqing He

Dr. Ann Beutel

Table of Contents

Abstract

Faculty regularly face heavy workloads and limited promotions opportunities, and women faculty advance more slowly and are promoted less often than men. Faculty responsibilities are typically categorized into three domains: teaching, research, and service (TRS), with research being the most valued for promotion. Literature shows women spend more time on teaching and service compared to men, but previous studies rely predominantly on retrospective self-report and rarely examine factors that could influence time allocation decisions. The present study investigates how tenured and tenure-track faculty at a large R1 university allocate their time across TRS using real-time activity reporting and examines three factors that could influence time allocation: professional identity, prosocial motivation, and work centrality. Given the gender disparity in academic promotions, this study also examines how gender moderates the relationships between these factors and time allocation. 41 faculty reported their work activities in 15-minute increments over two weeks using time tracking software and responded to two online surveys to assess additional study variables. Hierarchical regressions were used to analyze how professional identity, prosocial motivation, and work centrality relate to time spent in TRS and how these relationships differ by gender.

Introduction

Faculty at research universities face increasing demands of their time while also navigating an academic job market with limited and highly competitive opportunities for advancement (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2007). How faculty allocate their time across teaching, research, and service (TRS) responsibilities can impact their professional outcomes, including their prospects for promotion and tenure (Alperin et al., 2019; Green, 2008; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a). Furthermore, women faculty advance more slowly and less often than their men colleagues (Durodoye et al., 2020; Poor et al., 2009), which suggests that women may face different pressures and constraints in managing their workload distributions.

This study investigates how four factors – gender, professional identity, prosocial motivation, and work centrality – influence faculty members' allocation of time across TRS responsibilities, including how these factors might contribute to gender differences in advancement. Professional identity is how people define themselves in a professional role based on their attributes, beliefs, values, and experiences (Schein, 1978), and in academic contexts, can reflect how strongly faculty identify with their roles as educators, researchers, and contributors to service. Identification with these roles could differ by gender and contribute to differences in how faculty choose to manage their time.

Prosocial motivation is the desire to expend effort to benefit others (Batson, 1987; Grant, 2008) and captures faculty members' motivation to benefit others through their work. Therefore, it is possible that faculty members with high prosocial motivation might spend more time with job responsibilities that benefit others, such as service and teaching. Women are also more likely

to be prosocially motivated than men (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Farrell & Finkelstein, 2005), which might impact how men and women faculty allocate their time.

Finally, work centrality represents the extent that a faculty member considers work to be a central and meaningful part of their lives (Bal & Kooij, 2011). Work centrality is associated with positive job outcomes (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Sharabi & Harpaz, 2010; Uçanok & Karabatı, 2013) and there is mixed evidence about whether it differs by gender (Mayrhofer et al., 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2008; Singh et al., 2004). It is therefore worth exploring whether work centrality differs by gender in an academic context, and whether it influences how faculty spend their time. By investigating these factors and their relationship with gender, this study aims to better understand what drives faculty time allocation decisions and the underlying contributors to the gender disparity in academic advancement.

Previous research on faculty workload has focused mainly on retrospective recollections from faculty who are asked to describe their work activities long after they have taken place (Domingo et al., 2022; Hurtado et al., 2012; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a; Link et al., 2008). While these studies have provided valuable information about the workload distributions of faculty, there are limitations to retroactive self-reports, which could be prone to bias and inaccuracies. There have also been minimal studies that attempt to understand what factors drive faulty time allocation decisions (Griffith & Altinay, 2020; Link et al., 2008; Ziker et al., 2014). While research has consistently demonstrated that there are some differences in how faculty allocate their workload, as well as some of the professional outcomes associated with these differences, the factors that influence these decisions are not clear. The following study aims to address these limitations by utilizing real-time reporting to collect more accurate information about faculty work activities. Furthermore, this study investigates whether faculty time allocation decisions are

influenced by the factors of gender, professional identity, prosocial motivation, and work centrality.

Faculty Workload and Promotions

University faculty who seek promotions and tenure are faced with limited opportunities for advancement, which have only diminished over time. In the past three decades, the number of available tenure-track positions have decreased while the number of time-limited and part-time appointments have risen steadily (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2007). As of 2022, only 56% of faculty held full-time positions, which include time-limited positions, and 44% held part-time positions (Irwin et al., 2024). This shifting landscape in the academic job market means that tenure-track positions are harder to attain than ever before. The majority of faculty who achieve tenure do not do so until their forties (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a) and it takes an average of 7.4 years for associate professors to achieve the rank of full professor – a timeline that only increases for women (Poor et al., 2009).

To stay competitive, many faculty take on heavy workloads and work long hours (Houston et al., 2006; Hurtado et al., 2012; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004b). The strain of these demands is felt by faculty, one third of whom report being dissatisfied with their workload (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a). There is also evidence that the more hours faculty work, the more likely they are to report being dissatisfied, and yet working at least 60 hours a week has been shown to be a substantial predictor in publication rates (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a). Therefore, it seems that working long hours is a necessary part of the job for faculty who wish to achieve promotion.

The intensive workload that faculty undertake has ramifications both at the individual level and for the academic landscape as a whole. Excessive workloads are a top complaint

among faculty, and frustration about time commitments is an important predictor in faculty's desire to leave their jobs (Barnes et al., 1998; Houston et al., 2006). Furthermore, even after working long hours, many faculty are still concerned about not being able to keep current in their field (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004b). Given the cost of faculty working these long hours, it is worth taking an in-depth look at how faculty are spending their time at work and what factors influence how they allocate their time, and subsequently, their likelihood of achieving promotion and tenure.

Faculty responsibilities are typically divided into three domains: Teaching, Research, and Service (TRS). During performance evaluations, research accomplishments hold the most weight (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a), followed by teaching and then service (Alperin et al., 2019; Green, 2008). The way faculty allocate their time not only influences their professional outcomes, but also how they perceive their role. For instance, faculty often report stress over heavy teaching loads and service commitments (Hurtado et al., 2012) but those who spend a higher fraction of their time on research are less likely to report being dissatisfied with their work (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a). Faculty who work at R1 universities, which are universities with very high research spending and doctorate production (*Carnegie 2025 Basic Classifications FAQs*, 2024), typically have a departmentally assigned workload distribution that includes all three areas of TRS. However, the actual time they spend in each domain can shape their accomplishments and tenure eligibility.

Previous research has documented how faculty allocate their time across teaching, research, and service, and while these studies have provided valuable insights about the workload distributions of faculty, there are also limitations that are worth addressing. Firstly, most studies rely on retrospective recollections from faculty who are asked to broadly describe

their work activities days, or even weeks, after they have taken place (Domingo et al., 2022; Hurtado et al., 2012; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a; Link et al., 2008). This retrospective self-report can lead to inaccuracies and bias, especially since faculty are aware that certain activities are valued more than others. Second, existing studies on faculty workload typically have minimal or no information about the factors that drive faculty work allocation decisions (Griffith & Altinay, 2020; Link et al., 2008; Ziker et al., 2014). Without understanding the motivations behind faculty, it is difficult to explain differences in how faculty allocate their workloads. The following study seeks to address these limitations by using real-time reporting to collect more detailed, accurate information about faculty workload allocations.

Gender

Research has consistently shown that men faculty are promoted more quickly than women faculty, and that more men achieve the rank of full professor (Durodoye et al., 2020; Poor et al., 2009). One study found that the time to promotion from associate professor to professor is between one and five years longer for women than men (Poor et al., 2009), and others found that only about 22% of women compared to 40% of men had attained the rank of full professor (Hurtado et al., 2012; Mason & Goulden, 2004). Women faculty more than men faculty are also more likely to find the review and promotion process a source of stress (Hurtado et al., 2012), and women are more likely to leave academic positions before achieving tenure (Durodoye et al., 2020). There is substantial evidence that women are at a disadvantage in the promotion and tenure process, and the different ways men and women faculty allocate their time could be one potential explanation for this discrepancy.

In the university evaluation process, research accomplishments hold the most weight, followed by teaching and lastly service (Alperin et al., 2019; Green, 2008). One potential reason

why women faculty lag behind men in promotion and tenure could be because they spend more time on tasks that are less promotable, but essential for departmental, college, and university functioning. In an academic context, these necessary tasks are typically associated with teaching and service. Women faculty are more likely to volunteer, to be asked to volunteer, and accept requests to volunteer for tasks that people prefer to be completed by someone else (Babcock et al., 2017). This is especially noticeable for service tasks, which women faculty spend significantly more time on than men faculty (Domingo et al., 2022; Guarino & Borden, 2017; Hanasono et al., 2019; O'Meara, 2016). Women are also more likely to view service as a communal responsibility and one that they feel they need to contribute towards, while men are more likely to view it as a problem for others to solve (O'Meara, 2016). However, women faculty are also aware of how their time spent on service impacts their promotion prospects, as research indicates they report feeling like their service contributions are not valued in the promotion and tenure process (Domingo et al., 2022). Furthermore, a greater percentage of time spent on service has been found to decrease women faculty's satisfaction with their workload and their career as a whole (Carrigan et al., 2011).

Teaching is another domain that is vital not only at the departmental, college, and university levels, but also for the continuation of an academic field as a whole. There is also consistent evidence that women faculty spend more time on teaching compared to men faculty. (Carrigan et al., 2011; Misra et al., 2011; Poor et al., 2009; Winslow, 2010). One study found that women faculty taught an additional hour each week and spent two more hours mentoring students each week than men faculty (Misra et al., 2011). Women are also more likely to report spending more time grading and commenting on students' work (Poor et al., 2009). The extra time that women faculty spend on teaching comes at a professional cost, as evidence indicates

that more hours spent on undergraduate instruction decrease both career satisfaction and publication rates across genders (Carrigan et al., 2011). Despite its importance as a core function of academic institutions, teaching is not valued as highly as research in promotion decisions.

