

ILLUMINATING PARADOXES: FACULTY VOICES ON ONLINE TEACHING

By

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ABSTRACT

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The term paradox, used by scholars studying organizational behavior (e.g., Cameron & Quinn, 1998) denotes an apparent contradiction. Findings from this study give voice to faculty members' positive and negative perceptions of the impact of online teaching on key elements of their work. Findings show that across the group of 19 faculty participants, and within the experiences of individual participants, there are positive and negative ways that online teaching impacts faculty members' experiences of key elements of faculty work. On the one hand, faculty respondents reported perceiving that online teaching enhances key elements of faculty work. On the other hand, they also reported that online teaching diminishes key elements of faculty work. For example, while faculty members appreciate the flexibility of online teaching, the flexibility presents challenges related to how to manage their schedules. The mixed findings draw attention to the positive and negative ways in which online teaching impacts faculty work lives.

Many organizational leaders attempt to ignore paradoxes because they are messy and illuminate areas of tension (Chen, 2002). Findings from this study suggest that higher education leaders would be remiss in ignoring faculty members' perceptions of the paradoxical nature of online teaching. Instead, higher education leaders should embrace these paradoxes as opportunities to understand the diverse perceptions faculty members express in regard to the impact of online teaching on key elements of their work. By acknowledging the tensions and complexities presented by online teaching, faculty members and higher education leaders can view this form of work through a lens of faculty growth.

Much of the literature about faculty work can be characterized as expressing a narrative of constraint that illuminates the difficulties and stresses of faculty work (O'Meara, Neumann, & Terosky, 2008). The literature about faculty members' experiences teaching online often reflects this narrative of constraint by highlighting the obstacles that discourage faculty from teaching online (Allen & Seaman, 2013). Alongside this narrative of constraint is a counter narrative of faculty growth that illuminates faculty members' capacity to persistently strive to overcome challenges in their work (O'Meara et al., 2008). The purpose of this study was to examine whether, alongside the barriers faculty encounter when they teach online, there are opportunities to experience elements of work that are associated with faculty satisfaction, productivity, and commitment: flexibility and balance, autonomy and academic freedom, relationships with students and colleagues, professional growth, and agency (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008). Study participants were in the early middle, middle, or senior portion of the career, taught online undergraduate courses in a variety of disciplines, and held tenured and non-tenure-track appointments.

Results from the study shed light on how to better support faculty who teach online and draw attention to the complexities and opportunities for growth inherent in this form of academic work. I argue that higher education leaders and scholars should use the paradoxical findings from this study to help their institutions develop strategic ways to support faculty who teach online. For example, faculty development specialists can consider how to help faculty members to maximize the flexibility afforded by this form of work while at the same time helping them to better manage their schedules. By taking into account both the positive and negative impacts of online teaching on key elements of faculty work, higher education leaders are better positioned to use a variety of promising strategies to support faculty who teach online.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT	1
Online Teaching: A Trend In Higher Education	2
Faculty's Resistance To Online Teaching	5
Key Elements of Faculty Work	6
Online Teaching Across the Career and Across Appointment Type	7
Research Questions	8
Conceptual Frameworks	9
Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory	9
Framework of Essential Elements	10
Framework for Faculty Growth	10
Significance	11
Conclusion	13
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	14
Distinguishing Features of the Work Lives of Non-Tenure-Track Instructors	15
Changing appointment patterns	16
Unintended consequences of changing appointment patterns	18
Need for policies to support non-tenure-track instructors	18
Role of non-tenure-track instructors in online teaching	19
Summary	20
Faculty Concerns Across the Middle and Senior Phase of the Career	21
High levels of disengagement	21
<i>Post-tenure depression</i>	23
Lack of attention to the middle career period	24
Need for professional development for associate professors	25
Summary	26
Factors that Influence Faculty's Motivation to Teach Online	26
Factors that encourage faculty to teach online	28
<i>Intrinsic incentives</i>	28
<i>Extrinsic incentives</i>	29
Factors that discourage faculty from teaching online	30
<i>Increased time and heavier workload</i>	31
<i>Unstable technology</i>	32
<i>Lack of adequate institutional support</i>	33
<i>Lack of adequate professional development</i>	33
Summary	34
Key Elements of Faculty Work	35
Flexibility and balance	37
Academic freedom and autonomy	38

Agency.....	40
Professional relationships.....	41
Professional growth.....	43
Summary.....	45
Online Teaching Across the Career.....	46
Graduate students.....	46
Early career faculty.....	47
Mid-career faculty.....	49
Senior faculty.....	50
Summary.....	52
Literature Review Summary.....	53
Conceptual Framework.....	54
Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory.....	54
Framework of essential elements.....	55
Framework of faculty growth.....	56
Summary.....	57
Conclusion.....	58
 CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY.....	 59
Overview of Methodology.....	59
Research Paradigm.....	59
Phenomenography.....	60
Site Selection.....	62
Participant Selection.....	63
Data Collection.....	66
Data Analysis.....	68
Reliability.....	73
Validity.....	74
Reflexivity.....	75
Summary.....	75
Limitations.....	76
 CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS.....	 77
Impact of Online Teaching on Flexibility and Balance.....	78
Appreciation of flexibility.....	79
<i>Access for students.</i>	80
<i>Liberating. It frees me up.</i>	81
<i>Tools to fill in gaps and help the class stay on track.</i>	82
Balance challenges.....	83
<i>Online teaching is pervasive.</i>	83
<i>Unreasonable expectations.</i>	84
Summary: Impact of online teaching on flexibility.....	85
Impact of Online Teaching on Autonomy.....	86
Freedom to make independent choices about course set up: “Free reign.”.....	87
<i>Growing pains.</i>	88
<i>Choices about learning management system.</i>	90

