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## 2 **Artificial Intelligence Powered Pedagogy: Unveiling Higher Educators'**

### 3 **Acceptance with Extended TAM**

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### 6 **Abstract**

7 There is a growing prevalence of AI tools in the arena of higher  
8 education. The willingness and intentions of higher educators play a  
9 significant role in successfully incorporating these tools. This  
10 investigation extends the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) to  
11 explore the multifaceted interplay among determinants shaping higher  
12 educators' intentions for employing AI tools in their professional and  
13 pedagogical domains. The data was gathered from 400 respondents,  
14 comprising educators holding positions ranging from assistant  
15 professors to professors within Indian HEIs. The investigation validated  
16 the TAM model's applicability using covariance-based systematic  
17 equation modeling (CB-SEM) and supported nine of the fifteen  
18 proposed hypotheses. Further, the investigation underscores the  
19 significance of fostering higher educators' competency and confidence  
20 in AI tools through focused training and support services. Additionally,  
21 it highlights the role of their inherent openness to be proficient in such  
22 novel technological advancements. This investigation advances the  
23 prevailing AI-strengthened pedagogical sphere of education.

24 **Keywords:** Artificial Intelligence, acceptance, Amos, CB-SEM, higher  
25 educators, TAM

### 26 **Citation**

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## Introduction

31 Artificial Intelligence (AI) draws great global curiosity and attention since it profoundly brings  
32 astonishing features to our daily lives. The most recent and widely accepted definition of AI, as  
33 found in related literature, describes it as the ability of a computer or computer-controlled machine  
34 to comprehend, reason, and behave in a manner indistinguishable from human behaviour  
35 (Coombs et al., 2020; Enholm et al., 2022). With increased access to information and  
36 computational power, AI has become a transformative technology, fuelling innovation and  
37 revolutionising various sectors, from medical assistance in hospitals to robots in the automotive  
38 sector (Duan et al., 2019; Gursoy et al., 2019).

39 In recent decades, researchers have been exploring different ways of integrating AI technologies  
40 into the education environment (Cumming & Mcdougall, 2000; Lee & Yeo, 2022; K. Zhang &  
41 Aslan, 2021). This exploration has been reinforced by substantial investment, with global  
42 spending on AI-driven education reaching \$1.047 trillion between 2008 and 2017 (Mou, 2019).  
43 The prominent investment reflects the expanding utilisation of AI technologies across educational  
44 domains, notably personalised academic support, constructive feedback, automatic assessment  
45 and grading systems, intelligent tutoring systems, and mental health support tools (Alqahtani et  
46 al., 2023; Martínez-Comesaña et al., 2023; Shvetcov et al., 2023; Spitzer & Moeller, 2023).

47 The latest advancements in educational AI, highlighted in the 2023 EDUCAUSE Horizon Report,  
48 spotlight the transformative impact of Generative AI (GenAI) and Predictive AI in higher education  
49 (Pelletier et al., 2023). Gen AI tools leverage cutting-edge algorithms to learn patterns and  
50 generate novel content, including texts, images, sounds, videos, and code, enhancing  
51 personalisation (Chan & Hu, 2023). For example, with ChatGPT, a form of GenAI and an AI  
52 chatbot specialised in generating text-to-text human-like conversations, students can accomplish  
53 high-quality tasks such as writing a 1000-word essay (Atlas, 2023), solving math problems, and  
54 composing music, all in under 30 seconds (Chiu, 2023). Another noteworthy GenAI tool, DALL-  
55 E, functions similarly to ChatGPT and produces digital photos as output (Open AI, 2023).  
56 Additionally, GenAI extends beyond student support, aiding in research tasks by generating and  
57 compiling knowledge, summarising a large quantity of text information, analysing data, and  
58 crafting manuscripts (Berg, 2023). In contrast, Predictive AI tools analyse learner data to identify  
59 at-risk students, devise personalised learning pathways for enhanced efficacy, and optimise the  
60 instructional design (Mozer et al., 2019; Nabizadeh et al., 2020; Ouyang et al., 2023; Taheri et  
61 al., 2021).

62 In the ever-evolving landscape of higher education, it is indispensable for educators to constantly  
63 keep up with novel technological integrations, which has become paramount (Mazman Akar,  
64 2019). As AI tools are gaining prominence as a means of transforming this landscape (Crompton  
65 & Burke, 2023), understanding the motivations and intentions of higher educators in their adoption  
66 becomes crucial in navigating the challenges posed by the swiftly changing educational paradigm  
67 (Bearman et al., 2023). The rapid pace of technological change presents educators with  
68 opportunities and challenges as they strive to harness the potential of AI tools to optimise  
69 teaching, learning, and administrative processes. However, the complexity and diversity of AI  
70 tools require educators to navigate new terrain, necessitating a deep understanding of their  
71 motivations and intentions in adopting these technologies.

72 Moreover, gaining insights into higher educators' readiness supports the seamless integration of  
73 AI, directly impacting educational outcomes and nurturing learners for a technologically driven  
74 future. Within this realm, the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) has long been a valuable  
75 framework (Dasgupta et al., 2002), focusing on factors such as perceived usefulness and  
76 perceived ease of use, particularly in the context of technology integration in teaching and learning  
77 (Salloum et al., 2019; Taha et al., 2022). However, AI tools' complex and diversified nature  
78 presents unique challenges and considerations that can only be partially captured with the  
79 traditional Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) framework within higher education settings.  
80 Unlike conventional technologies, AI tools often involve sophisticated algorithms and data-driven  
81 functionalities that require educators to possess specialised knowledge and skills for effective  
82 utilisation. Furthermore, AI tools offer a wide range of functionalities, from personalised learning  
83 experiences to data-driven insights and task automation, each with its own set of implications for  
84 teaching and learning in higher education settings (Celik et al., 2022; Maghsudi et al., 2021; Sghir  
85 et al., 2023). Therefore, expanding the TAM framework to incorporate five additional constructs,  
86 Personal Innovativeness (PI), AI Self Efficacy (AISE), Professional Excellence (PE), Perceived  
87 Privacy Concern (PPC), and Perceived Enjoyment (PE), is essential to comprehensively address  
88 the multifaceted nature of AI tool adoption in higher education. However, the successful  
89 incorporation of these tools depends on the willingness and intentions of higher educators to  
90 embrace this transformative technology, thereby informing the development of tailored strategies  
91 and interventions to support their effective integration into educational practice. The investigation  
92 is navigated through the subsequent research questions.