Given that women faculty are likely to allocate more time to service and teaching activities, it is not surprising that they report spending less time on research than men faculty (Carrigan et al., 2011; Misra et al., 2011; Poor et al., 2009; Winslow, 2010). The disparity in research hours between women and men faculty could be one contributing factor to slower promotion rates for women than men. Therefore, when we are investigating factors that influence how faculty allocate their work hours in TRS, it is important to consider gender and how it might impact other variables.

Professional Identity

Faculty may make choices about how to allocate their time in teaching, research, and service based on how strongly they identify with each of these three domains. This identification is a form of *professional identity*, which is defined as the relatively stable and enduring constellation of attributes, beliefs, values, motives, and experiences in terms of which people define themselves in a professional role (Schein, 1978). Professional identity is formed through both individual perceptions and social factors. At the individual level, workers develop their professional identities based on personal values and professional experiences (Slay & Smith, 2011). At the same time, social factors influence professional identity through the interactions and expectations of others (Barker Caza & Creary, 2016).

When individuals strongly identify with their profession, they will incorporate distinctive values and attitudes from their profession into their own self-identities (Barker Caza & Creary,

2016). There is also evidence that workers who are highly identified with their role tend to perform better at their jobs and work longer hours than those who are less identified (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Osborne & Jones, 2011). Therefore, professional identity not only shapes attitudes and behavior about work (Siebert & Siebert, 2005), but may also play a role in how faculty prioritize their responsibilities.

According to Identity Theory, individuals possess multiple identities that are arranged hierarchically according to their salience (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Research supports the idea that individuals can hold multiple professional identities (Barker Caza & Creary, 2016; Miscenko & Day, 2015) and that identity is a significant predictor of commitment to one's profession (Chemers et al., 2011; Fitzmaurice, 2013). For faculty at R1 institutions, the concept of multiple professional identities is especially relevant because they must balance at least three distinct roles - educator, researcher, and one who participates in service. From an identity theory perspective, these three identities form a hierarchy that impact how faculty prioritize their work. Faculty who identify strongly with one particular role may be more likely to invest time and effort into that domain more than others.

For example, a faculty member who strongly identifies as an educator would likely find that teaching is highly aligned with their personal beliefs and values. While teaching may only be a portion of their departmentally assigned job duties, they may be motivated to spend more than the required amount of time on teaching activities. Conversely, a faculty member who primarily identifies as a researcher may allocate a disproportionate amount of their time to research projects, perhaps even at the expense of their other job commitments. Under the identity theory framework, strong professional identification in one or multiple of the TRS roles could result in a greater commitment to that domain and subsequently influence time management decisions.

Gender may also play a role in the relationship between professional identity and how faculty members spend their time. For instance, it is possible that women spend more time in teaching and service because they are more likely to identify highly as educators and as those who engage in service. Because professional identity is partially shaped by one's own professional and social experiences, and women faculty are more likely to see other women spending time in these roles and feel obligated to do the same, it is possible that women faculty have different professional identity tendencies than men. On the other hand, it is also possible that men and women exhibit the same professional identity patterns but external expectations impact how faculty spend their time regardless of identity. For example, women faculty may identify as researchers as highly as men faculty do, but departmental pressures to contribute to teaching and service prevent them from spending as much time on research. To understand the impact of professional identity on how faculty allocate their time, as well as the role that gender plays in the relationship, this study investigates the following research questions and hypothesis (see Figure 1):

RQ1: How does identity as a researcher, educator, and one who engages in service relate to time spent on Teaching, Research, and Service?

RQ2: Do men and women have different patterns of identifying as researchers, educators, and those who engage in service?

H1: Gender will moderate the relationship between identity as a researcher, educator, and one who engages in service and time spent in Teaching, Research, and Service, respectively.

H1a: The relationship between identity as a researcher and time spent in research will be weaker for woman compared to men.

H1b: The positive relationship between educator identity and time spent in teaching will be stronger for women compared to men.

H1c: The positive relationship between service identity and time spent in service will be stronger for women compared to men.

Prosocial Motivation

Prosocial motivation is the desire to expend effort to benefit other people, and it is associated with empathy, helpfulness, and concern for others (Batson, 1987; Grant, 2008). Employees who are prosocially motivated tend to be more interested in helping others through their work and are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which are voluntary behaviors outside of official tasks that benefit an organization and its employees (Batson, 1987; Bolino & Grant, 2016). In an academic context, OCB may look like participating in an undergraduate student recruitment event or organizing a faculty luncheon. Additionally, prosocial motivation has been associated with job persistence, performance, and productivity in activities that support others (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Grant, 2008; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Even in the absence of external rewards, prosocially motivated individuals exert more effort towards prosocial tasks and are motivated to form strong interpersonal relationships (Banuri & Keefer, 2016; Grant, 2007). Furthermore, in contexts in which tasks and people are interdependent and the sharing of knowledge is valuable, such as university settings, individuals who are high in prosocial motivation are associated with greater knowledge sharing (Utz et al., 2014). This

suggests that faculty who are prosocially motivated may be more likely to engage in cooperative activities, such as assisting junior faculty or collaborating with others for research projects.

There are many benefits to prosocial motivation in a university setting, but there are also downsides for individuals high in prosocial motivation, including feelings of overwhelm and job stress (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Too much prosocial behavior can also lead to citizenship fatigue, which is when employees feel tired or fed up because of their participation in OCB (Bolino et al., 2015). There is also a risk that individuals who spend a substantial amount of time on OCB may have reduced task performance, and there is evidence that those who spend more time on OCB have lower salary increases and advance more slowly than those who do not spend as much time on OCB (Bergeron, 2007).

Despite the impact prosocial motivation can have on how employees behave and spend their time, there is remarkably little research on the role of prosocial motivation in academic faculty. There is some evidence that prosocial motivation improves teaching quality for K-12 teachers (Nalipay et al., 2015), but virtually no studies of how it impacts the teaching of university faculty. There is also virtually no evidence about how prosocial motivation might contribute to the amount of time faculty spend on service, even though service includes performing tasks that are designed to be beneficial to others.

It is also worth considering how gender may play a role in how prosocial motivation interacts with time spent by faculty, as women are more likely to be prosocially motivated and perform OCB than men (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Farrell & Finkelstein, 2005). The tendency for women to be more prosocially motivated than men can be understood through the lens of social role theory. According to social role theory, gender differences in behavior stem from the

different social roles that men and women are expected to engage in, which create corresponding expectations for gender-appropriate behavior (Diekman & Eagly, 2000). These social roles become internalized and influence how individuals develop motivations, perceive their responsibilities, and allocate their time and effort.

Social role theory suggests that women are socialized into communal roles that emphasize caring for others, cooperation, and maintaining social harmony, while men are socialized into agentic roles that emphasize achievement, competition, and individual accomplishment (Eagly, 2009). This differential socialization may explain why women faculty are more likely to be prosocially motivated, as communal role expectations align closely with prosocial behaviors that benefit others. In academic contexts, social role theory predicts that women faculty will feel greater pressure to engage in prosocial behaviors such as mentoring students, providing extensive feedback, volunteering for service roles, and taking on teaching responsibilities that require significant interpersonal engagement. These behaviors align with traditional social roles and may be reinforced through social interactions where women faculty are more frequently asked to engage in such activities (Babcock et al., 2017).

Women are also more likely to perform prosocial behaviors that are valuable, but less visible, and may be impacted more by the downsides of prosocial motivation (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Moreover, women are not only expected to do prosocial behavior but are punished when they do not do them. In a study by Heilman and Chen (2005), the authors found that men experienced favorable reactions when they provided help at work, but women saw little effect on their reactions. However, withholding help led to unfavorable reactions for women, which were not present for men. These findings suggest that there are many pressures for women to engage in prosocial behavior, regardless of how internally motivated they may be.

Because women faculty are more likely to engage in prosocially motivated behaviors, they may be more likely to spend more time on work tasks that benefit others, such as teaching, mentoring, participating in service, or conducting community-based research. They may also spend more time doing less visible service, such as helping students one-on-one, while men faculty may spend more time doing visible service, such as serving on a committee. The present study addresses the gap in the literature about the relationship between prosocial motivation and time spent between faculty by investigating the following (see Figure 1):

RQ3: How does prosocial motivation relate to time spent in Teaching, Research, and Service?

RQ4: Do men and women differ in prosocial motivation?

H2: Gender will moderate the relationship between prosocial motivation and time spent in Teaching, Research, and Service.

H2a: The relationship between prosocial motivation and time spent in teaching will be stronger for women compared to men.

H2b: The relationship between prosocial motivation and time spent in service will be stronger for women compared to men.

H2c: The relationship between prosocial motivation and time spent in research will be weaker for women compared to men.

Work Centrality

Work centrality is the extent that an individual considers work to be an important part of their lives (Bal & Kooij, 2011). It is less about how engaged people are in their current job, but rather how much they consider work broadly to be central to their lives. Work centrality is therefore associated with an individual's values and their decisions how to allocate their time across the various areas of their life (Hirschfeld & Feild, 2000). It is associated with success in the workplace, including longer work hours, promotions, OCB, and increases in salary (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Sharabi & Harpaz, 2010; Uçanok & Karabatı, 2013). There is also evidence that work centrality is positively associated with job satisfaction and negatively with turnover intentions (Tziner et al., 2014). Given that individuals who are high in work centrality consider work to be an important part of their lives, it is not surprising that they dedicate more time and effort to their work.