<i>Limited freedom.</i>	92
Frustration, confusion, and lack of awareness about course ownership.	93
<i>Laid-back attitude.</i>	93
<i>Proceed with considerable caution.</i>	94
<i>Desire to make course content public.</i>	96
Summary: Impact of online teaching on autonomy.	97
Impact of Online Teaching on Relationships with Students	98
Get to know students better, high quality participation, and high student engagement.	99
<i>Students respond to the “power of anonymity.”</i>	99
<i>“It’s more engaging.”</i>	100
<i>Students “understand that there is a lot more self-responsibility.”</i>	101
<i>Students receive better feedback.</i>	103
Hard to get to know students, low quality participation, low student engagement	103
<i>Online classes are “lonely.”</i>	104
<i>The “human aspect” is missing.</i>	105
<i>Are students “actually getting this material?”</i>	107
<i>Which students “are actually in front of the computer?”</i>	109
Summary: Impact of online teaching on faculty’s relationships with students	110
Impact of Online Teaching on Relationships with Colleagues	111
Support for online teaching: Forming relationships with adjunct instructors.	113
<i>Using the instructional design center for support.</i>	113
<i>Comparing notes with colleagues.</i>	114
<i>Collaborating on projects.</i>	116
<i>Faculty learning communities (FLCs).</i>	116
Feelings of isolation.	117
<i>“On a different page.”</i>	117
<i>Working in a vacuum.</i>	118
Summary: Impact of online teaching on relationships with colleagues.	119
Impact of Online Teaching on Professional Growth	119
Professional development is valuable.	121
<i>Speaking on panels.</i>	122
Professional development is not valuable.	122
<i>No one rewards my involvement in workshops.</i>	123
A reexamination of teaching practices.	124
<i>More engaging presentation of course content.</i>	124
<i>How to better structure online discussions.</i>	126
<i>“More thoughtful about” course organization.</i>	126
<i>My communication skills have improved.</i>	127
New ideas.	128
<i>Research projects.</i>	128
<i>New ideas for projects.</i>	129
Online teaching did not contribute to professional growth.	130
Summary: Impact of online teaching on professional growth.	130
Impact of Online Teaching on Agency	131
Training and disciplinary background.	132
Agency and sense of meaning.	135

<i>“Going in blind.”</i>	136
<i>Navigating the learning curve.</i>	136
<i>Increased “comfort level.”</i>	138
<i>“Intellectual challenge.”</i>	139
Online teaching is not meaningful.....	139
Summary: Impact of online teaching on agency.....	141
Patterns Across Gender, Appointment Type, Discipline and Years Teaching Online	141
Gender.....	142
Appointment type.....	142
Discipline.....	143
Number of classes taught online.....	143
Patterns Across the Career	143
Career Phase.....	144
<i>Early middle career participants.</i>	144
<i>Middle career participants.</i>	144
<i>Senior career participants.</i>	144
Findings: Summary And Conclusion.....	145
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION.....	146
Summary of Major Findings.....	148
Discussion of Results.....	151
Implications For Practice: Key Elements of Faculty Work.....	154
Maintain flexibility and balance for faculty who teach online.....	154
Balance autonomy with support and guidelines about course ownership.....	155
Acknowledge how online education changes interactions between faculty and students. .	157
Support faculty in forming relationships with colleagues in new ways.....	159
Recognize the opportunities online teaching presents for professional growth.....	161
Help faculty increase their sense of agency.....	163
Implications For Practice: Patterns Across Gender, Appointment Type, Discipline And Years Teaching Online.....	165
Gender.....	165
Appointment type.....	166
Discipline.....	167
Number of classes taught online.....	170
Implications For Practice: Patterns Across The Career	172
Career Phase.....	172
<i>Early middle career participants</i>	172
<i>Middle career participants.</i>	173
<i>Senior career participants.</i>	175
Contributions to Theory.....	177
Prevalence of paradoxes in online education.....	177
Making meaning of the paradoxes.....	180
Narrative of faculty growth.....	184
Areas For Future Research.....	187
APPENDICES	190

Appendix A: Interview Protocol	181
Appendix B: Research Participation Information and Consent Form	182
Appendix C: Description of Participants	183
REFERENCES	197

LIST OF TABLES

Table1. Faculty Perceptions of Positive Aspects of Online Teaching: A Sample of Faculty Voices	149
Table 2. Faculty Perceptions of Negative Aspects of Online Teaching: A Sample of Faculty Voices	149
Table 3. Interview Protocol.....	190
Table 4. Description of Participants.....	194

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Sense of Agency: Constraining and growth enhancing factors	181
Figure 2. Sense of Relatedness: Constraining and growth enhancing factors	182
Figure 3. Sense of Change: Constraining and growth enhancing factors	183

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

Based on hundreds of interviews with faculty and reviews of over 1000 articles about academic life, O'Meara, Neumann, and Terosky (2008) concluded that there are two narratives, or main stories, running through the higher education literature. The first, a narrative of constraint, calls attention to the problems and stresses faculty face, such as increasing pressure to publish, serve more students, or accomplish more with fewer resources. The second, a narrative of faculty growth, highlights faculty's potential for overcoming obstacles, taking on new challenges, and deriving satisfaction from their work in light of these constraints. O'Meara and colleagues (2008) pointed out that the two narratives are interrelated -- the obstacles presented by the constraints serve as challenges for faculty to overcome, thereby highlighting their capacity for professional growth. O'Meara and colleagues (2008) asserted that the narrative of constraint frames the bulk of the higher education literature; they challenged scholars to consider adopting a narrative of faculty growth as a lens through which to analyze faculty work in order to uncover opportunities for faculty professional growth. This study was a response to that challenge.

In this study, I interviewed 19 early middle, middle, and senior career tenured and non-tenure-track full-time faculty members who taught at least two fully online courses to examine their perceptions of the impact of online teaching on specific aspects of their work lives. For the purposes of this study, online teaching was defined simply as "instruction through a connection to a computer system at a venue distant from the learner's personal computer" (University of Illinois Faculty Seminar, 1999, as cited in Larreamendy-Joerns & Leinhardt, 2006, p. 568). Online teaching, in this study, referred to courses taught entirely online by faculty. To bound the scope of the study, hybrid or blended courses, those that are taught online and face-to-face, were not discussed.

While there is a large body of research (e.g., Chen, 2009; Lloyd, Byrne & McKoy, 2012; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008) that examines the barriers that discourage faculty from teaching online, less is known about how teaching online might enhance faculty work and might serve as an opportunity for professional growth. Findings about the impact of online teaching on specific elements of early middle, middle, and senior career faculty members' work lives may shed light on how higher education leaders can better support faculty who teach online, attract more faculty to online teaching, and showcase the positive aspects of online teaching.

In order to frame the study, in this chapter I will provide a background on online teaching as a trend in higher education, provide examples of some of the barriers to online teaching, and introduce key elements of faculty work that contribute to faculty satisfaction, productivity, and commitment (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007). Findings from this study will also contribute to the literature by highlighting the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work across full-time tenured and full-time non-tenured appointment type, and across the early middle, middle, and senior portion of the faculty career.

Online Teaching: A Trend In Higher Education

The increased use of technology has resulted in large scale change throughout the academy, reshaping how faculty go about teaching, research, and service (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006, 2007). Schuster & Finkelstein (2006) contend that the pace with which technology has infiltrated the academy "has translated into an era of change for the American faculty that is arguably unprecedented at least since the last quarter of the nineteenth century, and in some respects ever since the origins of higher education as we know it" (p. 39). These technological changes have resulted in an ongoing, national conversation about how technology is affecting the academy.