93 Research questions:

- 94 • What factors influence higher educators' intentions to employ AI tools?
- 95 • How do these factors influence higher educators' intentions to employ AI tools
- 96 • How do higher educators perceive AI tools' usefulness and ease of use in their  
97 professional practices?

98 Despite the growing popularity of AI tools, there is a noticeable gap in the literature regarding  
99 higher educators' intentions to employ AI tools (Kim & Kim, 2022; Tang et al., 2023; Wang et al.,  
100 2023). Understanding their perspectives is significant for educational technology developers,  
101 institutions, and policymakers in designing effective strategies that facilitate AI tool adoption. By  
102 expanding TAM, this investigation not only advances theory but also holds implications for  
103 educational stakeholders seeking to utilise the benefits of AI in higher education. Additionally, the  
104 investigation endeavours to offer critical insights that could guide the productive integration of AI  
105 tools in higher education by thoroughly investigating the various aspects that impact higher  
106 educators' intentions in this regard. Though the study is being conducted within the framework of  
107 the Indian higher education system, the determinants influencing educators' intentions to employ  
108 AI tools are likely to have broader relevance across diverse educational settings globally. The  
109 Indian higher education system shares similarities with its international counterparts in its focus  
110 on providing quality, accessible education, fostering research and innovation, and adapting to  
111 technological advancements (Saini et al., 2023). Additionally, being a diverse country, the  
112 challenges and opportunities associated with AI integration in education are not unique to India  
113 but resonate with educational contexts worldwide (Agarwal & Vij, 2024). Therefore, while the  
114 study findings are rooted in the Indian higher education system, they can be generalised to inform

115 discussions and initiatives to promote AI adoption and utilisation in various educational contexts  
116 internationally.

## 117 **Literature Review and Hypotheses Development**

118 In recent years, integrating AI-powered tools into higher education has substantially transformed  
119 instructional strategies and learning processes (Cardona et al., 2023; Zawacki-Richter et al.,  
120 2019). This integration spans various realms, such as student admissions, personalised learning,  
121 and assessment (Memarian & Doleck, 2023). For instructional content optimisation and automatic  
122 recommendation systems, multiple AI algorithms have been utilised within higher education,  
123 including Sequential Pattern Mining (SPM) (Romero et al., 2013), Genetic Algorithms (GA),  
124 Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), and Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) (Christudas et al., 2018).  
125 For instance, Moseley and Mead (2008) successfully employed a machine-learning decision tree  
126 model to forecast enrollment declines in nursing institutions. Moreover, AI technology has been  
127 leveraged in specific educational applications, such as virtual reality (VR) for history learning,  
128 designed by Ijaz et al. (2017), significantly improving learners' engagement. Zhao et al. (2019)  
129 found that the practical implementation of AI-based instruction benefited learners' academic  
130 achievements. Additionally, Xiao et al. (2022) proposed an AI-assisted Multi-Objective Decision-  
131 Making model (AI-MODM) to forecast the performance of educators in higher education systems,  
132 achieving an impressive precision ratio of 97.9%. These significant AI-powered technological  
133 shifts have raised important questions about educators' intentions regarding incorporating AI tools  
134 into the pedagogical landscape.

135 Regarding technology adoption, the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is a widely recognised  
136 theoretical framework, offering a solid theoretical basis for comprehending users' acceptance of  
137 technology in an educational context (Granić & Marangunić, 2019). Rooted in the foundations of  
138 the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein, 1980) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen,  
139 1991), the TAM examines the factors influencing people's intentions to adopt technology. The  
140 TAM is beneficial when outlining how educators employ various technologies in different contexts  
141 (Dele-Ajayi et al., 2017). As further criticism of TAM had contributed to the model's development  
142 in subsequent investigations, more external variables were added to it, including the TAM2  
143 (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000), the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology – UTAUT  
144 (Venkatesh et al., 2003) and the TAM3 (Venkatesh & Bala, 2008). Despite the spectrum of TAM  
145 versions, the key variables- perceived usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEOU) were  
146 found to be the prominent determinants affecting the uptake of technology (Davis et al., 1989;  
147 Zhang et al., 2023).

148 Multiple investigations involving educators have been carried out in recent years by utilising  
149 various versions of TAM to explore the factors influencing their perceptions of different  
150 technologies across diverse contexts (Dele-Ajayi et al., 2019; Hong et al., 2021; Scherer & Teo,  
151 2019; Teo, 2019). For instance, Al Darayseh (2023) utilised the TAM framework to explore  
152 science educators' attitudes toward AI application use in education, revealing teachers' solid  
153 acceptance of AI. The study found no significant differences in educators' intentions to employ AI  
154 in science education based on gender, teaching experience, or qualifications. Furthermore, other  
155 studies have also showcased the applicability of TAM in determining educators' intentions to

156 deploy chatbots, augmented reality applications, and mobile technology (Asiri & El, 2022;  
157 Chocarro et al., 2023; Walker et al., 2020).

158 TAM enables researchers to incorporate potential external constructs influencing the adoption of  
159 a particular technology, as external are identified to determine both PU and PEOU (Al-Adwan et  
160 al., 2023; Moon & Kim, 2001; Zhang et al., 2008). In this investigation, we extended TAM by  
161 including five additional external constructs: Personal Innovativeness (PI), AI Self Efficacy (AISE),  
162 Professional Excellence (WE), Perceived Privacy Concern (PPC), and Perceived Enjoyment  
163 (PE), which are anticipated to profoundly impact Higher educator's Behavioural Intention (BI) to  
164 employ AI tools into their pedagogical landscape.

### 165 **Personal Innovativeness (PI)**

166 In general innovation diffusion studies, it has long been acknowledged that highly innovative  
167 people actively seek new information and tend to be more positive towards accepting it (Dibra,  
168 2015; Lu et al., 2005). PI, as recognised by Agarwal and Prasad (1998), signifies an individual's  
169 willingness to experiment with information or technology. Given the inadequate state of AI training,  
170 educators frequently rely on their initiative and research-driven inventive traits to explore and  
171 integrate new technologies (Hsiao & Chang, 2023; Nguyen et al., 2021). It is widely recognised  
172 that educators' unique innovativeness has a considerable impact on how they explore, embrace,  
173 and integrate new technology and instructional strategies (Frei-Landau et al., 2022; Uzumcu &  
174 Acilmis, 2023). Previous studies have established a notable correlation between PI and BI, PU,  
175 PEOU and Self Efficacy (Chen, 2022; Joo et al., 2014). Therefore, incorporating PI as a construct  
176 in this study provides valuable insight into educators' readiness to adopt AI tools and their  
177 potential impact on AI acceptance and utilisation. Consequently, the subsequent hypotheses are  
178 proposed:

179 **H1:** Higher Educators' PI significantly influences their PU in employing AI tools.