In a university setting, work centrality might lead faculty to work longer hours and demonstrate strong commitment to their work but there are no studies that have investigated whether work centrality impacts the domains faculty spend their time in. However, because work centrality is associated with salary increases and advancement, it is possible that faculty who are high in work centrality may prioritize research activities above others, as this is the domain most valued in performance evaluations.

The relationship between gender and work centrality is not entirely clear. Evidence is mixed, with some studies finding no significant relationship between gender and work centrality (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Singh et al., 2004) and others finding differences between men and women depending on factors, such as family responsibilities (Mayrhofer et al., 2008) and socioeconomic status (Mannheim, 1993). However, even when men and women have similar

levels of work centrality, their ability to translate this motivation into career-advancing activities may differ due to gendered workplace expectations and constraints.

Women faculty may face additional pressures that prevent them from directing their work centrality towards the most promotable activities. Because women are more likely to be asked to take on extra responsibilities (Babcock et al., 2017), they may be less likely to allocate their time to promotable tasks like research, even when they are highly motivated to succeed in their careers. Therefore, while work centrality might predict increased research time for men faculty, women with equally high work centrality may find themselves pushed towards teaching or service responsibilities instead. This suggests that gender may moderate the relationship between work centrality and time allocation, with work centrality more strongly predicting research time for men than for women, and more strongly predicting teaching and service time for women than for men.

The present study seeks to address this gap in the literature by examining how work centrality impacts the time allocation decisions of faculty and whether these relationships differ by gender. Therefore, the following is investigated (see Figure 1):

RQ5: How does work centrality relate to time spent on Teaching, Research, and Service?

RQ6: Do men and women have different levels of work centrality?

H3: Gender will moderate the relationship between work centrality and time spent in Teaching, Research, and Service.

H3a: The relationship between work centrality and time spent in teaching will be stronger for women compared to men.

H3b: The relationship between work centrality and time spent in service will be stronger for women compared to men.

H3c: The relationship between work centrality and time spent in research will be weaker for women compared to men.

Method

The data used in the present study was collected as part of a larger NSF ADVANCE funded study[1] that is longitudinal and focuses on tenure and tenure-track faculty at a large R1 university in the United States.

Procedure

The data used in the present study was collected in Spring 2025. Participants included tenured and tenure-track faculty who completed a pre-survey, time tracking orientation, time tracking activity, and post-survey. Participants were recruited through university email accounts that linked to a Qualtrics enrollment survey that took 5-10 minutes to complete. The enrollment survey provided participants with information about the study and informed consent, and if faculty agreed to participate, asked them to select which dates they could attend the time tracking orientation in addition to completing the two-week long time tracking activity.

The time tracking orientation took place over a Zoom webinar, during which participants learned how to use Clockify (*Clockify*, n.d.), the software that was used for the time-tracking activity. At all times during the webinar, participants were anonymous and invisible to each

[1]This material is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation under Grant No. 2126080. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation.

other. After the orientation, participants were emailed a link to a pre-survey in Qualtrics. Once they completed their pre-survey, participants began tracking their work hours in Clockify in intervals of 15 minutes for a period of two consecutive weeks. Participants received daily reminders to track their work activities, and time tracking logs were reviewed every two days with notifications sent to participants who were not keeping up with tracking. These steps were taken to help ensure that participants were tracking work activities in real time and not filling in their work retroactively.

Participants wrote a short description of their work activity and assigned one to three tags to the activity, which were broadly categorized as Teaching, Research/Creative Activities, Service, Administrative, or Other. The Research tag doubles as Research/Creative Activities because the larger study includes faculty and departments that do not conduct research, such as Dance. The tags (see Appendix A) are also split into subcategories within each domain; for instance, two tags under the teaching category are "Teaching: Class time" and "Teaching: Office hours/Meeting students for class." Participants were asked to log at least 30 hours of activities per week, for a total of 60 hours across two weeks. After the time tracking activity, participants were asked to complete a post-survey.

After the pre-survey, time tracking orientation, time tracking activity, and post-survey were complete, participants received compensation of $400, dependent on adequate completion of study activities. Those who failed to complete any of the study components did not receive any compensation.

Participants

Participants were 41 faculty members who are tenured or tenure-track at a large R1 institution located in the southcentral United States. Data was only used from participants who completed all of the study requirements, which includes a pre-survey, orientation, time tracking at least 60 hours of work activity over two weeks, and post-survey.

Measures

Professional Identity

Professional identity was measured in a pre-survey using a scale that was derived from a 6-item scale from Chemers et al. (2011). The scale used in the present study was adapted to reflect three role identities relevant to faculty – researcher, educator, and one who engages in service - and the scale was shortened to three items per role, resulting in nine items total. Faculty were asked to rate on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) how much they agreed with the statements. An example item from the scale is "In general, being an educator is an important part of my self-image."

Prosocial Motivation

Prosocial motivation was measured in a pre-survey using a scale adapted from Grant (2008). The scale was adapted from a 7-point Likert scale to a 5-point scale, and the introductory statement was changed to reflect prosocial motivation in work-specific contexts. Faculty were asked to rate how much they agree with statements, with response options ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). An example item from the scale is "I am motivated to do my work… because I want to have a positive impact on others."

Work Centrality

A shortened 2-item version of the Bal & Kooij (2011) scale was used in a pre-survey to measure work centrality. Faculty were presented with statements and asked to rate how much they agree with them on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). An example item from the scale is "The most important things that happen to me involve my work."

Time spent in Teaching, Research, and Service

The time faculty spent in teaching, research, and service was measured using the data collected from Clockify. Faculty were asked to report their work activities as they performed them, which were recorded in 15-minute intervals, and tag them using one to three tags associated with teaching, research, service, administrative, or other. Each of the tag categories also had subcategories to capture more detailed information. For example, research activities might be tagged with one to three tags, such as "R/CA5 – Meet/Mentor Students" and/or "R/CA7 – Individual Work Activities" (see Appendix A). For instances when a participant tagged a work activity with more than three tags, research assistants reviewed the entries and coded them with the appropriate tag(s).

Time spent in TRS was calculated as a percentage based on how much time faculty members spent on activities tagged as teaching, research, or service, relative to the total number of hours they reported working. For activities tagged with multiple TRS categories, the duration of the activity was counted towards each relevant category while only counting once towards total working time. This means the sum of percentages across all the tags may exceed 100%. For example, if a faculty member spends 1 hour on an activity tagged as both Teaching and Service, that hour contributes 1 hour to Teaching and 1 hour to Service, and only 1 hour towards the faculty member's total working time. To preserve statistical power in analyses, all tag

subcategories were collapsed into the 5 major tag categories– Teaching, Research, Service, Administrative, and Other.

Covariates

Faculty are typically assigned a workload distribution by their department that includes a percentage of work time to be spent towards teaching, research, and service. The pre and post survey include items that ask faculty what their workload distribution is and what percentage of time they are expected to put towards TRS. The study controlled for faculty's departmentally assigned workload distribution when running analyses whenever statistically appropriate.

Data Analytic Plan

The data were cleaned and prepared using R version 4.4.2 (R Core Team, 2024). Responses were removed from participants who did not complete all the required study components, so that only those who completed the orientation, pre-survey, time tracking, and post-survey were included in the final sample (N = 41). Correlations, t-tests, and one-way multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) were used to analyze descriptive information.

Research Questions 1, 3, and 5 were analyzed using correlations to examine relationships between the predictor variables (professional identities, prosocial motivation, and work centrality) and the percentage of time faculty spent in teaching, research, and service. Research Questions 2, 4, and 6 were analyzed using independent t-tests, to ascertain any differences between men and women faculty in professional identity, prosocial motivation, and work centrality. Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and their sub-hypotheses were analyzed using hierarchical regressions.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Out of the 43 faculty who attended the mandatory orientation, 41 completed all of the required study components and were included in the final sample. The sample consisted of 17 men (41%), 23 women (56%), and one participant who identified as another gender identity (2%). To protect participant confidentiality, analyses examining gender differences included only participants who identified as men or women ($N = 40$). Data screening revealed complete data for all participants across all study variables, so no missing data imputation procedures were required.

The majority of participants identified as White (88%), with 10% identifying as non-White and 2% preferring not to answer. Most participants were married or in domestic partnerships (93%), with only 7% identifying as single. Of the final sample, 51% had at least one dependent, which includes children and adult dependents, while 49% had no dependents. In terms of rank, 41% were assistant professor, 39% were associate professor, and 20% were professor. The sample was distributed across disciplines, with 41% from STEM fields and 59% from non-STEM fields. For purposes of this project, social and behavioral sciences were coded as non-STEM fields. All descriptive variables can be seen in Table 1.

Faculty reported working an average of 47.20 ($SD = 8.96$) hours per week during the two-week tracking period. Women ($M = 48.65$, $SD = 7.32$) worked about four more hours per week than men ($M = 44.79$, $SD = 10.68$), though this difference did not reach statistical significance, $t(38) = -1.36$, $p = .18$ (see Table 2). As a whole, faculty spent most of their time on research (36.7%), followed by administrative activities (33.9%), other activities (30.5%), teaching (26.5%), and lastly service (20.8%) (see Table 3).