For example, between 2005-2014, Allen and Seaman, in partnership with the SLOAN Consortium, conducted a series of national surveys about online education with samples of 3000-4000 faculty and chief academic officers. Among their findings were three salient themes. First, since the early 2000s, the number of students signing up for online classes has surpassed the total number of students signing up for face-to-face classes. Second, faculty members have demonstrated mixed reactions to online education, with the majority pessimistic about it. Third, there have been concerns among chief academic officers about having a pool of faculty who are interested and prepared to teach online. The annual publication of these reports illustrates the way in which online teaching has become a popular research topic over the last several decades.

The annual publication of these reports also reflects the increased expectation that faculty deliver courses online (Bacow, Bowen, Guthrie, Lack, & Long, 2012; Conceicao, 2010). Based on data from interviews with senior academic leaders at over 25 different types of higher education institutions, Bacow and colleagues (2012) concluded that there were several reasons that higher education institutions opt to offer online courses. Among these were financial gain, offering access to students who otherwise would not be able to receive an education, and solving problems that have arisen from lack of physical space within which to offer classes. In addition, several researchers (e.g., Allen & Seaman, 2013; Bacow et al., 2012) have identified online learning as part of higher education institutions' strategic plan. Bacow and colleagues (2012) argued that "virtually every institution" (p. 16) was taking steps to methodically increase the number of online courses available to students.

Since the late 1990s, scholars and practitioners have been investigating digitally mediated teaching: teaching that involves using elements of technology such as computers, television, and radio to deliver some or all of the class. The majority of this research has focused on policy

making around distance education and issues related to student success in digitally mediated teaching (Curran, 2008; Major, 2010). While this research is certainly important, it provides little information on the experience of faculty who teach these digitally mediated courses.

This study contributes to a small body of scholarship about faculty's experiences teaching online. This scholarship includes the impact of online teaching on faculty's pedagogical practices (e.g., Bailey & Card, 2009; Koehler & Mishra, 2006), faculty's motivation and attitudes about online teaching (e.g., Chapman, 2011; Green, Alejandro, & Brown, 2009; Shea, 2007) and a very small body of research about online teaching and faculty career stages (e.g., Rahman, 2001; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007). Recently, several scholars (e.g., Glass, 2012; Green et al., 2009) have suggested that online teaching may be used to foster faculty professional growth. For example, Glass (2012), based on data from a study of 16 faculty members at a research university who won awards for their digitally-mediated courses, suggested that online teaching results in faculty's increased engagement with their work and in learning about new aspects of their personal and professional identities.

While Glass's (2012) findings show that there are beneficial aspects of teaching online, there is a large body of literature about the barriers that discourage faculty from teaching online (e.g., Chen, 2009; Lloyd et al., 2012; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008), suggesting faculty are resistant to teaching online. Faculty resistance to online teaching does not bode well for the future of online learning, universities' need to accommodate students' demand for online courses (Allen & Seaman, 2010; Orr, Williams, & Pennington, 2009; Shea, 2007), and the quality of online courses (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Wasilik & Bolliger, 2009).

Faculty's Resistance To Online Teaching

Data from national studies has revealed faculty's resistance to online teaching. For example, among a nationally representative sample of 4,564 faculty members across a range of higher education institutions, survey responses revealed that the majority of faculty (58%) were "more pessimistic than optimistic about online learning" (Allen & Seaman, 2012, p. 2). In a later study, Allen and Seaman (2013) found that despite the fact that roughly one-third of faculty teach at least one online class, survey data collected from chief academic officers at over 2,800 higher education institutions revealed that "the continued resistance of many faculty members" (p. 27) to online teaching was an ongoing challenge for universities.

Findings from multiple studies (e.g., Chen, 2009; Lloyd et al., 2012; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008) have demonstrated that there are four main barriers that contribute to faculty's resistance online teaching. These barriers are similar across appointment types, disciplines, and institutions and among faculty with varied levels of experience teaching online. First, faculty members are wary about the heavy time investment and heavy workload (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Chen, 2009; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Shea, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). Second, faculty are concerned about the reliability of the technology required to teach online (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Johnsrud, Harada, & Tabata, 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). Third, faculty members do not think that there is adequate institutional support for online teaching (Lloyd et al., 2012; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Maguire, 2005; Orr et al., 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). Fourth, faculty members do not think that the training they receive to support their online teaching is adequate (Baran & Thompson, 2011; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Kyei-Blankson, 2009;

Lane, 2013; McQuiggan, 2012; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Rovai, 2010).

To help faculty overcome the barriers that discourage them from teaching online, understanding the barriers is certainly important. But, the body of literature on these barriers reflects a narrative of constraint (O'Meara et al., 2008) and may perpetuate faculty's resistance to online teaching. I argue that while being mindful of the barriers, it may be possible to uncover aspects of online teaching that reflect a narrative of faculty growth.

Key Elements of Faculty Work

Based on extensive reviews of the literature on faculty, interviews with faculty and administrators, and their own experiences as faculty and administrators in the academy, several teams of researchers (e.g., Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008) have suggested that there are key elements in academic work that are particularly important in contributing to faculty's satisfaction, productivity, commitment, and professional growth. Some of these elements include flexibility and balance; autonomy and academic freedom; agency; professional relationships; and professional growth. Each of these elements will be defined in the conceptual framework section.

Each of these elements represents positive features of faculty work and supports a narrative of faculty growth. But, little is known about the impact of online teaching on each of these elements of faculty work. Given that online teaching is a trend in higher education, faculty are resistant to online teaching (Allen & Seaman, 2013), and the bulk of the literature focuses on factors that discourage faculty from teaching online, it is important to understand how faculty perceive the impact of online teaching on each of these key elements of work.

Online Teaching Across the Career and Across Appointment Type

One of the limitations to the literature about faculty's experiences teaching online is that the bulk of it focuses on faculty at large. Without insight into the impact of online teaching on faculty work based on appointment type and career phase, it is difficult to design strategies to support faculty. Therefore, this study focused on tenured and non-tenure-track full-time early middle, middle, and senior career faculty members.

There are several reasons why this study is about full-time tenured and non-tenure-track faculty. First, the Key Elements of Faculty Work conceptual framework was developed as an approach to supporting faculty with appointment types on and off the tenure-track (Gappa et al., 2007). Given that the Key Elements are relevant for both groups of faculty and that both tenured and full-time non-tenure-track faculty teach online, it makes sense to explore the impact of online teaching on key elements of the work of faculty with both of these appointment types.