180 **H2:** Higher Educators' PI significantly influences their PEOU in employing AI tools.

181 **H3:** Higher Educators' PI significantly influences their BI in employing AI tools.

182 **H4:** Higher Educators' PI significantly influences their AISE in employing AI tools.

### 183 **AI Self Efficacy (AISE)**

184 Self-efficacy is often defined as one's perception of their level of competence (Bandura, 1977). AI  
185 Self-Efficacy (AISE) extends the concept of self-efficacy to the realm of AI technologies,  
186 representing individuals' judgments of their ability to effectively utilise AI tools (Wang et al., 2023).  
187 Given the significant impact of self-efficacy on constructs such as Perceived Usefulness (PU) and  
188 Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) in previous studies (Alharbi & Drew, 2019), the inclusion of AISE  
189 is crucial for understanding educators' readiness to adopt AI tools. Bandura and Locke (2003)  
190 assert that self-efficacy is positively correlated with personal behavioural actions and results, such  
191 as overcoming obstacles, striving for success, and eventually excelling in different domains of  
192 life. Considering the potential benefits of AI for educators in both learning and teaching, AISE  
193 plays a vital role in shaping educators' attitudes and behaviours towards adopting AI tools.  
194 Consequently, the subsequent hypotheses are proposed:

195 **H5:** Higher Educators' AISE significantly influences their PU in employing AI tools.

196 **H6:** Higher Educators' AISE significantly influences their PEOU in employing AI tools.

197 **H7:** Higher Educators' AISE significantly influences their PEx in employing AI tools.

### 198 **Professional Excellence (PEx)**

199 To achieve professional excellence in the context of adopting AI in academia, educators must  
200 possess the requisite knowledge, skills, and technology efficacy (Azad, 2017). AI can catalyse  
201 educators' professional excellence by offering tailored instructional resources to learners,  
202 automating administrative tasks, and supplying data-driven insights for optimising outcomes  
203 (Ghamrawi et al., 2023). Introducing the new construct, PE emphasises the importance of  
204 educators' competency and technology efficacy in effectively adopting and utilising AI tools in  
205 academic settings. Consequently, the subsequent hypotheses are proposed:

206 **H8:** Higher Educators' PEx significantly influences their BI in employing AI tools.

### 207 **Perceived Privacy Concern (PPC)**

208 In general, privacy concerns include worries about losing one's privacy and the necessity for  
209 protection against the misuse of personal information (Smith et al., 1996). Dinev and Hart (2005)  
210 found a negative impact of privacy concerns on the intention to use internet-based technology,  
211 indicating their significant influence on technology acceptance. This influence extends to AI  
212 technologies, where privacy concerns have been shown to affect perceived usefulness and  
213 acceptance (Dhagarra et al., 2020; Komatsu, 2013; Schomakers et al., 2022). AI's capability to  
214 collect, analyse, and retain vast amounts of personal data raises substantial privacy concerns,  
215 posing a critical obstacle to adoption (Walsh, 2023). Therefore, incorporating PPC as a construct  
216 in this study provides valuable insights into educators' perceptions and concerns regarding the  
217 privacy implications of AI adoption, which are essential considerations in their decision-making  
218 process. Consequently, the subsequent hypotheses are proposed:

219 **H9:** Higher Educators' PPC significantly influences their PU in employing AI tools.

220 **H10:** Higher Educators' PPC significantly influences their BI in employing AI tools.

### 221 **Perceived Usefulness (PU)**

222 The extent to which people believe using a particular technology enhances their performance is  
223 termed PU (Davis, 1989). This study outlines PU as the extent to which higher  
224 educators anticipate that deploying AI tools will enhance their professional and pedagogical  
225 expertise. Previous studies indicate that PU is the strongest predictor of the intention to use a  
226 potential technology (Rafique et al., 2020) in education (Adwan et al., 2018; Sprenger &  
227 Schwaninger, 2021). Consequently, the subsequent hypotheses are proposed:

228 **H11:** Higher Educators' PU significantly influences their BI in employing AI tools

### 229 **Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU)**

230 PEOU is the extent to which people perceive the technology as effortless to use, and it is  
231 supposed to have a beneficial impact on people's intentions about the technology's usefulness  
232 (Davis, 1989; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). PEOU and PU are critical indicators of future technology  
233 adoption in various sectors, including education (Dhingra & Mudgal, 2019). This indicates that  
234 when educators perceive that a particular technology is beneficial in making teaching and learning

235 more accessible and practical, they are more inclined to adopt it (Teo, 2011). Previous studies  
 236 have also proved the significant influence of PEOU on PU and BI in the acceptance of technology  
 237 in education (Chang et al., 2012; Rienties et al., 2016; Sánchez-Mena et al., 2017). Furthermore,  
 238 when technology is easy and convenient, individuals seem to find it more enjoyable. Previous  
 239 studies have found a significant correlation between PEOU and perceived enjoyment (Akdim et  
 240 al., 2022; Davis et al., 1992; Wang et al., 2022). Consequently, the subsequent hypotheses are  
 241 proposed:

242 **H12:** Higher Educators' PEOU significantly influences their PU in employing AI tools.

243 **H13:** Higher Educators' PEOU significantly influences their PE in employing AI tools.

244 **H14:** Higher Educators' PEOU significantly influences their BI in employing AI tools.