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to examine the effect of gender on the percentage of time faculty spent on each domain. The overall effect of gender was not statistically significant, $F(5, 34) = 1.49$, $p = .22$. However, follow-up univariate ANOVAs were conducted for descriptive purposes (see Table 4). A significant effect of gender was found for time spent on teaching, $F(1, 38) = 5.70$, $p < .05$, with women ($M = 30.9$, $SD = 17.5$) spending more time on teaching than men ($M = 18.9$, $SD = 13.0$). No other univariate effects reached significance. This finding is especially notable, as there were no significant differences in assigned workload for men and women across teaching (men: 32.5%, women: 33.9%, $p = .71$), research (men: 41.0%, women: 39.4%, $p = .68$), and service (men: 20.9%, women: 20.7%, $p = .96$). Full descriptive statistics for time spent in each domain by gender are presented in Table 3.

The percentages of time faculty spent on different domains based on their discipline as either STEM (n = 17) or non-STEM (n = 24) were also compared. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) as conducted to examine differences in percentages of time allocation between STEM and non-STEM faculty, which was not statistically significant, $F(3, 37) = 0.22$, $p = .88$. This suggests that there are no significant differences in time allocation patterns between STEM and non-STEM faculty. Descriptive statistics for time spent in each domain by discipline are presented in Table 5.

Correlations between departmentally assigned and actual workload percentages (see Table 6) revealed significant positive relationships for teaching ($r = .52$, $p < .05$) and research ($r = .42$, $p < .05$), indicating that faculty generally allocated time consistent with their formal assignments in these domains. However, assigned service workload showed no significant

correlation with actual time spent in service ($r = .01$, $p = .96$), suggesting that time spent in service is largely independent from assigned service workload.

Professional Identity

Research Question 1 investigated the relationships between professional identity domains (researcher, educator, and one who provides service) and time spent in teaching, research, and service. Initial Pearson correlations (see Table 7) indicated that researcher identities were significantly positively correlated with research time ($r = .32$, $p < .05$), and educator identities were significantly positively correlated with teaching time ($r = .32$, $p < .05$). However, service identity showed no significant correlations with service time ($r = .02$, $p = .90$), nor with time in any other domain. Notably, identity as an educator was significantly negatively correlated with time spent in service ($r = -.38$, $p < .05$).

To determine whether these relationships persisted beyond the impact of departmentally assigned workloads, partial correlations were conducted on the significant findings. After controlling for assigned research workload, the relationship between research identity and research time became nonsignificant ($r = .14$, $p = .39$). Similarly, after controlling for assigned teaching workload, the relationship between teaching identity and teaching time became nonsignificant ($r = .26$, $p = .11$). However, the negative relationship between teaching identity and service time remained significant even after controlling for assigned service workload ($r = -.38$, $p < .05$). This finding suggests that faculty with stronger educator identities limit their service engagement, regardless of formal assigned service workload.

Research Question 2 looked at gender differences in professional identity levels. Independent t-tests found no significant differences between men and women across any of the

identity domains: research identity (p = .97), teaching identity (p = .56), and service identity (p = .15), see Table 2. These findings suggest that men and women had similar levels of identification with researcher, educator, and service roles, though there was a trend toward women having slightly higher service identity scores (M = 3.93 vs. M = 3.47).

Hypothesis 1 predicted that gender would moderate the relationships between professional identity and time spent in teaching, research, and service. Hierarchical regressions were used to analyze each identity-domain pairing (e.g. educator and teaching, researcher and research), with assigned workload as a control variable, professional identity and gender as main effects, and professional identity x gender as the interaction. Additionally, because of the unexpected finding that the educator identity is significantly negatively related to time spent in service, a fourth model was included to determine if gender moderated this relationship. All four models showed no significant professional identity × gender interactions, see Table 8. The researcher identity × gender interaction for research time was nonsignificant (β = -0.06, p = .71), as well as the educator identity × gender interaction for teaching time (β = 0.18, p = .23). The service identity × gender interaction for service time was also nonsignificant (β = 0.06, p = .75). Finally, the educator identity × gender interaction for service time did not reach statistical significance (β = -0.24, p = .16). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Prosocial Motivation

Research Question 3 examined the relationships between prosocial motivation and time spent in teaching, research, and service. Pearson correlations (see Table 9) revealed small effects in theoretically expected directions, though none reached significance. Faculty higher in prosocial motivation tended to spend less time on research activities (r = -.21, p = .19) and more time on people-centric activities, including teaching (r = .14, p = .38) and service (r = .18, p =

.27). While these correlations did not reach levels of statistical significance, these findings align with theoretical expectations that prosocially motivated individuals gravitate toward activities involving direct support of others.

Research Question 4 investigated whether men and women differ in levels of prosocial motivation. An independent t-test revealed no statistically significant difference in prosocial motivation in men ($M = 4.41$) and women ($M = 4.61$), $t(38) = -1.13$, $p = .26$, see Table 2, although the means trended toward women endorsing higher prosocial motivation.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that gender will moderate the relationship between prosocial motivation and time spent in Teaching, Research, and Service. Hierarchical regressions were conducted for each domain, with assigned workload as a control variable, prosocial motivation and gender as the main effects, and prosocial motivation x gender as the interaction (see Table 10). The interaction for teaching time ($\beta = -0.07$, $p = .63$), service time ($\beta = -0.14$, $p = .42$), and research time ($\beta = 0.05$, $p = .73$) were not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Work Centrality

Research Question 5 examined how work centrality relates to time spent on teaching, research, and service. Pearson correlations (see Table 11) found a small positive correlation between work centrality and research time ($r = .20$, $p = .21$) and almost no relationship with teaching time ($r = .02$, $p = .89$), with neither of these correlations reaching statistical significance. There was a significant negative correlation between work centrality and service time allocation ($r = -.34$, $p < .05$), and to determine whether this finding persisted after controlling for assigned service workload, a partial correlation was conducted. The negative

relationship remained significant (r = -.34, p < .05), indicating that faculty who are high in work centrality spend less time doing service activities, regardless of their assigned service workload.

Research Question 6 looked at whether work centrality levels differed between men and women. An independent t-test comparing work centrality scores found no significant difference between men (M = 2.85) and women (M = 3.11), t(38) = -0.71, p = .49, see Table 2. Interestingly, while statistically nonsignificant, women tended to report higher work centrality scores, which differs from past literature showing that men either have higher or equal work centrality than women.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that gender would moderate the relationship between work centrality and time spent across teaching, research, and service. Hierarchical regressions were used to analyze the relationship between work centrality and each domain, with assigned workload as a control variable, work centrality and gender as the main effects, and work centrality x gender as the interaction (see Table 12). The regressions found no significance for the interaction for teaching time (β = 0.10, p = .46) or research time (β = -0.10, p = .49). The interaction for service time had a small negative effect (β = -0.22, p = .16), but this also did not reach statistical significance. Interestingly, while statistically nonsignificant, these findings reveal a trend where higher levels of work centrality are associated with more research time, yet women spent less time on research than men, despite having higher levels of work centrality. However, because none of the hypothesized work centrality × gender interactions reached statistical significance, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to explore the factors that impact how faculty allocate their time across Teaching, Research, and Service (TRS). Previous studies have often relied on retroactive self-reporting (Domingo et al., 2022; Hurtado et al., 2012; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a; Link et al., 2008), which may be susceptible to memory biases and inaccuracies. In contrast, this study used real-time data collection over a two-week period, offering a more nuanced and accurate depiction of faculty work patterns. Furthermore, this study is among the first to examine why faculty may allocate time differently across domains by investigating four factors: gender, professional identity, prosocial motivation, and work centrality.

Consistent with previous literature (Houston et al., 2006; Hurtado et al., 2012; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004b), faculty in this study worked beyond a standard 40 hour work week, averaging over 47 hours per week. Although not statistically significant, women worked nearly an average of four more hours per week than men, which is a trend worth investigating in larger and more diverse samples. Importantly, women spent significantly more time teaching than men, nearly seven hours a week, despite having no significant difference in assigned teaching workload. This exceeds earlier findings, such as those found by Misra et al. (2011), who found women spent three more hours per week teaching than men. This finding reinforces the notion that teaching responsibilities disproportionately fall on women faculty and may be even greater than previously documented.

Beyond gender differences, this study revealed several novel findings related to faculty workload allocation. While assigned workloads predicted time spent on teaching and research,

assigned service workload showed no relationship with actual service time. This disconnect suggests that faculty decisions to participate in service activities are largely independent of their formal service assignments. This raises concerns about a lack of accountability in universities when it comes to assigned service. Service activities are necessary for the functioning of departments and universities, and yet some faculty may be overburdened with service tasks while others underperform without consequence, due to lack of recognition in formal evaluation and reward systems for this effort.

In examining professional identity, small but significant correlations appeared between faculty identity and time allocation. Specifically, identity as a researcher was positively associated with research time and identifying as an educator was positively associated with teaching time. However, both relationships became nonsignificant after controlling for assigned workloads. The educator identity had a small to medium negative effect on service time, and this relationship persisted even after controlling for assigned service workload. Interestingly, actual teaching time was not significantly negatively associated with service time, suggesting that it is not the amount of time spent teaching that prevents participation in service activities, but rather identification with the educator role. Faculty who strongly identify as educators may intentionally reduce their service engagement, possibly because they perceive teaching to be their main contributor to the university and don't feel a need to put in additional efforts towards other forms of service.

No significant gender differences were found in professional identity scores across roles, though women showed a trend toward stronger identification with service roles. Gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between professional identity and time allocation. Because none of these interactions were statistically significant, the hypothesis that gender

moderates the relationship between professional identity and time spent in TRS was not supported.