Second, faculty appointment patterns in higher education are changing. Currently, "more than half of all instructional staff in higher education hold contingent (temporary) appointments (AAUP, 2010; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006; Umbach, 2007), either part-time or full-time, without eligibility for tenure" (as cited in Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011, p. 486). Given that non-tenure-track faculty are being hired in increasing numbers and are teaching online (Chapman, 2011), it makes sense to explore the impact of online teaching on key elements of the work of faculty with both of these appointment types.

There are several reasons why this study is about early middle, middle, and senior career faculty members. First, results of a survey of over 10,700 faculty members from over 69 colleges and universities revealed that it is most common for mid-career faculty to be teaching online or designing online courses (Seaman, 2009). Second, early middle, middle, and senior career

faculty members often take on leadership roles in the academy and are, therefore, in positions where they can influence their colleagues' attitudes toward online teaching (Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007). Third, early middle, middle, and senior career faculty are vulnerable to becoming disengaged in their work (Huston, Norman, Ambrose, 2007; Trower, 2011). In order to better support these groups of faculty, it is important to understand how online teaching impacts key elements of their work.

In conclusion, online teaching is a trend in higher education. The literature suggests that there are barriers that discourage faculty from teaching online and that some faculty members are resistant to online teaching. At the same time, research has suggested that there are key elements of work that contribute to faculty's productivity, satisfaction, and commitment (Gappa et al., 2007). But, no one has explored the implications of online teaching on each of these key elements. By understanding the impact of online teaching on these key elements during the early middle, middle and senior portions of the tenured and full-time non-tenure-track faculty career, it may be possible to uncover positive aspects of online teaching.

Research Questions

Here, I introduce the research questions that guided this study. The primary research question is: What is the impact of online teaching for the work lives of early middle, middle, and senior tenured and full-time non-tenure track faculty? To address the primary research question, I raise the following sub-questions.

What is the impact of online teaching on early middle, middle, and senior faculty members' perceptions of flexibility and balance in their work lives?

What is the impact of online teaching on early middle, middle, and senior faculty members' perceptions of autonomy and academic freedom and in their work lives?

What is the impact of online teaching on early middle, middle, and senior faculty members' perceptions of agency in their work lives?

What is the impact of online teaching on early middle, middle, and senior faculty members' perceptions of professional relationships in their work lives?

What is the impact of online teaching on early middle, middle, and senior faculty members' perceptions of opportunities for professional growth in their work lives?

Conceptual Frameworks

Three conceptual frameworks grounded this study: Herzberg's (1968, 1974) Motivation-Hygiene Theory, Gappa and her colleagues' (2007) Framework of Essential Elements, and O'Meara and her colleagues' (2008) Framework of Faculty Growth. What follows is a brief description of the relevance of these frameworks to this study.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

To explain employee job satisfaction, Herzberg (1968, 1974) identified two factors: hygienes and motivators. Hygienes include satisfaction with salary, supervision, relationships with colleagues, company policy, etc. -- extrinsic factors that may or may not be present in the job environment. Motivators include "achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement" (Herzberg, 1968, pp. 91-92), etc. -- internal factors that may or may not be present in the job content. To be satisfied with their jobs, Herzberg (1968, 1974) argued, employees must believe that there is an adequate amount of motivators. Adjusting the hygienes may contribute to satisfaction, but the hygienes alone are not a sufficient condition for job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1968, 1974).

Herzberg's (1968, 1974) motivation-hygiene theory suggests that it is possible to be frustrated with aspects of a job but still experience intrinsic rewards, such as professional growth

and achievement. What the theory contributed to this study is the notion that online teaching can simultaneously be frustrating and growth enhancing.

Framework of Essential Elements

Gappa and her colleagues (2007), based on empirical research, asserted that an ideal work environment consists of five essential elements, which are grounded in a culture of respect and cooperation between faculty and administrators. These five elements are: employment equity; flexibility and balance; academic freedom and autonomy; professional growth; and, professional relationships. Flexibility and balance refers to faculty's ability to maintain satisfying personal and professional lives. Autonomy and academic freedom refers to faculty's ability to maintain ownership and control over their work. Professional relationships refer to faculty's sense of being part of a professional network of colleagues that is supportive and inspiring. Professional growth refers to faculty's ability to develop new skills and derive meaning from their work (Gappa, et al., 2007). While important in ensuring a productive workplace, employment equity will not be discussed in this study.

Framework for Faculty Growth

O'Meara and colleagues (2008) elaborated on Gappa and colleagues' (2007) framework, but honed in on a specific dimension: professional growth. Asserting that the literature about faculty work was primarily negative, reflecting a narrative of constraint, O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) argued that beneath this narrative of constraint was a narrative of faculty growth that illustrates faculty's capacity to overcome challenges in the workplace. Professional growth, the foundation of the narrative of faculty growth, has four aspects: learning, agency, professional relationships, and commitment (O'Meara et al., 2008). Learning refers to measurable changes in faculty knowledge that enhance faculty work. Agency refers to faculty's

ability “to craft work lives that make distinct contributions to higher education and are personally meaningful” (p. 18). Professional relationships refer to meaningful and supportive relationships with colleagues (O’Meara et al., 2008). While commitment is an important feature of faculty professional growth, it will not be addressed in this study.

Gappa and colleagues’ (2007) Framework of Essential Elements and O’Meara and colleagues’ (2008) Framework for Faculty Growth each delineate important aspects of work that, if present, result in a greater chance that faculty will experience higher levels of satisfaction, productivity, commitment, and professional growth. For my study, these frameworks provided the variables I examined in terms of the implications of online teaching on faculty work lives. These variables were flexibility and balance; autonomy and academic freedom; agency; professional relationships; and, professional growth.

Significance

The findings from this study have potential significance for higher education institution leaders and faculty. What follows is a brief description of how each of these stakeholders might benefit from the findings.

From an economic and political standpoint, findings that reveal new ways to attract faculty to teach online would be significant. Higher education leaders have expressed anxiety about whether students’ demand for online classes will be met with an adequate supply of faculty to teach them (Orr et al., 2009; Shea, 2007). In addition, as students’ demand for online courses continues, higher education institutions need to be prepared to offer online classes to remain competitive with their peers (Bacow et al., 2012; Conceicao, 2010). Campus administrators have been asked to account for why faculty are not teaching online and findings from this study could shed light on how to structure online teaching opportunities in a way that appeals to faculty

(Glass, 2012). For example, if leaders at Research 1 universities have a sense of the types of opportunities for professional growth that faculty seek when faculty teach online, they may be able to showcase those opportunities and use them to encourage other faculty to teach online (Orr et al., 2009).