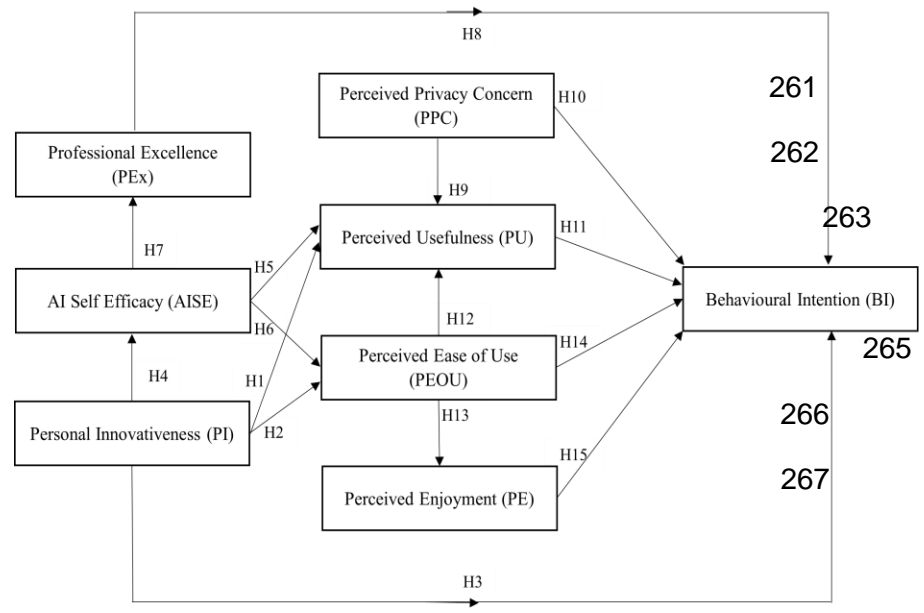
245 **Perceived Enjoyment (PE)**

246 PE is integral in understanding individuals' intentions towards technology adoption, as it measures  
 247 the degree of pleasure and fun an individual receives from a specific technology (Venkatesh,  
 248 2000). Research has shown that PE significantly influences individuals' technology adoption  
 249 intentions, particularly regarding hedonic systems that offer pleasure or joy (Koufaris, 2002;  
 250 Venkatesh et al., 2002). In the context of AI adoption in higher education, educators who perceive  
 251 AI tools as enjoyable and capable of delivering thrilling outcomes are more inclined to dedicate  
 252 effort towards their adoption (Bagdi & Bulsara, 2023; Humida et al., 2022; TURAN et al., 2022).  
 253 Consequently, the subsequent hypotheses are proposed:

254 **H15:** Higher Educators' PE significantly influences their BI in employing AI tools.

255 The proposed research model for the investigation is displayed in Figure 1.

256  
 257 **Figure 1**  
 258 **Proposed Research Model**



268  
 269

270

## Methodology

### 271 Research Approach

272 This investigation employed a quantitative research approach using a cross-sectional survey  
273 design. It selected covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM) to evaluate  
274 interconnected unobserved relationships among the study's constructs (Dash & Paul, 2021). This  
275 method was fitting because it assessed untested and tested constructs within the well-established  
276 TAM theoretical framework (Fussell & Truong, 2022).

### 277 Data Collection and Sampling

278 Following expert validation, refining phrases, and eliminating non-matching items, the final survey  
279 questionnaire was distributed during the last quarter of 2023 through in-person interactions and  
280 online via a Google form. Respondents were provided with detailed information about the purpose  
281 and objectives of the research and the procedures involved through a consent letter included at  
282 the beginning of the survey questionnaire. This ensured their voluntary participation and  
283 understanding of the research aims and procedures. The respondents comprised educators  
284 holding positions ranging from assistant professors to professors within Indian higher educational  
285 institutions. The data collection process followed strict ethical guidelines established by the  
286 Institutional Human Ethics Committee (IHEC), prioritising minimal collection of personal data  
287 beyond essential demographic information (Table 1).

### 288 Table 1

289 *Respondents' profile summary (n=400)*

	Category	<i>n</i>	%
Gender	Female	115	28.75
	Male	285	71.25
Academic Rank	Assistant Professor	220	55
	Associate Professor	126	31.5
	Professor	54	13.5
Stream of Specialization	STEM	156	39
	Arts/Humanities	72	18
	Social Science	110	27.5
	Management/Commerce	62	15.5



Experience with AI Tools	Limited	41	10.25
	Moderate	287	71.75
	Advanced	72	18
Frequency of employing AI tools in professional landscape	Not often	38	9.5
	Occasionally	295	73.75
	Regularly	67	16.75
	Always	-	-

290 The study's sample size was determined using Daniel Soper's (2023) online sample size  
291 calculator, drawing from Cohen's (1988) and Westland's (2010) methodologies. The *a priori*  
292 *sample method for structural equation modeling* was employed to establish the minimum required  
293 sample size. Considering an estimated effect size of .3, a desired statistical power level of .8, 8  
294 exogenous constructs, and 28 items at a .05 significance level, a minimum sample size of 177  
295 was recommended. The study gathered data from 400 respondents employing the technique of  
296 convenience sampling, surpassing the required sample threshold. Hence, for evaluating a  
297 proposed theoretical model, a non-probability sample is often found to be appropriate (Hulland et  
298 al., 2018).

### 299 Survey Instrument

300 The survey instrument comprised an initial section presenting the study's purpose and seeking  
301 consent, followed by the first section dedicated to gathering demographic data. The next part  
302 contained 28 measurement items to analyse the model's factors. These constructs were  
303 evaluated through three to four indicator variables, following content validation by experts (Table  
304 2), utilising a 5-point Likert scale extending from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5).

### 305 Table 2

306 *Research Constructs and Items*

Constructs	Items	Questions
Professional Excellence	PEx1	AI tools are highly beneficial for enhancing my work and productivity
	PEx2	AI tools enable me to achieve high professional proficiency.
	PEx3	AI tools can potentially benefit the quality of my work.
	PEx4	By utilising AI tools, I can effectively and precisely complete my tasks.

AI Self Efficacy	AISE1	I have the resources and support to employ AI tools effectively.
	AISE2	I have the fundamental understanding and expertise to employ AI tools efficiently.
	AISE3	AI tools seamlessly integrate with the other technologies I employ
Personal Innovativeness	PI1	I enjoy consistently experimenting with new AI Technologies and Tools
	PI2	When I hear about a new AI tool, I try and improve it differently.
	PI3	I invest time and effort to keep myself updated with developments of the latest AI tools.
	PI4	I discuss and share ideas with my colleagues about the possibilities of AI Tools.
Perceived Privacy Concern	PPC1	I have worries about the potential misuse of my data when using AI tools.
	PPC2	I have concerns about my digital privacy while using AI tools.
	PPC3	I am sceptical about sharing my sensitive information with AI-powered tools.
Perceived Usefulness	PU1	Using AI tools significantly enhances my productivity and work efficiency.
	PU2	AI tools can offer helpful knowledge and suggestions for the tasks I undertake.
	PU3	I find AI tools to be an excellent asset in achieving my goals and objectives.
	PU4	AI tools enable me to complete tasks more quickly and effectively.