Prosocial motivation did not significantly predict time spent in TRS, although trends aligned with theoretical expectations; faculty with higher prosocial motivation scores reported spending less time on research and slightly more on teaching and service. These effects, while nonsignificant, may warrant further research in the future. Past research found that women tend to be more prosocially motivated (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Farrell & Finkelstein, 2005), and while women did report slightly higher prosocial scores than men, it did not reach statistical significance. Gender also did not significantly moderate the relationship between prosocial motivation and time spent in TRS, which means Hypothesis 2 was unsupported.

The findings related to work centrality were particularly noteworthy. Faculty with higher work centrality scores spent significantly less time on service, even after accounting for assigned workload. These findings could indicate that faculty view service as peripheral to their core work identity, especially because service is least valued in promotion and tenure decisions. The hypothesis that gender moderates the relationship between work centrality and time spent in TRS was unsupported. However, there was a trend indicating that women have higher work centrality than men, which is contrary to what has been observed in past literature. While statistically nonsignificant, the trends point towards higher levels of work centrality being positively associated with research time, yet women spent less time on research, despite having higher levels of work centrality. Further research on this topic could explore whether subtle relationships exist in how work centrality relates to time allocation, particularly among women faculty.

Limitations

While this study provides valuable insights about faculty and their workloads, several limitations should be noted. First, the sample size was small (N = 41), which meant that statistical analyses conducted were not as robust as they could have been with a larger sample and there was less ability to detect relationships between variables. Several relationships in this study had small to medium effect sizes that did not reach statistical significance, so it is possible that future research with larger and more diverse samples may reveal different relationships between factors. Additionally, faculty were selected from a single R1 institution, and the majority were racially homogeneous and in marriages/domestic partnerships, which limits generalizability about the findings.

Timing constraints may have also influenced the data collected. While deliberate attempts were made to recruit faculty over several two-week periods over the course of a semester, it is possible that the timing of these time tracking periods meant some faculty engaged in work that was not reflective of their typical workload. For instance, a couple faculty reported disruptions such as power outages or unexpected travel plans, which could have influenced their work hours.

Another limitation involves the potential for confusion around activity tagging. Faculty received an orientation on how to use the Clockify software and were provided definitions for each tag, but it is possible that some misunderstood or inconsistently applied them. Many academic tasks spanned multiple domains (e.g. mentoring students while conducting research), and while faculty were allowed to apply up to three tags per activity, they may have struggled to decide which three were most appropriate. As a result, some activities may have been tagged

incorrectly, leading to misclassification and potential misrepresentation of time spent in teaching, research, and service.

Lastly, faculty were aware their work activities were being monitored, which may have influenced their behavior during the time-tracking period. Although faculty were assured of anonymity and explicitly asked not to alter their work patterns, the awareness of being observed may have led some to unintentionally change their behavior. Social desirability bias may have caused faculty to shift their behavior to align with social expectations. Additionally, some faculty may have felt dissatisfaction upon seeing how they spent their time, as a result, inadvertently self-corrected to better reflect how they believed their schedules should look. This may have resulted in time allocation data that differs from faculty's typical work routines.

Theoretical Contributions

This study makes important theoretical contributions to how faculty spend their time. First, unlike prior research that relied on retroactive self-report (Domingo et al., 2022; Hurtado et al., 2012; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a; Link et al., 2008), which is susceptible to bias and memory issues, this study used real-time tracking to monitor faculty over a two-week period. This methodological approach offers a more accurate and detailed representation of faculty work behaviors.

Second, while many previous studies have focused on documenting how faculty spend their time, this study took it a step further by examining potential explanatory factors in the form of gender, professional identity, prosocial motivation, and work centrality. Even if gender did not act as a significant moderator, it was a meaningful predictor of teaching time, with women faculty spending significantly more time on teaching despite having equivalent assigned

workloads to men. This supports existing literature that women spend more time teaching than men (Carrigan et al., 2011; Misra et al., 2011; Poor et al., 2009; Winslow, 2010) and highlights the need for continued attention to gendered workload distributions.

Third, this study found that the educator identity was significantly negatively associated with service time, even when actual teaching hours were not. This distinction suggests that professional identity may influence time allocation in a way that can't be attributed to time availability alone. Therefore, this finding contributes to identity theory by demonstrating how identification with one role may reduce engagement with another, less salient domain.

Fourth, work centrality was significantly negatively associated with service time, suggesting that faculty who view work as a central part of their lives may not perceive service as a meaningful part of their work. This finding points to an important issue in how service is perceived by faculty and by those making promotion and tenure decisions. It also contributes to research on how faculty evaluations can shape perceptions about faculty workload and impact effort allocation.

Although many analyses did not reach statistical significance, several demonstrated small to medium effect sizes consistent with theoretical expectations. For example, faculty higher in prosocial motivation showed trends toward spending less time on research and more time on teaching and service. These findings suggest that with a larger sample, these effects might reach significance. By focusing on the underlying motivational factors that drive faculty, this study has contributed unique knowledge on faculty workload patterns and what influences their time allocation decisions.

Practical Implications

This study offers several practical implications for faculty and universities. First, consistent with prior research, faculty reported working more than the standard 40-hour work week. While past studies have found that faculty consider this to be the norm and even a necessity in achieving promotions and tenure (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004a), it could benefit policymakers to recognize the heavy demands placed on faculty members. Women also worked almost four hours per week more than men, and while this difference was not statistically significant, this trend could point towards a gendered imbalance in workload that should also be considered.

Notably, this study found that women spent nearly seven hours more per week on teaching than men, despite no significant differences in assigned teaching workload. This discrepancy points towards unrecognized labor of women faculty that disadvantages them in a promotion process that prioritizes research. Universities should consider whether current teaching expectations are contributing to inequitable outcomes and take steps to recognize and reward teaching activities in promotion criteria.

The finding that assigned service workload was not significantly correlated with actual time spent on service is also concerning. This misalignment implies a lack of oversight and accountability for service contributions, which could result in inequitable burdens for certain faculty members. Universities may benefit from developing clearer guidelines for service expectations and implementing systems to ensure more equitable distribution of service responsibilities. Additionally, the finding that faculty with higher work centrality spend less time on service suggests that service may be viewed as peripheral to “real” academic work. These

perceptions may reflect promotion systems that prioritize research first and service last. Universities should reconsider how service contributions are recognized and rewarded in faculty evaluations systems so that faculty members who regularly participate in necessary service activities are not disadvantaged in promotion and tenure decisions.

Future Directions

Future research should address the limitations of this study by recruiting larger and more diverse samples across multiple institutions, disciplines, and demographics. These steps would improve statistical power and generalizability, allowing for a more comprehensive examination of how factors like gender, professional identity, prosocial motivation, and work centrality influence workload across different contexts.

Longer time tracking periods could also help capture fluctuations in faculty responsibilities over a semester. For instance, certain activities such as grading or service obligations may rise and fall at particular times, so extending the data collection period could provide a more holistic view of faculty workloads. Additionally, offering a more detailed explanation of the tagging system or implementing coding protocols may improve accuracy in categorizing work activities.

This study also opens new doors for theoretical exploration. The finding that the educator identity negatively predicts service time, separate of actual teaching hours, suggests that professional identity may influence behavior beyond logistical time availability. Future research could investigate whether other identities similarly shape work behavior.

The disconnect between departmentally assigned and actual service workload also highlights an area worth investigating. Understanding which institutional, cultural, or social

factors guide faculty decisions about time allocation could help universities create policies that support more equitable workload distributions. Similarly, the finding that work centrality correlates with less service engagement could lead to further research on how faculty conceptualize work in academic contexts. Future studies could investigate whether reframing service as an essential part of academic work shifts attitudes and behavior.

Finally, future research could take a more experimental or intervention-based approach. For instance, it would be worth exploring if different evaluation systems or incentive structures change how faculty perceive teaching and service obligations. Studying whether these changes lead to a more balanced time allocation would offer valuable insight into how policies can shape faculty behavior.

References

Alperin, J. P., Muñoz Nieves, C., Schimanski, L. A., Fischman, G. E., Niles, M. T., & McKiernan, E. C. (2019). How significant are the public dimensions of faculty work in review, promotion and tenure documents? *eLife*, *8*, e42254. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.42254

Babcock, L., Recalde, M. P., Vesterlund, L., & Weingart, L. (2017). Gender Differences in Accepting and Receiving Requests for Tasks with Low Promotability. *American Economic Review*, *107*(3), 714–747. https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.20141734

Bal, P. M., & Kooij, D. (2011). The relations between work centrality, psychological contracts, and job attitudes: The influence of age. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *20*(4), 497–523. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594321003669079

Banuri, S., & Keefer, P. (2016). Pro-social motivation, effort and the call to public service. *European Economic Review*, *83*, 139–164. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.euroecorev.2015.10.011

Barker Caza, B., & Creary, S. (2016). The construction of professional identity. In A. Wilkinson, D. Hislop, & C. Coupland (Eds.), *Perspectives on Contemporary Professional Work*. Edward Elgar Publishing. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781783475582.00022

Barnes, L. L. B., Agago, M. O., & Coombs, W. T. (1998). *Effects of Job-Related Stress on Faculty Intention to Leave Academia*.