Along with being useful to institutional leaders, findings from this study will be useful to individual faculty members. First, this study is significant for faculty because gathering faculty's perspectives about their experiences teaching online makes it possible to raise the volume of faculty's voices in conversations about online teaching (Allen & Seaman, 2012; Glass, 2012). The majority of research about online teaching has focused on students (Allen & Seaman, 2012), but, without faculty, there would not be any online courses. Without faculty's voices in conversations about online learning, it is difficult to know how to make teaching online a more appealing aspect of faculty's work. Therefore, results of this study will be used to uncover positive aspects of online teaching.

Second, this study is significant for faculty because it used a narrative of faculty growth framework (O'Meara et al., 2008). Understanding faculty's perceptions of this form of academic work may shed light on how it has the potential to contribute to their professional growth and development (Glass, 2012). Using a narrative of faculty growth (O'Meara et al., 2008) may help illuminate these positive aspects of online teaching.

Third, this study is significant because it will shed light on whether the implications of online teaching on key elements of faculty work vary across the career and appointment type. Findings in this area may help universities better customize their support for faculty based on career stage.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented the rationale for the study: the need to supplement the research about the barriers faculty encounter when they teach online with a rigorous investigation of whether, alongside the barriers, there might be more positive aspects of this form of work that represent a narrative of growth. I provided a brief overview of online teaching as a trend in higher education and discussed faculty's resistance to this form of work. Then, I explained why early middle, middle, and senior tenured and non-tenure track faculty members are the focus of the study. I introduced Herzberg's (1974, 1987) Motivation-Hygiene Theory, Gappa et al.'s (2007) Framework of Essential Elements, and O'Meara et al.'s (2008) Framework for Faculty Growth, the conceptual framework for this study. Finally, I outlined the significance of the study.

In the next chapter, I will present an overview of the literature about the distinguishing features of non-tenure-track faculty work life; salient features of the early middle, middle and senior portion of the career; factors that motivate faculty to teach online; the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work, and the impact of online teaching on graduate students and early, middle, and senior career faculty members. Then, I will present a more detailed account of the conceptual framework

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The main focus of this study is the examination of the impact of online teaching on key elements of early middle, middle, and senior career tenured and non-tenure-track faculty's work lives. This section outlines relevant scholarly literature from areas such as teaching and learning, adult development theory, and psychology. A review of the literature suggests that there is scarce research about the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work that have been associated with positive outcomes. If online teaching enhances any of these positive dimensions of work, it may be possible to interest more faculty members in online teaching.

A review of the literature suggests that there is a dearth of information about how the nature of the online teaching experience changes across the middle and senior portion of the career. Given that many mid-career and senior faculty members teach online, understanding how the impact of online teaching varies across the middle and senior career is important. By exploring the impact of online teaching on the work lives of early middle, middle, and senior career faculty members, I hope to begin to fill this gap in the literature.

A review of the literature also suggests that there is scarce data about how the nature of the online teaching experience may differ based on full-time tenured or full-time non-tenure-track appointment status. Given that faculty with both appointment types teach online, gaining insight into these differences is important. By exploring the impact of online teaching on the work lives of full-time tenured and full-time non-tenure-track faculty members, I hope to begin to fill this gap in the literature.

In the first section of this review, I outline some of the distinguishing features of the work lives of non-tenure-track instructors, with a special focus on full-time non-tenure-track faculty. In the second section, I provide an overview of issues that are salient for faculty during the

middle and senior phase of the career. In the third section, I describe the incentives and barriers that are associated with full-time tenured and non-tenure-track faculty's motivations to teach online. In the fourth section, I return to some of the studies referenced in the prior section and incorporate additional studies to highlight findings about how teaching online may relate to key elements of faculty work associated with satisfaction, commitment, productivity, and professional growth. In the fifth section, I summarize the small body of literature about the factors that motivate and discourage graduate students, early career faculty, mid-career faculty, and senior career faculty from teaching online. In the sixth section, I provide a summary of how my study relates to each of these bodies of work. Finally, I outline the conceptual framework that guides the study.

Distinguishing Features of the Work Lives of Non-Tenure-Track Instructors

This section addresses some of the salient features of the work lives of non-tenure-track faculty members. A fundamental premise of the Key Elements Of Faculty Work conceptual framework (Gappa et al., 2007) is that the elements associated with increased satisfaction, commitment, and productivity are relevant and necessary in the work lives of faculty across all appointment types. But, there are some features of non-tenure-track instructors' work lives that may change how they experience these key elements and may change how they experience online teaching. Therefore, a brief overview of these features is relevant to understanding the context of the study.

A full review of the history of non-tenure-track instructors and their current working conditions is beyond the scope of this study. Instead, in this section I present some highlights from the literature about changing faculty appointment patterns (e.g., Baldwin & Chronister, 2001; Baldwin & Chronister, 2002; Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey, Staples, 2006; Gappa et al.,

2007; Kezar & Sam, 2010; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006; Umbach, 2007), unintended consequences of these changing appointment patterns (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Kezar & Sam, 2010, Street, Maisto, Merves, & Rhoades, 2012), the need for policies to support non-tenure-track instructors (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Kezar & Sam, 2010), and the role of non-tenure-track instructors in online teaching (Chapman, 2011; Chisholm 2006; Puzziferro & Shelton, 2005, 2009) that are relevant to understanding the context of this study. The literature reviewed here addresses themes relevant to both full-time and part-time non-tenure-track instructors because the majority of the literature did not distinguish between the two groups.

Changing appointment patterns. Several notable scholars on faculty work (e.g., Baldwin & Chronister, 2001; Baldwin & Chronister, 2002; Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey, Staples, 2006; Gappa et al., 2007; Kezar & Sam, 2010; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006; Umbach, 2007) have observed over the years that the composition of today's faculty has been changing dramatically. Throughout the course of the academic profession, the role of a faculty member has included a path, or track, to promotion and tenure. High performance generally results in promotion and then tenure (Bland et al., 2006). The tenure track provides faculty a certain level of stability and job security, and comes with expectations for fulfilling responsibilities in teaching, research, and service. The tenure-track faculty position, up until now, has been viewed as the "prototype of faculty positions" (Gappa & Austin, 2010, p. 4). However, while tenured and tenure-track faculty members used to be in the majority, they are not anymore (Kezar & Sam, 2010).

In the current higher education landscape, non-tenure-track instructor positions are the "most common appointment types, with 3 out of 4 being off the tenure track-part and full-time" (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006; Forrest, Cataldi & Blackburn, 2005, as cited in Kezar & Sam,

2010, p. 3). According to a publication by the American Association of University Professors (2005), the shrinking numbers of full-time tenure-track and tenured faculty members and the expanding numbers of non-tenure-track instructors “represents probably the single most significant development in higher education in the last two decades” (p. 25).