	PEOU1	Learning to use AI tools has been effortless for me
	PEOU2	I have access to the necessary resources for using AI tools.
Perceived Ease of Use	PEOU3	I have confidence in my skills and expertise to use AI tools efficiently.
	PEOU4	AI tools are relatively easy to use and do not require much effort.
	PE1	The experience of employing AI technologies never fails to captivate me.
Perceived Enjoyment	PE2	Using AI Tools adds an element of excitement to my profession.
	PE3	Accomplishing my tasks with the assistance of AI Tools is very satisfying.
	BI1	I plan on incorporating AI tools into my daily tasks more often.
Behavioural Intention	BI2	I am going to increase the usage of AI tools.
	BI3	I will be utilising AI tools in the future.

## 307 **Data Analysis**

308 The present investigation employed a two-step process (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) to verify the  
 309 proposed model framework. The model's reliability, validity, and fit are assessed in the first stage,  
 310 followed by testing the hypotheses in the second stage using IBM SPSS 25 and Amos 22.

## 311 **Results**

### 312 **Measurement Model – Reliability, Validity, and Model Fit Analysis**

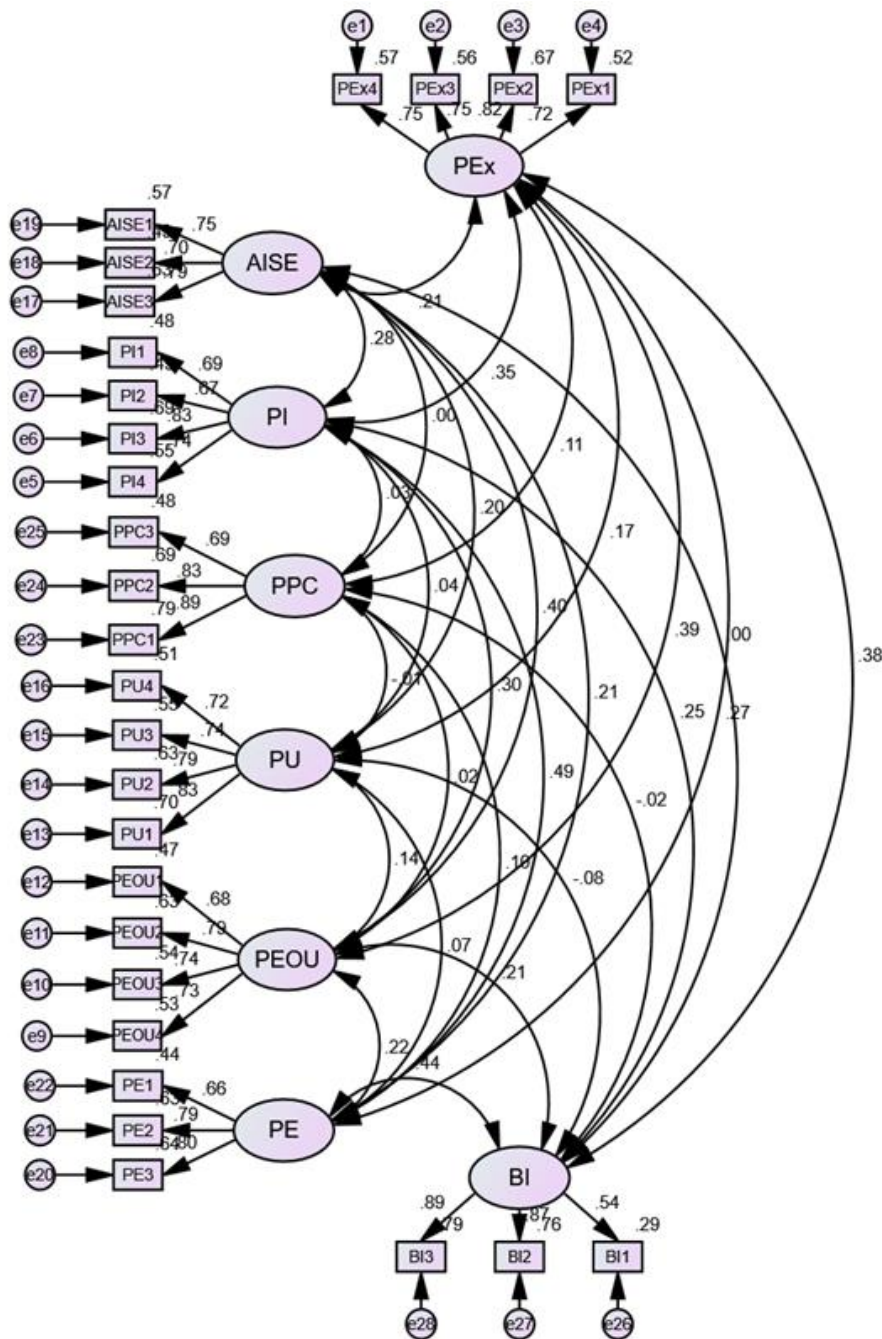
313 The data was initially examined through IBM SPSS Statistics 25 for missing information,  
 314 uncommitted replies, and outliers. Following this, the normality assumptions of the data were  
 315 confirmed using the Skewness and Kurtosis measures before continuing to the further estimates  
 316 analysis of the measurement model (Kline, 2016) displayed in Figure 2. The measured skewness  
 317 and kurtosis values were between the desirable ranges,  $\pm 3$  and  $\pm 10$  (Brown, 2006).

318 The measures of Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) and Construct Reliability (CR) were used to assess the  
 319 construct's reliability. The values of both the measures for each construct were found to be above  
 320 the pre-determined limit of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2009; Lance et al., 2006), given in Table 3. Further,  
 321 convergent and divergent validity measures were used to evaluate the validity of the constructs.  
 322 Standardised factor loadings and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values were measured to

323 evaluate the constructs' convergent validity (Table 3). As Hair et al. (2009) outlined, the  
 324 standardised factor loadings exceeded the pre-determined limit of 0.50. Similarly, as Fornell and  
 325 Larcker (1981) outlined, the AVE measures exceeded the pre-determined limit of 0.5, ranging  
 326 from 0.650 for PPC to 0.542 for PEOU.