Batson, C. D. (1987). Prosocial Motivation: Is it ever Truly Altruistic? In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 20, pp. 65–122). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60412-8

Bergeron, D. M. (2007). The potential paradox of organizational citizenship behavior: Good citizens at what cost? *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(4), 1078–1095. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.26585791

Bolino, M. C., & Grant, A. M. (2016). The Bright Side of Being Prosocial at Work, and the Dark Side, Too: A Review and Agenda for Research on Other-Oriented Motives, Behavior, and Impact in Organizations. *Academy of Management Annals*, *10*(1), 599–670. https://doi.org/10.5465/19416520.2016.1153260

Bolino, M. C., Hsiung, H.-H., Harvey, J., & LePine, J. A. (2015). "Well, I'm tired of tryin'!" Organizational citizenship behavior and citizenship fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(1), 56–74. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037583

Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2005). The Personal Costs of Citizenship Behavior: The Relationship Between Individual Initiative and Role Overload, Job Stress, and Work-Family Conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(4), 740–748. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.4.740

Carnegie 2025 Basic Classifications FAQs. (2024). Carnegie Classifications. https://carnegieclassifications.acenet.edu/carnegie-classification/carnegie-2025-basic-classifications-faqs/

Carrigan, C., Quinn, K., & Riskin, E. A. (2011). The gendered division of labor among STEM faculty and the effects of critical mass. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *4*(3), 131–146. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021831

Chemers, M. M., Zurbriggen, E. L., Syed, M., Goza, B. K., & Bearman, S. (2011). The Role of Efficacy and Identity in Science Career Commitment Among Underrepresented Minority

Students. *Journal of Social Issues*, *67*(3), 469–491. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.2011.01710.x

Clockify. (n.d.). Clockify. Retrieved December 6, 2024, from https://clockify.me

Diekman, A. B., & Eagly, A. H. (2000). Stereotypes as Dynamic Constructs: Women and Men of the Past, Present, and Future. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *26*(10), 1171–1188. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167200262001

Domingo, C. R., Gerber, N. C., Harris, D., Mamo, L., Pasion, S. G., Rebanal, R. D., & Rosser, S. V. (2022). More service or more advancement: Institutional barriers to academic success for women and women of color faculty at a large public comprehensive minority-serving state university. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *15*(3), 365–379. https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000292

Durodoye, R., Gumpertz, M., Wilson, A., Griffith, E., & Ahmad, S. (2020). Tenure and Promotion Outcomes at Four Large Land Grant Universities: Examining the Role of Gender, Race, and Academic Discipline. *Research in Higher Education*, *61*(5), 628–651. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-019-09573-9

Eagly, A. H. (2009). The His and Hers of Prosocial Behavior: An Examination of the Social Psychology of Gender. *American Psychologist*.

Farrell, S. K., & Finkelstein, L. (2005). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Gender: Expectations and Attributions for Performance: (518612013-535)* [Dataset]. https://doi.org/10.1037/e518612013-535

Fitzmaurice, M. (2013). Constructing professional identity as a new academic: A moral endeavour. *Studies in Higher Education*, *38*(4), 613–622. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2011.594501

Grant, A. M. (2007). Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *The Academy of Management Review*, *32*(2), 393–417.

Grant, A. M. (2008). Does intrinsic motivation fuel the prosocial fire? Motivational synergy in predicting persistence, performance, and productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(1), 48–58. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.1.48

Green, R. G. (2008). Tenure and Promotion Decisions: The Relative Importance of Teaching, Scholarship, and Service. *Journal of Social Work Education*, *44*(2), 117–128. https://doi.org/10.5175/JSWE.2008.200700003

Griffith, A. S., & Altinay, Z. (2020). A framework to assess higher education faculty workload in U.S. universities. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, *57*(6), 691–700. https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2020.1786432

Guarino, C. M., & Borden, V. M. H. (2017). Faculty Service Loads and Gender: Are Women Taking Care of the Academic Family? *Research in Higher Education*, *58*(6), 672–694. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-017-9454-2

Hanasono, L. K., Broido, E. M., Yacobucci, M. M., Root, K. V., Peña, S., & O'Neil, D. A. (2019). Secret service: Revealing gender biases in the visibility and value of faculty service. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *12*(1), 85–98. https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000081

Heilman, M. E., & Chen, J. J. (2005). Same Behavior, Different Consequences: Reactions to Men's and Women's Altruistic Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(3), 431–441. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.3.431

Hirschfeld, R. R., & Feild, H. S. (2000). Work centrality and work alienation: Distinct aspects of a general commitment to work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *21*(7), 789–800. https://doi.org/10.1002/1099-1379(200011)21:7<789::AID-JOB59>3.0.CO;2-W

Houston, D., Meyer, LuannaH., & Paewai, S. (2006). Academic Staff Workloads and Job Satisfaction: Expectations and values in academe. *Journal of Higher Education Policy & Management*, *28*(1), 17–30. https://doi.org/10.1080/13600800500283734

Hurtado, S., Eagan, K., Pryor, J., Whang, H., & Tran, S. (2012). *Undergraduate teaching faculty: The 2010–2011 HERI faculty survey* (pp. 109–135). Higher Education Research Institute, University of California, Los Angeles.

Irwin, V., Wang, K., Jung, J., Kessler, E., Tezil, T., Alhassani, S., Filbey, A., Dilig, R., Mann, F. B., Barnett, M., Purcell, S., & Nachazel, T. (2024). *Report on the Condition of Education 2024* (NCES 2024-144). U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2024144

Jacobs, J. A., & Winslow, S. E. (2004a). Overworked Faculty: Job Stresses and Family Demands. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *596*(1), 104–129. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716204268185

Jacobs, J. A., & Winslow, S. E. (2004b). The academic life course, time pressures and gender inequality. *Community, Work & Family*, *7*(2), 143–161. https://doi.org/10.1080/1366880042000245443

Link, A. N., Swann, C. A., & Bozeman, B. (2008). A time allocation study of university faculty. *Economics of Education Review*, *27*(4), 363–374. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2007.04.002

Mannheim, B. (1993). *Gender and the Effects of Demographics, Status, and Work Values on Work Centrality*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888493020001001

Mason, M. A., & Goulden, M. (2004). Marriage and Baby Blues: Redefining Gender Equity in the Academy. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *596*(1), 86–103. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716204268744

Mayrhofer, W., Meyer, M., Schiffinger, M., & Schmidt, A. (2008). The influence of family responsibilities, career fields and gender on career success: An empirical study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *23*(3), 292–323. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940810861392

Miscenko, D., & Day, D. (2015). Identity and identification at work. *Organizational Psychology Review*, *6*(3), 215–247.

Misra, J., Lundquist, J., Holmes, E., & Agiomavritis, S. (2011). The Ivory Ceiling of Service Work. *Academe*, *97*(1), 22–26.

Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2008). Long work hours: A social identity perspective on meta-analysis data. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *29*(7), 853–880. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.536

O'Meara, K. (2016). Whose Problem is It? Gender Differences in Faculty Thinking about Campus Service. *Teachers College Record: The Voice of Scholarship in Education*, *118*(8), 1–38. https://doi.org/10.1177/016146811611800808

Osborne, J. W., & Jones, B. D. (2011). Identification with Academics and Motivation to Achieve in School: How the Structure of the Self Influences Academic Outcomes. *Educational Psychology Review*, *23*(1), 131–158. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-011-9151-1

Poor, S. S., Scullion, R., Woodward, K., Laurence, D., Christensen, K. M., Clark, J. E., Conley, K., Haidt, R., Hogan, K., Holland, S. P., Howard, J. E., Hua, L. U., Joyce, J. A., Kaiser,

N., Laity, C., Lawrence, K., Lin, Y.-C. T., Maiz-Peña, M., Massé, M. A., … Zanichowsky, E. M. (2009). Standing Still: The Associate Professor Survey: MLA Committee on the Status of Women in the Profession. *Profession*, 313–350.

R Core Team. (2024). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing (4.4.2)* [Computer software]. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. https://www.r-project.org/

Rioux, S. M., & Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: A motivational analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(6), 1306–1314. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.6.1306

Schein, E. H. (1978). Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs. *Reading/Addison-Wesley*.

Schuster, J. H., & Finkelstein, M. J. (2007). *On the Brink: Assessing the Status of the American Faculty*.

Sharabi, M., & Harpaz, I. (2010). Improving employees' work centrality improves organizational performance: Work events and work centrality relationships. *Human Resource Development International*, *13*(4), 379–392. https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2010.501960

Siebert, D. C., & Siebert, C. F. (2005). The Caregiver Role Identity Scale: A Validation Study. *Research on Social Work Practice*, *15*(3), 204–212. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731504272779

Singh, P., Finn, D., & Goulet, L. (2004). Gender and job attitudes: A re-examination and extension. *Women in Management Review*, *19*(7), 345–355. https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420410563403

Slay, H. S., & Smith, D. A. (2011). Professional identity construction: Using narrative to understand the negotiation of professional and stigmatized cultural identities. *Human Relations*, *64*(1), 85–107. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726710384290

Stryker, S., & Burke, P. J. (2000). The Past, Present, and Future of an Identity Theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *63*(4), 284. https://doi.org/10.2307/2695840

Tziner, A., Ben-David, A., Oren, L., & Sharoni, G. (2014). Attachment to work, job satisfaction and work centrality. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *35*(6), 555–565. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-08-2012-0102

Uçanok, B., & Karabatı, S. (2013). The Effects of Values, Work Centrality, and Organizational Commitment on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: Evidence from Turkish SMEs. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *24*(1), 89–129. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21156

Utz, S., Muscanell, N., & Göritz, A. S. (2014). Give, match, or take: A new personality construct predicts resource and information sharing. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *70*, 11–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.06.011

Winslow, S. (2010). Gender Inequality and Time Allocations Among Academic Faculty. *Gender & Society*, *24*(6), 769–793. https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243210386728

Ziker, J. P., Wintermote, A., Nolin, D., Demps, K., Genuchi, M., & Meinhardt, K. (2014). *Time Distribution of Faculty Workload at Boise State University*.