Non-tenure-track instructors are full-time and part-time instructors who do not qualify for the tenure review process. They may teach one or multiple courses and work at more than one campus. The roles and responsibilities of non-tenure-track instructors differ across institutions (Kezar & Sam, 2010). Bland and colleagues (2006) describe the “unbundling” of the traditional tenured-faculty role, which is resulting in non-tenure-track instructors often being hired to do either teaching, research, or service, but typically not necessarily all three.

There are some common underlying explanations for the increase in non-tenure-track positions (Bland et al., 2006; Kezar & Sam, 2010). It is cheaper and more flexible for universities to hire non-tenure-track instructors because they do not have to make the same contractual agreements with them as they do with tenured faculty. During a time when universities are under increased financial strain, saving money by paying instructors less is an attractive option (Baldwin & Chronister, 2002; Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Bland et al., 2006). Non-tenure-track instructors generally teach undergraduate students, freeing up tenure-track and tenured faculty to focus more heavily on their research (Bland et al., 2006). Since non-tenure-track instructors often work in the same field as they teach, students may benefit from taking courses with instructors who teach and work in the field at the same time (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011). While this is not an exhaustive account of the explanations for why universities are hiring non-tenure-track instructors, this account does shed some light on why

most higher education institutions are making use of non-tenure-track instructors (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Kezar & Sam, 2010).

Unintended consequences of changing appointment patterns. However, along with the anticipated benefits of hiring non-tenure-track instructors, universities have experienced some unintended consequences of this dramatic change in appointment patterns (Kezar & Sam, 2010). Chapman (2011) describes non-tenure-track instructors as the “underclass of faculty” (p. 2), and echoes other scholars who have talked about the lower salaries and higher levels of attrition among non-tenure instructors (e.g., Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Kezar & Sam, 2010). Many non-tenure-track instructors, particularly those who are part-time, are dissatisfied with their working conditions (American Federation of Teachers, 2010). In addition, non-tenure-track instructors frequently lack access to professional development opportunities (Kezar & Sam, 2010; Sorcinelli & Austin, 2006), or are excluded from university governance (Kezar & Sam, 2010). Finally, non-tenure-track instructors lack job security (American Federation of Teachers, 2010), and are often told which classes they are going to teach at the last minute (Street et al., 2012).

Need for policies to support non-tenure-track instructors. Given these unintended consequences, the continuously growing numbers of non-tenure-track instructors, and the uncertainty about how the non-tenure-track career will continue to unfold, having mechanisms to support them is critical if universities want them to be successful (Kezar & Sam, 2010). In order to design strategies and policies to support non-tenure track faculty Kezar and Sam (2010) argue, universities need to be informed about the perceptions non-tenure-track instructors have about their work lives. My study will help to shed light on how to support non-tenure-track instructors and will offer insight into their experiences.

Non-tenure-track instructors also warrant the attention of policy makers because they play a large role in student success (Kezar & Sam, 2010; Umbach, 2007). Non-tenure-track instructors teach one-third to one-half of for-credit courses (Puzziferro-Schnitzer, 2005). With this teaching load, non-tenure-track instructors teach large numbers of undergraduate students and play a vital role in determining the quality of undergraduate student education (Kezar & Sam, 2010).

Role of non-tenure-track instructors in online teaching. Much of the literature about online education and non-tenure-track instructors is about part-time instructors (e.g., Bedford, 2009; Lamer, 2009; Puzziferro & Shelton, 2005, 2009; Tipple, 2010). However, both full-time and part-time non-tenure-track instructors are brought in by universities to teach online (Chapman, 2011). The increased number of non-tenure-track instructors being hired and the increased number of online courses being offered are co-occurring events (Chapman, 2011; Tipple, 2010). To meet students' demands for online courses, universities are hiring part-time and full-time non-tenure-track instructors to teach them. As the number of online courses being offered grows, this trend will likely continue (Chapman, 2011; Tipple, 2010).

Chisholm (2006) argues that the most significant differentiating factor between tenured and tenure-track faculty and non-tenure-track instructors is not tenure status but, rather, "our association with pedagogical technology, especially online instruction, [which] divides us to an even greater degree" (p. 39). Chisholm (2006) also argues that non-tenure-track instructors teach online more often than their tenured colleagues. On the other hand, Mayadas and colleagues (2011) contend that tenure-track and tenured faculty teach online in equal proportion to their non-tenure-track colleagues.

Betts and Sikorski (2008) voiced concerns about the retention of tenured and non-tenured full and part-time instructors who teach online. They pointed out that online faculty turn-over is expensive for institutions, resulting in wasted human and financial resources that could be used to hire instructors and prepare them to teach online. In addition to concerns about turn-over (Betts & Sikorski, 2008), the length of appointment time of non-tenure-track instructors may be shorter. A shorter appointment time could have possible implications for sustaining online education and having a core group of skilled non-tenure-track instructors to teach online (Chapman, 2011).

Summary. Many notable scholars who write about faculty work life (e.g., Baldwin & Chronister, 2001; Baldwin & Chronister, 2002; Bland et al., 2006; Gappa et al., 2007; Kezar & Sam, 2010; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006; Umbach, 2007) have noted that over the years, higher education institutions have begun to hire large numbers of non-tenure-track instructors. There have been some benefits from this decision, but there have also been some negative unintended consequences (Baldwin & Wawrzynski, 2011; Bland et al., 2006; Chapman, 2011; Kezar & Sam, 2010). More research is needed to make decisions about the sorts of policies that would best support non-tenure-track instructors (Kezar & Sam, 2010). Along with teaching a large number of face-to-face undergraduate courses (Kezar & Sam, 2010; Puzziferro & Shelton, 2005), non-tenure-track instructors also teach online (Chapman, 2011).

Gappa and Austin (2010) maintain that universities need to be mindful of how to preserve key elements of academic work for faculty across all appointment types. As the growth of online education and the hiring of non-tenure-track instructors are occurring simultaneously (Chapman, 2011; Tipple, 2010), it is important to understand the impact of online teaching on key elements of the work of non-tenure-track instructors. Also, given some of the features of their work lives

that distinguish them from their full-time tenured and tenure-track colleagues, one might expect that the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life might vary based on appointment type. Findings from this study will help shed light on this issue.

Faculty Concerns Across the Middle and Senior Phase of the Career

In this section I highlight some of the common themes that emerge among faculty members during the middle and senior portions of the career. Since this study focuses on the online teaching experiences of middle and senior career faculty members, it is important to understand some of the features of this portion of the career. One of the limitations of this literature is that it tends to be focused only on tenured faculty members. Therefore, the findings from this literature may or may not be applicable to full-time non-tenure-track faculty.