327 **Figure 2**

328 *The Measurement Model*



357 **Table 3**

<b>Constructs</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Standardised Factor Loadings</b>
Professional Excellence (PEX) <b>(<math>\alpha = .845</math>, <math>CR = .846</math>, <math>AVE = 0.578</math>)</b>	PEX1	0.724
	PEX2	0.817
	PEX3	0.748
	PEX4	0.753
AI Self Efficacy (AISE) <b>(<math>\alpha = .789</math>, <math>CR = .794</math>, <math>AVE = 0.563</math>)</b>	AISE1	0.755
	AISE2	0.700
	AISE3	0.793
Personal Innovativeness (PI) <b>(<math>\alpha = .821</math>, <math>CR = .825</math>, <math>AVE = 0.543</math>)</b>	PI1	0.695
	PI2	0.669
	PI3	0.830
	PI4	0.744
Perceived Privacy Concerns (PPC) <b>(<math>\alpha = .841</math>, <math>CR = .845</math>, <math>AVE = 0.650</math>)</b>	PPC1	0.887
	PPC2	0.831
	PPC3	0.689
Perceived Usefulness (PU) <b>(<math>\alpha = .848</math>, <math>CR = .854</math>, <math>AVE = 0.595</math>)</b>	PU1	0.835
	PU2	0.791
	PU3	0.739
	PU4	0.716
Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) <b>(<math>\alpha = .823</math>, <math>CR = .825</math>, <math>AVE = 0.542</math>)</b>	PEOU1	0.682
	PEOU2	0.793
	PEOU3	0.736

	PEOU4	0.731	359
			360
Perceived Enjoyment (PE)	PE1	0.661	361
<b>(<math>\alpha</math>= .791, CR=.796, AVE=0.567)</b>	PE2	0.791	362
	PE3	0.799	363
			364
Behavioural Intention (BI)	BI1	0.536	365
<b>(<math>\alpha</math>= .786, CR=.820, AVE=0.614)</b>	BI2	0.874	366
	BI3	0.889	367
			368

369 The construct's discriminant validity was evaluated using the Fornell and Larcker criterion (Fornell  
370 & Larcker, 1981) and the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio (Kuppelwieser et al., 2019). As  
371 given in Table 4, all of the constructs adequately fulfilled the Fornell and Larcker criterion since  
372 each construct's square root of the AVE is higher than its correlation with other constructs.  
373 Additionally, as given in Table 5, all of the constructs confirmed the discriminant validity since the  
374 HTMT ratios were below the pre-determined limit of 0.85, as outlined by Henseler et al. (2015).

375 **Table 4**

376 *Measurement Model - Discriminant Validity: Fornell - Larcker Criterion*

Construct	PE <sub>x</sub>	AISE	PI	PPC	PU	PEOU	PE	BI
PE <sub>x</sub>	<b>0.760</b>							
AISE	0.207	<b>0.750</b>						
PI	0.351	0.283	<b>0.736</b>					
PPC	0.110	0.003	0.033	<b>0.806</b>				
PU	0.175	0.198	0.035	-0.090	<b>0.771</b>			
PEOU	0.387	0.402	0.303	0.016	0.137	<b>0.736</b>		
PE	0.272	0.212	0.494	0.097	0.066	0.317	<b>0.753</b>	
BI	0.381	0.038	0.247	-0.022	0.177	0.215	0.443	<b>0.783</b>

377 *Note.* Bold digits represent the square root of AVE

378

379

380 **Table 5**

381 *Measurement Model - Discriminant Validity: Heterotrait - Monotrait Ratio*

<b>Construct</b>	<b>PEx</b>	<b>AISE</b>	<b>PI</b>	<b>PPC</b>	<b>PU</b>	<b>PEOU</b>	<b>PE</b>
AISE	0.207						
PI	0.361	0.309					
PPC	0.088	0.037	0.032				
PU	0.185	0.208	0.059	0.041			
PEOU	0.390	0.409	0.330	0.055	0.153		
PE	0.264	0.218	0.511	0.074	0.273	0.312	
BI	0.381	0.023	0.288	0.189	0.385	0.210	0.431

382 In summary, the above-reported findings establish the constructs' reliability and validity. Further,  
 383 the convergent validity results confirm the internal consistency of the indicators in measuring their  
 384 respective constructs (Bagozzi, 1981), and discriminant validity results ensure that each construct  
 385 in the study distinctly differs from other constructs (Ab Hamid et al., 2017).

386 The following fit indices:  $\chi^2$  divided by degree of freedom (CMIN/DF), root mean square error of  
 387 approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and parsimonious normed fit index (PNFI)  
 388 were employed to evaluate the model fit using Amos. Further, the above-fit indices were  
 389 categorised into three distinct groups as per the Hooper et al. (2008) classifications: absolute fit  
 390 (CMIN/DF, RMSEA), incremental fit (CFI), and parsimonious fit (PNFI). The results reported in  
 391 Table 6 confirm the model's fitness, implying that the exogenous constructs included in the  
 392 proposed model could account for their influence on the endogenous constructs in  
 393 determining higher educators' intentions for successfully integrating AI tools.

394 **Table 6**

395 *Model's Fit Indices*

<b>Fit indices</b>	<b>Model fit indices</b>	<b>Recommended values</b>	<b>Sources</b>
Absolute Fit Indices			
CMIN/DF	2.104	≤ 3	(Cangur & Ercan, 2015; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Lin & Yu, 2023)
RMSEA	0.051	≤ .05	
Incremental Fit Index			
CFI	0.931	≥ .90	

Parsimony Fit Index

PNFI

0.746

$\geq .50$

### 396 Structural Model – Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

397 The structural model displayed in Figure 3 was further evaluated before proceeding with the  
398 hypothesis testing. Initially, by using the following fit indices: CMIN/DF = 2.151, RMSEA= 0.049,  
399 CFI=0.956, and PNFI = 0.753, the structural model was found to have an appropriate fit as per  
400 the recommended values from the sources given in Table 6.

401 In the subsequent step, the hypothesised structural relationships were tested using the  
402 standardised path coefficients ( $\beta$ ) (Jang et al., 2021; Mueller & Hancock, 2018), as reported in  
403 Table 7. Nine of the fifteen hypotheses tested were supported and had standardised path  
404 coefficients ranging from 0.159 to 0.386. The hypotheses H2, H4, H6, H7, H8, H13 and H15 were  
405 supported at 0.001 significance level, and H5 and H11 were supported at 0.01 significance level.  
406 The path within PU to BI had the lowest standardised path coefficient ( $\beta = 0.159$ ), whereas the  
407 path within PE to BI had the highest significant path coefficient ( $\beta = 0.386$ ). Moreover, the following  
408 hypotheses, H1, H3, H9, H10, H12 and H14, were not supported since they were not significant  
409 either at 0.001 or 0.01 levels of significance.