Figure 1

The Present Study's Model

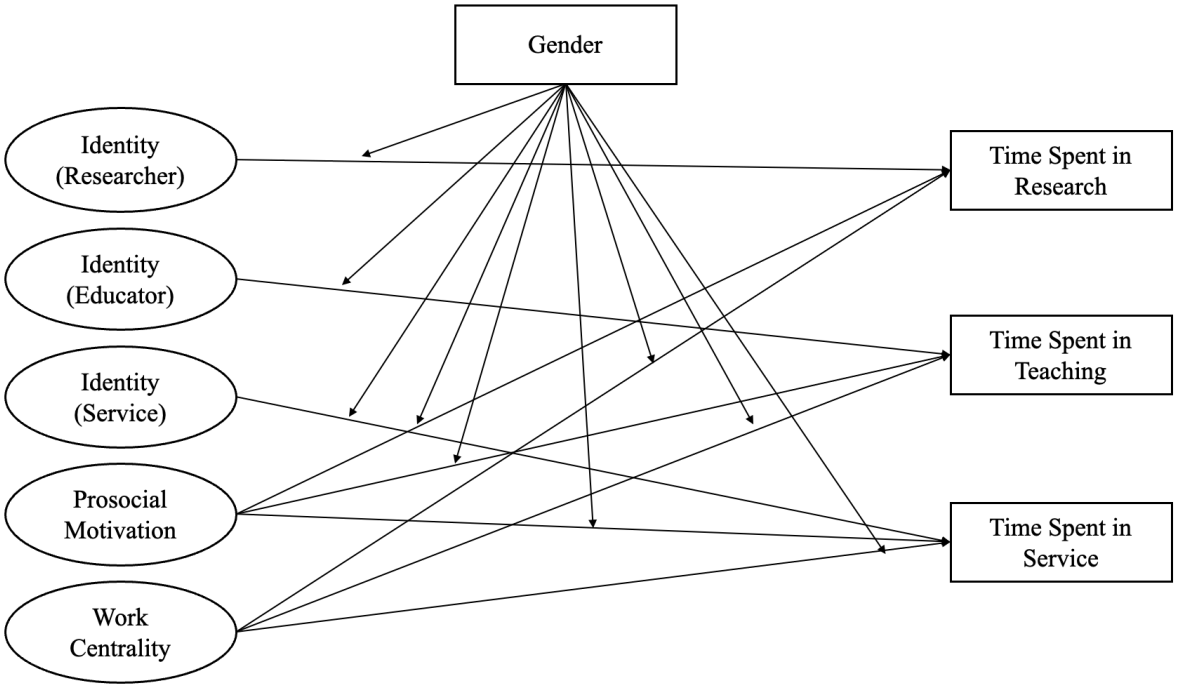

Table 1

Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	n	%
Gender		
Men	17	41%
Women	23	56%
Other gender identity	1	2%
Race/Ethnicity		
White	36	88%
Non-White	4	10%
Did not answer	1	2%
Relationship Status		
Married/Domestic Partnership	38	93%
Single	3	7%
Dependents		
0 dependents	20	49%
1+ dependents	21	51%
Rank		
Assistant professor	17	41%
Associate professor	16	39%
Professor	8	20%
Discipline		
STEM	17	41%
Non-STEM	24	59%

Table 2

All Variables by Gender

	Men N = 17		Women N = 23		Test Statistic	*p*
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*		
Actual Workload						
Teaching	18.86%	13.00	30.87%	17.45	F(1,38) = 5.70	0.02*
Research	43.37%	24.93	32.27%	19.95	F(1,38) = 2.44	0.13
Service	19.28%	12.19	21.32%	13.71	F(1,38) = 0.24	0.63
Administrative	39.60%	25.54	29.90%	22.16	F(1,38) = 1.64	0.21
Other	34.53%	20.36	28.44%	15.36	F(1,38) = 1.17	0.29
Assigned Workload						
Teaching	32.50%	10.16	33.91%	12.96	$t(38) = -0.37$	0.71
Research	41.03%	9.48	39.35%	14.56	$t(38) = 0.41$	0.68
Service	20.88%	11.62	20.65%	13.51	$t(38) = -0.06$	0.96
Weekly Hours	44.79	10.68	48.65	7.32	$t(38) = -1.36$	0.18
Professional Identity						
Educator	4.35	0.66	4.20	0.94	$t(38) = 0.59$	0.56
Researcher	4.21	0.85	4.20	1.07	$t(38) = 0.03$	0.97
Service	3.47	1.04	3.93	0.96	$t(38) = -1.46$	0.15
Prosocial Motivation	4.41	0.64	4.61	0.46	$t(38) = -1.13$	0.26
Work Centrality	2.85	1.17	3.11	1.11	$t(38) = -0.71$	0.49

Note. * $p < 0.05$

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of Time Allocation by Gender

Domain	All N = 41		Men N = 17		Women N = 23	
	Hours *M* (*SD*)	Percent *M* (*SD*)	Hours *M* (*SD*)	*Percent M (SD)*	Hours *M* (*SD*)	*Percent M (SD)*
Teaching	12.68 (8.90)	26.49 (17.08)	8.37 (5.82)	18.86% (13.00)	15.10 (9.20)	30.87% (17.45)
Research	17.33 (11.33)	36.65% (22.41)	19.37 (12.43)	43.37% (24.93)	16.03 (10.72)	32.27% (19.95)
Service	10.02 (6.76)	20.82% (13.02)	8.85 (5.94)	19.28% (12.19)	10.47 (7.21)	21.32% (13.71)
Admin	15.75 (10.6)	33.92% (23.55)	17.43 (11.18)	39.60% (25.54)	14.48 (10.47)	29.90% (22.16)
Other	14.35 (8.51)	30.47% (17.82)	15.61 (9.75)	34.53% (20.36)	13.85 (7.52)	28.44% (15.36)
Total	47.2 (8.96)		44.79 (10.68)		48.65 (7.32)	

Note. Hours represent average weekly. Participants could assign multiple tags to single activities, so individual domain hours may exceed total hours and percentages exceed 100%

Table 4

One-Way ANOVA Results for Gender Differences in Work Activity Percentages

Variable	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Teaching Percent	1, 38	1410.5	5.70	0.02*
Research Percent	1, 38	1202.96	2.44	0.13
Service Percent	1, 38	40.95	0.24	0.63
Admin Percent	1, 38	919.39	1.64	0.21
Other Percent	1, 38	362.69	1.17	0.29

Note. *df* = degrees of freedom; *MS* = mean square; *F* = F-statistic; *$p < .05$.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations of Time Allocation by Discipline

Domain	Non-STEM N = 24		STEM N = 17	
	Hours *M* (*SD*)	*Percent M (SD)*	Hours *M* (*SD*)	*Percent M (SD)*
Teaching	12.15 (7.13)	26.35% (14.81)	13.43 (11.14)	26.69% (20.34)
Research	16.38 (11.64)	34.46% (22.07)	18.68 (11.07)	39.73% (23.20)
Service	9.92 (6.16)	21.31% (12.05)	10.17 (7.718)	20.13% (14.63)
Admin	15.53 (11.19)	33.65% (24.84)	16.06 (10.04)	34.31% (22.33)
Other	13.81 (8.39)	29.99% (18.61)	15.11 (8.89)	31.14% (17.19)
Total	46.26 (6.96)		48.53 (11.30)	

Note. Hours represent average weekly. Participants could assign multiple tags to single activities, so individual domain hours may exceed total hours and percentages exceed 100%

Table 6

Correlations of Assigned vs Actual Workload Percentages

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Assigned Teaching	-					
2. Actual Teaching	0.52***	-				
3. Assigned Research	-0.23	-0.02	-			
4. Actual Research	-0.03	-0.39	0.42***	-		
5. Assigned Service	-0.30	-0.18	-0.12	0.05	-	
6. Actual Service	-0.09	-0.10	0.01	-0.15	0.01	-

Note. $N = 41$ participants. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, and * $p < .05$.

Table 7

Correlations Between Professional Identity and Time Allocation

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Research Identity	-					
2. Teaching Identity	0.32*	-				
3. Service Identity	0.04	0.08	-			
4. Research %	0.32*	-0.00	-0.10	-		
5. Teaching %	0.03	0.32*	-0.05	-0.39**	-	
6. Service %	-0.14	-0.38*	0.02	-0.15	-0.10	-

Note. N = 41 participants. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, and * $p < .05$.