From the literature, several themes emerged about the middle and senior phases of the faculty career. First, data from several studies (e.g., Huston, Norman, & Ambrose, 2007; Trower, 2011; Wilson, 2012) revealed that there were high levels of disengagement and dissatisfaction among tenured faculty at this stage of the career, particularly among associate professors. Data about faculty discontentment raise troubling questions for the well-being of the academy (Huston et al., 2007; Trower, 2011). Second, the middle phase of the career has received a lot less attention than the junior or senior phase (Baldwin et al., 2008; Baldwin, Lunceford, & Vanderlinden, 2005). Third, several researchers (e.g. Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Baldwin et al., 2008; Romano, Hoelsing, O'Donovan, & Weinsheimer, 2004) have suggested that there is a need for increased professional development opportunities for associate professors.

High levels of disengagement. Data from several studies (e.g. Huston et al., 2007; Trower, 2011) revealed high levels of frustration and dissatisfaction among associate and full professors. For example, Huston and her colleagues (2007) interviewed 42 senior tenured faculty

members at a mid-sized private research university. Despite their ongoing significant contributions to the academy in the form of research, teaching, and service, these faculty members were disengaged. Huston and her colleagues (2007) described disengagement as “withdrawal from “(a) intellectual exchange... (b) decision making processes... (c) departmental social activity, and (d)... from mentoring relationships (or giving cynical advice to junior faculty)” (p. 496). Huston and her colleagues (2007) were surprised by these seemingly contradictory findings; regardless of their engagement, these faculty members were still productive.

In a later study, Trower (2011) gathered data from 1,775 tenured associate and full professors at seven public research universities. Data showed many faculty respondents were “frustrated about leadership turnover and the corresponding shifts in mission, focus, and priorities, and also about salary” (p. 1), along with support for teaching and interdisciplinary research. Though the data suggested that both groups were unhappy, Trower (2011) found that associate professors were unhappier than full professors. In response to a question about whether they would still decide to pursue academic careers if they could make the decision over again, the majority of the associate and full professors (84% and 89%, respectively) indicated that they would still pursue faculty careers. Trower (2011) found that the differences in these percentages were statistically significant, suggesting higher levels of dissatisfaction among associate professors.

A larger study conducted by the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education (COACHE) in 2010-2011 (Wilson, 2012) mirrored Trower’s (2011) findings. COACHE researchers, based on national data from 13,510 professors at 56 colleges and universities, found that associate professors had significantly lower levels of satisfaction than their assistant or full

professor colleagues. Based on the findings from the COACHE survey, Wilson (2012) argued, “many associate professors across the country...are now struggling through the long years of mid-career, which can be marked by exhaustion, doubt, and even depression” (para. 4). These negative emotional states often lead to drops in productivity and periods of stagnation and confusion (Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Baldwin et al, 2005; Blanchard, 2012; Huston, et al., 2007; Karpiak, 1997; Trower, 2011; Wilson, 2012).

Post-tenure depression. In their articles in *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, Douglas and George (2003) and Blanchard (2012) argued that post-tenure depression, experienced by many mid-career faculty members, was similar to a midlife crisis. Blanchard (2012) explained that during the post-tenure depression, work may start to feel pointless, and faculty may become irritable. During post-tenure depression, job security, while positive, also causes some mid-career faculty to feel trapped. As part of post-tenure depression, some mid-career faculty may experience disillusionment as the positive attention they are used to receiving for their academic accolades subsides, and the work loses its sparkle (Blanchard, 2012). Associate or full professors with these feelings of unhappiness and dissatisfaction have been described as “stuck” (Kanter, 1979, as cited in Huston et al., 2007, p. 497). Faculty members who are stuck tend to work less and devote less time to their teaching (Huston et al., 2007).

Based on their empirical findings about high levels of dissatisfaction among associate and full professors, Huston and colleagues (2007) and Trower (2011) raised concerns about the troubling implications of dissatisfaction among associate and full professors. High levels of disengagement among associate and full professors (Huston et al., 2007; Trower, 2011) coupled by the possibility of post-tenure depression (Blanchard, 2012; Douglas & George, 2003) do not bode well for the academy. Huston and her colleagues (2007) contended that disengagement “has

ripple effects throughout the university community” (p. 497). For example, leaving the field of higher education is a real possibility when associate professors are dissatisfied (Huston et al., 2007; Trower, 2011).

For those who do not leave, their unhappiness may spread among their colleagues, undermining productivity, collegiality, and student success. The potential for spreading their unhappiness is particularly troubling because senior faculty members tend to work longer than they used to. Given the robust amount of resources institutions dedicate to associate and full professors, particularly those who are tenured, dissatisfaction among these groups of faculty can result in university’s wasted human and financial resources (Huston et al., 2007; Trower, 2011).

Lack of attention to the middle career period. While there are a number of studies about mid-career faculty, they have not received as much attention in the literature as their early and senior career colleagues (Baldwin et al., 2005). Regarding mid-career faculty, Baldwin and his colleagues (2005) argued that “Basically, the largest and most important component of the academic profession has been ignored by both scholars and policymakers” (p. 97). Neglect of mid-career faculty is troubling because of the important role they play in the academy and because mid-career is the lengthiest period of the academic career, with most faculty members spending between 15-25 years in this phase (Baldwin et al., 2008; Baldwin et al., 2005).

Because of the lack of literature on mid-career faculty, several scholars who wrote about mid-career faculty (Baldwin et al., 2008; Baldwin et al., 2005; Karpiak, 1997) turned to the literature on adult development theory to illuminate the developmental processes people go through in midlife. Adult development theorists (e.g. Levinson, 1986, 1996; Hall, 1986) depicted midlife as a time for adults to assess their satisfaction with the direction of their lives and decide whether to make changes. They described midlife as a somewhat tumultuous and rich time,

characterized by alternating phases of stability and predictability and transition and uncertainty (as cited in Baldwin et al., 2005). Since the middle portion of life tends to be unpredictable, it follows that “the middle adult years, where most academics spend mid-career, would be fluid and complicated, potentially impacting quality of work” (Baldwin et al., 2005, p. 99). The findings across this body of literature, published in refereed journals and *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, were remarkably consistent.

Need for professional development for associate professors. Mid-career faculty are often saddled with heavy service and administrative obligations, including leadership roles for which they may be unprepared or unsupported (Austin, 2010; Baldwin et al., 2008). Wilson (2012) echoed these observations, arguing “once a professor earns tenure, that guidance disappears, the amount of committee work piles on, and associate professors are often left to figure out how to manage the varying demands of the job...on their own” (para. 3). Several researchers (e.g. Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Baldwin et al. 2008; Romano, et al., 2004) found that mid-career faculty wanted more professional development to help them prepare for and transition into leadership roles.