### 410 Figure 3

411 *The Structural Model*

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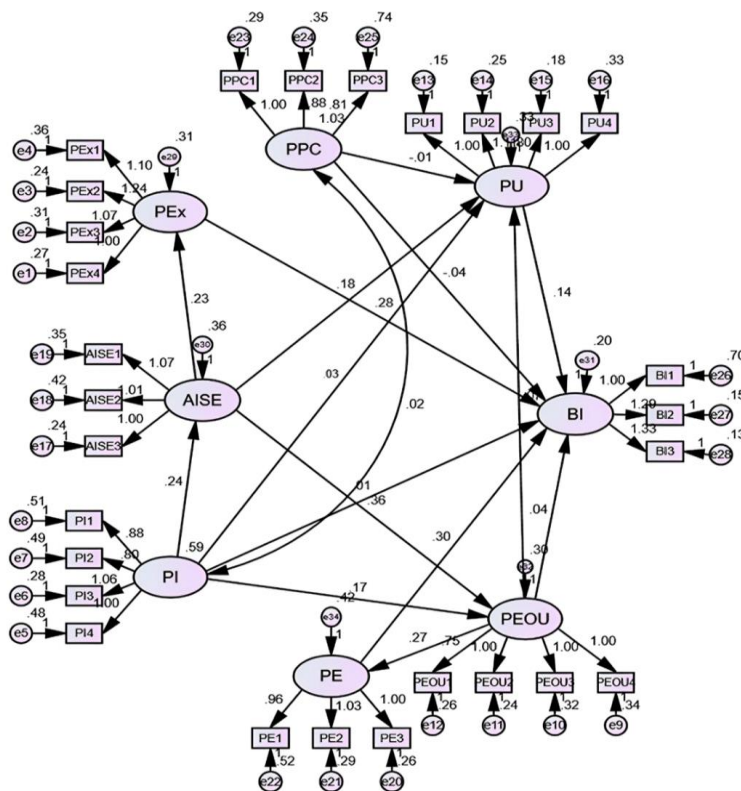
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Hypothesis	$\beta$	95% CI	<i>p</i> -Values	Decision
<b>H1: PI → PU</b>	0.045	(-.201 - .108)	0.458	Not Supported
<b>H2: PI → PEOU</b>	0.210	(.069 - .337)	***	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H3: PI → BI</b>	0.014	(-.140 - .118)	0.797	Not Supported
<b>H4: PI → AISE</b>	0.298	(.179 - .434)	***	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H5: AISE → PU</b>	0.194	(.053 - .336)	0.004**	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H6: AISE → PEOU</b>	0.362	(.217 - .512)	***	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H7: AISE → PEx</b>	0.250	(.105 - .388)	***	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H8: PEx → BI</b>	0.313	(.199 - .411)	***	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H9: PPC → PU</b>	-0.010	(-.114 - .097)	0.856	Not Supported
<b>H10: PPC → BI</b>	-0.084	(-.188 - .007)	0.090	Not Supported
<b>H11: PU → BI</b>	0.159	(.072 - .279)	0.002**	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H12: PEOU → PU</b>	0.070	(-.111 - .268)	0.292	Not Supported
<b>H13: PEOU → PE</b>	0.247	(.088 - .404)	***	<b>Supported</b>
<b>H14: PEOU → BI</b>	0.042	(-.096 - .184)	0.459	Not Supported
<b>H15: PE → BI</b>	0.386	(.251 - .506)	***	<b>Supported</b>

## Discussion

432 The present investigation examines multiple determinants influencing higher educators' intentions  
 433 to employ AI tools in their pedagogical and professional domains. Expanding upon TAM, this  
 434 study performed CB-SEM analysis with fifteen hypotheses to validate the proposed  
 435 pertinent determinants in the model. The analysis showed a significant influence of PI on higher  
 436 educators' PEOU and AISE in employing AI tools. This finding implies that educators' attitudes  
 437 and personal traits, particularly their inherent openness to new technological advancements,  
 438 significantly impact their perception and self-efficacy regarding AI tools (Gökçearslan et al., 2022;

439 Vidergor, 2023). Further, the AISE of higher educators was a significant determinant of PU, PEOU  
440 and PEx in employing AI tools. This highlights the role of competence and confidence of educators  
441 in shaping their perception of the usefulness and ease of utilising AI tools, along with enhancing  
442 their professional performance (Kulviwat et al., 2014; Sharma & Saini, 2022). Moreover, it  
443 underscores the need to foster educators' self-efficacy by providing appropriate training, support,  
444 and opportunities to develop the essential skills and confidence to employ AI tools effectively.  
445 Additionally, PEx and PE significantly affected higher educators BI in employing AI tools. Besides  
446 the practical advantages, the results emphasise the importance of enjoyable experiences with AI  
447 tools in driving educators to employ them in their professional and pedagogical domains.

448 In line with earlier studies (Georgiou et al., 2023; Koutromanos et al., 2023), the present  
449 investigation has demonstrated the significant role of PU in determining higher educators' BI in  
450 employing AI tools. However, in contrast to other studies (Nikou & Economides, 2019; Rafique et  
451 al., 2023), PEOU had an insignificant influence on PU and BI (Utami et al., 2022). This can be  
452 explained by prioritising the practical merits of AI tools over their ease of use. This preference  
453 may also arise from higher educators' limited familiarity with AI tools, causing them to focus more  
454 on the advantages offered by this advancing technology rather than considering how user-friendly  
455 it is, especially during this early stage of development and exposure. Even though ease of use  
456 does not directly influence their choices about usefulness or intention to employ AI tools, it does  
457 play a substantial role in their overall satisfaction or enjoyment in employing them, as indicated  
458 by the notable effect of PEOU on PE.

459 The negligible effect of both PI and PPC on PU and BI conforms with educators' preference for  
460 practical benefits in deciding their intentions to use AI tools. Additionally, educators may prioritise  
461 noticeable benefits above privacy concerns or individual innovativeness while evaluating the use  
462 of AI tools during this early exposure and advancement period. These findings underscore the  
463 need for additional studies to give further information regarding these insignificant relationships.