Table 8

Hierarchical Regression Results for Professional Identity × Gender Interactions

Predictor	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2
Research Identity - Research Time				
Step 1				0.17*
Assigned Research Workload	0.74	0.27	0.33*	
Step 2				0.24*
Assigned Research Workload	0.58	0.30	0.33	
Research Identity	3.69	3.82	0.17	
Gender	-10.08	6.59	-0.22	
Step 3				0.24*
Assigned Research Workload	0.60	0.30	0.33	
Research Identity	8.24	12.92	0.17	
Gender	1.56	32.21	-0.22	
Research Identity × Gender	-2.76	7.48	-0.06	
Teaching Identity - Teaching Time				
Step 1				0.22**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.67	0.20	0.38**	
Step 2				0.40**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.58	0.19	0.38**	
Teaching Identity	5.29	2.66	0.21	
Gender	12.03	4.33	0.35**	
Step 3				0.42**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.54	0.19	0.38**	
Teaching Identity	-7.40	10.67	0.21	
Gender	-19.61	26.13	0.35*	
Teaching Identity × Gender	7.35	5.99	0.18	
Service Identity - Service Time				
Step 1				0.01
Assigned Service Workload	0.03	0.17	0.03	
Step 2				0.01
Assigned Service Workload	0.03	0.17	0.03	
Service Identity	0.25	2.23	0.02	
Gender	1.94	4.42	0.08	
Step 3				0.01
Assigned Service Workload	0.03	0.18	0.03	
Service Identity	-1.96	7.22	0.02	
Gender	-3.38	17.10	0.08	
Service Identity × Gender	1.44	4.48	0.06	
Teaching Identity - Service Time				
Step 1				0.00
Assigned Service Workload	0.03	0.17	0.03	
Step 2				0.17*
Assigned Service Workload	0.01	0.16	-0.01	
Teaching Identity	-6.43	2.40	-0.33*	
Gender	1.04	3.94	0.05	

Step 3				0.22*
Assigned Service Workload	-0.01	0.15	-0.01	
Teaching Identity	6.86	9.64	-0.33*	
Gender	34.03	23.53	0.05	
Teaching Identity × Gender	-7.65	5.38	-0.24	

Note. N = 40. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 9

Correlations Between Prosocial Motivation and Time Allocation

Time Allocation	*r*	*p*
Research Time %	-0.21	0.19
Teaching Time %	0.14	0.38
Service Time %	0.18	0.27

Note. N = 41 participants. No correlations were statistically significant

Table 10

Hierarchical Regression Results for Prosocial Motivation x Gender Interactions

Predictor	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2
Prosocial Motivation - Teaching Time				
Step 1				0.22**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.67	0.20	0.38**	
Step 2				0.34**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.65	0.19	0.47**	
Prosocial Motivation	2.78	4.22	0.07	
Gender	10.55	4.59	0.32*	
Step 3				0.34**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.66	0.20	0.47**	
Prosocial Motivation	8.67	13.01	0.07	
Gender	29.39	39.55	0.32*	
Prosocial Motivation × Gender	-4.16	8.68	-0.07	
Prosocial Motivation - Research Time				
Step 1				0.17*
Assigned Research Workload	0.74	0.27	0.33*	
Step 2				0.25*
Assigned Research Workload	0.73	0.26	0.40*	
Prosocial Motivation	-7.20	6.10	-0.16	
Gender	-8.46	6.65	-0.19	
Step 3				0.25*
Assigned Research Workload	0.72	0.27	0.40*	
Prosocial Motivation	-13.18	18.78	-0.16	
Gender	-27.67	57.42	-0.19	
Prosocial Motivation × Gender	4.24	12.59	0.05	
Prosocial Motivation - Service Time				
Step 1				0.001
Assigned Service Workload	0.03	0.17	0.03	
Step 2				0.03
Assigned Service Workload	0.03	0.17	0.03	
Prosocial Motivation	3.43	3.97	0.10	
Gender	1.38	4.33	0.05	
Step 3				0.05
Assigned Service Workload	0.03	0.17	0.03	
Prosocial Motivation	12.75	12.12	0.10	
Gender	31.31	36.99	0.05	
Prosocial Motivation × Gender	-6.61	8.11	-0.14	

Note. N = 40. β = standardized regression coefficient. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 11

Correlations Between Work Centrality and Time Allocation

Time Allocation	*r*	*p*
Research Time %	0.20	0.21
Teaching Time %	0.02	0.89
Service Time %	-0.34	0.03*

Note. N = 41 participants. * $p < .05$.

Table 12

Hierarchical Regression Results for Work Centrality x Gender Interactions

Predictor	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	R^2
Work Centrality - Teaching Time				
Step 1				0.22**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.67	0.20	0.38**	
Step 2				0.33**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.64	0.19	0.46**	
Work Centrality	0.03	2.03	0.01	
Gender	11.10	4.57	0.34*	
Step 3				0.34**
Assigned Teaching Workload	0.65	0.20	0.46**	
Work Centrality	-4.69	6.70	0.01	
Gender	2.07	13.03	0.34*	
Work Centrality × Gender	3.04	4.11	0.10	
Work Centrality - Research Time				
Step 1				0.17*
Assigned Research Workload	0.74	0.27	0.33*	
Step 2				0.26*
Assigned Research Workload	0.70	0.26	0.38*	
Work Centrality	4.16	2.90	0.20	
Gender	-10.97	6.53	-0.25	
Step 3				0.27*
Assigned Research Workload	0.69	0.26	0.38*	
Work Centrality	10.54	9.58	0.20	
Gender	1.19	18.61	-0.25	
Work Centrality × Gender	-4.11	5.88	-0.10	
Work Centrality - Service Time				
Step 1				0.00
Assigned Service Workload	0.03	0.17	0.03	
Step 2				0.12*
Assigned Service Workload	0.05	0.16	0.03	
Work Centrality	-3.88	1.81	-0.35*	
Gender	3.05	4.08	0.11	
Step 3				0.17*
Assigned Service Workload	0.04	0.16	0.03	
Work Centrality	4.08	5.87	-0.35*	
Gender	18.26	11.40	0.11	
Work Centrality × Gender	-5.13	3.60	-0.22	

Note. $N = 40$. β = standardized regression coefficient. *$p < .05$. **$p < .0$

Appendix A

Tags and Definitions

Tag	Definition
A1 - Formal Role Administrative Tasks	Engaging in tasks related to a formal, assigned, and compensated 12-month administrative role for which you have a formal administrative title (e.g., chair, associate dean, but not committee A member, graduate liaison - tasks for those roles go into A2)
A2 - Other Role Administrative Tasks	Engaging in tasks related to an assigned administrative role that may or may not be paid, and may or may not be part of service to the department or college (e.g., committee A member, graduate liaison, assessment coordinator)
O1 – Managing Email	Conducting general work-related communication via email; if you spend substantial time on email related to teaching, research/creative activity (CA), or service, also tag that time with a second relevant tag in teaching, research/CA, or service
O2 – Required Bureaucratic Activities	Completing tasks that are work-related but focus more on navigating university requirements and systems than producing work products, including completing required university training, travel reimbursement submission, approving timecards, changing classroom assignments, etc.
O3 – Networking/Social Events	Participating in socializing and developing connections with colleagues that does not intend to solve work problems or create work products
O4 – Professional Development	Attending training/seminar/workshop, listening to a podcast, reading a book, participating in a book club, where the topics/content relates to improving your skills and your professional development as a faculty member; if this activity is specific to teaching, research/CA, or service, also tag the appropriate category
O5 – Other Work Activities	Performing any other work-related tasks or activities that do not clearly represent teaching, research/CA, or service, and does

	not fit in any other tag, including logging time for this study
R/CA1 – Funded Research/Creative Activities	Conducting research/CA tasks that are part of an effort funded internally or externally, such as grants, contracts, fellowships, commissions, or other sponsored projects
R/CA2 – Unfunded Research/Creative Activities	Conducting research/CA tasks that are currently not funded through internal or external awards
R/CA3 – Logistical Tasks/Project Management	Engaging in research/CA tasks that are primarily about managing the project, such as administrative meetings, budgeting, planning, etc.
R/CA4 – Direct Research/CA Activities	Engaging in tasks that are directly related to producing the research/CA outcomes, such as reading, analyzing, writing, rehearsing, performing laboratory work, discussing/brainstorming research ideas and solutions to problems
R/CA5 – Meet/Mentor Students	Meeting with students for the purpose of discussing research/CA activities and providing mentorship on research/CA performance
R/CA6 – Collaborate with Colleagues	Working directly with colleagues (e.g., non-student collaborators) during the completion of research/CA related tasks
R/CA7 – Individual Work/Activities	Working individually during the completion of research/CA related tasks, such as writing, editing student work for publication, reviewing and analyzing research data, looking for funding opportunities, rehearsing, ordering laboratory equipment, etc.
R/CA8 - Community Engaged Research/CA	Engaging in scholarly or creative activities that build connections with, examine the experiences of, or share results relevant to groups and communities beyond campus.
R/CA9 – Other	Performing any other research/CA-related tasks not represented by the existing tags
S1 – Department Service	Engaging in formally assigned departmental service, e.g., committee meetings, role-specific administrative tasks, department meetings, etc.
S2 – College Service	Engaging in formally assigned college service, e.g., committee meetings/committee emails/committee work

S3 – University Service	Engaging in formally assigned university service, e.g., committee meetings/committee emails/committee work
S4 – Professional service	Engaging in formally designated professional service, e.g., editorial work, reviewing manuscripts submitted for publication, serving on sponsored award panels, serving on professional committees, etc.
S5 – Community Engagement	Engaging in service that involves community partners
S6 – Student Service	Conducting service that benefits students primarily, e.g., writing recommendation letters, academic advising, faculty advisor of student organizations, etc.
S7 – Informal/Invisible Service	Conducting unassigned and often unrewarded service, such as informal mentoring of graduate or undergraduate students, educating colleagues, unassigned mentorship of a new colleague, etc.
S8 – Other	Performing any other service-related tasks not represented by the existing tags
T1 – Course Revision/Development	Working on course development or revision for a current or future course
T2 – Course Prep	Spending time to prepare for a currently taught course, including reading, preparing lecture materials, developing assignments or tests, etc.
T3 – Class Time	Instructing during designated course meeting times.
T4 – Grading	Engaging in grading, commenting on student work, or managing grading records for a currently assigned course
T5 – Office Hours/Meeting Students for class	Participating in office hours or otherwise meeting or communicating with students to discuss matters related to a class
T6 – Other	Performing any other teaching-related tasks not represented by the existing tags