## 464 **Implications, Limitations and Direction for Future Research**

465 The present investigation has unveiled significant insights into the determinants impacting higher  
466 educators' intentions to employ AI tools, offering substantial implications. Based on the findings,  
467 prioritising faculty development initiatives becomes pivotal, focusing on enhancing higher  
468 educators' receptiveness towards current technological advancements and boosting their  
469 confidence in effectively utilising AI tools (Rott et al., 2022). Additionally, recognising the  
470 significant role of educators' competence and confidence (AISE) in shaping their perspectives on  
471 the usefulness, ease of use, and professional excellence associated with AI tools, targeted  
472 support and skill development programs should be developed both at the national and institutional  
473 level to foster educators' self-efficacy (Seufert et al., 2021). Furthermore, to address the inclination  
474 of educators to prioritise the practical benefits of AI tools over their ease of use, it is crucial to  
475 devise additional collaborative strategies that emphasise the practical advantages and  
476 effectiveness of such tools, aligning with educators' preferences and decision-making processes  
477 (Nikiforos et al., 2020; Prieto et al., 2018). Moreover, investments in refining and developing easy-  
478 to-use user interfaces are essential to ensure user-friendly experiences (Meske & Bunde, 2022;  
479 Stige et al., 2023), ultimately enhancing educators' overall satisfaction with AI tools. The study  
480 also signifies the need for a national-level policy to establish and ensure robust privacy protocols

481 and inclusivity in AI integration within the education domains (Chan, 2023; Kazim & Koshiyama,  
482 2021) despite the observed negligible impact of PPC on BI and PU. Furthermore, the research  
483 findings underscore the importance of fostering a culture of innovation and collaboration within  
484 academic institutions, encouraging the sharing of best-responsible practices and facilitating the  
485 integration of AI technologies into teaching and learning practices.

486 Even though this investigation provides valuable information about the determinants impacting  
487 higher educators' employment of AI tools in their professional and pedagogical domains,  
488 additional research is still needed to acknowledge the limitations and enhance the applicability of  
489 these findings. Instead of the present cross-sectional design, a longitudinal investigation can  
490 potentially be undertaken to offer a thorough understanding of the way the attitudes and intentions  
491 of higher educators change over time with AI. Furthermore, the effects of diverse mediating  
492 factors, including gender, can be explored in future investigations. Hence, the sole basis of the  
493 present investigation was the higher educators' prior experience in employing AI tools.  
494 Subsequent experimental and comparative investigations can explore the potential role of  
495 specific AI tools in higher educators' professional and pedagogical domains. Building on the  
496 significance of Professional Excellence (PEX) and Perceived Enjoyment (PE) uncovered in this  
497 study, future research should consider these constructs when examining AI tool adoption across  
498 different educational levels, including teacher education. Additionally, investigations can be made  
499 into specific AI tools' roles in educators' professional and pedagogical domains, which could  
500 provide valuable insights. Furthermore, exploring the impact of institutional contexts, such as  
501 organisational culture and leadership support, can significantly promote AI integration. By  
502 incorporating these recommendations into future research endeavours, we can deepen our  
503 understanding of AI integration in education and contribute to informed decision-making and  
504 practice in the field.

505

## Conclusion

506 The growing prevalence of AI in education marks a paradigm shift in instructional approaches and  
507 pupil engagement (Gill et al., 2024). However, the successful integration of this groundbreaking  
508 technology heavily relies on the willingness and intentions of higher educators to embrace this  
509 transformative technology in their professional and pedagogical spheres. Expanding upon TAM,  
510 this investigation provides insightful information on the multifaceted interplay among  
511 determinants shaping higher educators' intentions for employing AI tools in their pedagogical and  
512 professional domains. The significant influence of PI on PEOU and AISE, underscored in the  
513 investigation, highlights the importance of higher educators' inherent openness to be proficient in  
514 new technological advancements. Notably, the emergence of educators' AI self-efficacy as a key  
515 determinant in influencing their perceptions of usefulness, ease of use, and professional  
516 excellence underlines the significance of fostering educators' competency and confidence in AI  
517 tools through focused training and support services. Further, the notable path from PEX and PE  
518 to BI emphasises the importance of enjoyable experiences with AI tools in driving higher  
519 educators to employ them. Additionally, the investigation found the substantial influence of PU  
520 over PEOU on the BI of higher educators in employing AI tools. Moreover, the negligible effect of  
521 both PI and PPC on PU and BI underscores the need for future studies to explore additional  
522 factors regarding these insignificant relationships.

523 With the more technologically proficient evolving generations, Gen Z and Gen Alpha (Chan & Lee,  
524 2023; Jukic & Skojo, 2021), it has become a crucial need for higher educators to get acquainted  
525 with the upcoming technological advancements, including AI. In this context, this investigation  
526 contributes to the existing TAM literature by evaluating the model's suitability in exploring the  
527 multifaceted interplay among determinants shaping higher educators' intentions for employing AI  
528 tools. Meanwhile, the implications of these findings reach policymakers, higher educational  
529 bodies, institutions, and policymakers, signifying the need to balance privacy concerns, practical  
530 benefits, and higher educators' perceptions to facilitate effective implementation and utilisation of  
531 AI tools in educational settings.

532 Further, as the integration of AI in education becomes increasingly prevalent across various  
533 educational levels, including K-12, vocational training and teacher education (Akgun & Greenhow,  
534 2022; Hui, 2020; Schmidt-Crawford et al., 2023), the insights gained from this investigation can  
535 inform strategies for AI adoption and utilisation in these settings. While the study specifically  
536 focuses on higher educators' intentions to employ AI tools, the underlying determinants identified,  
537 such as perceived usefulness, ease of use, and professional excellence, may also apply to  
538 educators in other contexts. Additionally, the significance of factors like personal innovativeness  
539 and perceived enjoyment suggests broader implications for understanding technology adoption  
540 among educators across different educational levels. By considering the transferability of these  
541 findings, policymakers, educational institutions, and stakeholders can adapt strategies and  
542 interventions to effectively integrate AI tools into diverse educational contexts, ultimately  
543 enhancing teaching and learning outcomes on a broader scale.

#### 544 **Conflict of Interest**

545 The author(s) disclose that they have no actual or perceived conflicts of interest. The authors  
546 disclose that they have not received any funding for this manuscript beyond resourcing for  
547 academic time at their respective university. Except for grammar correction, citations, and  
548 references handled with Grammarly and Mendeley software, the author did not use any other AI  
549 technologies in the ideation, design, or writing of this research, as per Crawford et al. (2023). The  
550 authors list the following CRediT contributions: K. Kavitha: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data  
551 curation, Writing- Original draft preparation, Software, V. P Joshith: Supervision, Software,  
552 Validation, Reviewing and Editing

553

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