For example, Romano and his colleagues (2004) examined the experiences of sixty faculty members who participated in a Mid-Career Teaching Program at the University of Minnesota. This program was created to help mid-career faculty remain engaged with teaching, attuned to their students’ needs, and abreast of current teaching practices. Based on their findings, Romano et al. (2004) concluded that opportunities for mid-career faculty to discuss their teaching practices in this program re-energized them and rekindled their excitement about teaching. Based on their research, Romano and colleagues (2004) concluded that many mid-career faculty members did not feel these professional development opportunities were available.

Later researchers echoed Romano and colleagues' (2004) conclusions (e.g. Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Baldwin et al., 2008).

Summary. A review of the literature about mid-career and senior career faculty members revealed: (a) high levels of disengagement among middle and senior career faculty (Huston et al., 2007; Trower, 2011); (b) mid-career faculty have been somewhat neglected in the literature (Baldwin et al., 2008; Baldwin et al., 2005); and (c) mid-career faculty are in need of professional development opportunities (Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Baldwin et al., 2008; Romano et al., 2004). Given the disengagement of some associate and full processors (Huston et al., 2007; Trower, 2011), it is important to understand whether online teaching impacts key elements of faculty work by exacerbating this disengagement or abating it.

Factors that Influence Faculty's Motivation to Teach Online

This section addresses factors that influence faculty's motivation to teach online. Because this study explored the impact of online teaching on key elements of the work of tenured and non-tenure-track faculty, a literature review that distinguished between the incentives and barriers to online teaching based on appointment type would have been ideal. But, this type of review was not feasible because there was a dearth of literature that focused specifically on the online teaching experiences of full-time non-tenure-track instructors.

While a few researchers (e.g., Chapman, 2011; Green et al., 2009; Shea, 2007) did compare incentives and barriers based on appointment type, this was not the norm. Findings from these studies were highlighted in this literature review. The rest of the data cited were obtained from large, national quantitative studies (e.g., Allen & Seaman, 2009, 2011, 2012) or small qualitative studies (e.g., Glass, 2012; Meyer, 2012) with samples of faculty with different appointment types, from a variety of disciplines, and with varied amounts of online teaching

experience. Findings from these studies will also be reviewed here. In sum, studies cited in this portion of the literature review had samples of full-time and part-time non-tenure track instructors, and tenured and tenure-track faculty. Studies that focused solely on the online teaching experiences of part-time non-tenure-track faculty were excluded.

A review of these studies revealed several incentives for faculty to teach online. These incentives include: (a) increased access to education for students (Maguire, 2005; Major, 2010); (b) opportunities for learning and deeper levels of engagement with work (Conceicao, 2007; Glass, 2012; Green et al., 2009; Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Major, 2010; Meyer, 2012; Shea, Pickett, & Li, 2005); and (c) benefits such as increased salary or release time (Green et al., 2009; Maguire, 2005; Orr et al., 2009; Wolcott & Betts, 2007). This body of literature on incentives is quite small.

On the other hand, there is a robust body of literature that underscores several consistent barriers to online teaching including (a) increased time and heavier workload (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Chen, 2009; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Shea, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); (b) unstable technology (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); (c) lack of support (Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Maguire, 2005; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Orr et al., 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); and (d) lack of adequate training (Baran & Thompson, 2011; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Kyei-Blankson, 2009; Lane, 2013; McQuiggan, 2012; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Rovai, 2010). This literature includes multiple large and small-scale quantitative and qualitative studies and is a stream of research that dates back to the late 1990s.

Factors that encourage faculty to teach online. Based on literature reviews and empirical studies, there appear to be two main types of incentives for faculty to teach online: intrinsic and extrinsic. Examples of intrinsic incentives include peer collaboration, opportunities to learn more about teaching, and opportunities to engage in a stimulating form of work (Conceicao, 2007; Glass, 2012; Maguire, 2005; Meyer, 2012; Shea, 2007). Examples of extrinsic incentives include credit toward tenure and promotion, release time, and flexibility (Green et al., 2009; Maguire, 2005; Orr et al., 2009; Shea, 2007; Wolcott & Betts, 2007). Several researchers (e.g. Hiltz, Kim, & Shea, 2007; Maguire, 2005; Wolcott & Betts, 2007) have found that intrinsic incentives are more powerful motivators. What follows are findings that relate to each of these sets of incentives.

Intrinsic incentives. Several empirical studies (Conceicao, 2007; Glass, 2012; Green et al., 2009; Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Major, 2010; Meyer, 2012; Shea et al., 2005) showed that online teaching affords faculty the opportunity to learn new teaching practices and experiment with technology. For example, based on her qualitative synthesis of ten studies about faculty's experiences teaching online, Major (2010) concluded that many faculty experienced a "renewed appreciation of the complexity of teaching while working online...a sense of intellectual challenge" (p. 16). Paralleling these findings, Glass (2012), in his interviews with 16 faculty at a research university who had won awards for their online teaching, found that some faculty were able to engage with their work on deeper levels and welcomed the stimulating challenge of learning to teach online.

Chapman (2011) surveyed 142 faculty members at the same university, one-third of whom were part-time and full-time-tenure-track and two-thirds of who were tenured or tenure-track, who all taught at least one fully online course. The aim of Chapman's (2011) study was to

examine whether there were any differences in the incentives and barriers that prompted faculty with different appointment types to teach online. Electronic survey results indicated that among the most salient motivators were excitement about experimenting with technology, improved online teaching ability, and fulfillment. This finding was consistent across faculty with each appointment type (Chapman, 2011).

Similarly, Green and colleagues (2009) reported findings about barriers and incentives for online teaching based on appointment type. Full time non-tenure-track faculty members were motivated by similar factors as their tenured and tenure-track colleagues. Incentives included the ability to try new teaching strategies and engage in a form of work that may contribute to their professional growth. Incentives to teach on an ongoing basis included course design leadership roles, access to ongoing training, and financial and institutional support (Green et al., 2009).

Meyer (2012) interviewed 10 faculty members with experience in online teaching across nine states and 13 fields. She found that teaching online improved faculty's research productivity and broadened their research interests, as they often developed research questions based on their online teaching experiences. Finally, in their literature reviews about faculty's experiences teaching online, Maguire (2005) and Major (2010) found that the ability to provide increased access to education for students and to engage students in using technology functioned as intrinsic incentives.

Extrinsic incentives. Extrinsic incentives for online teaching include release time, flexibility, parking, adequate training, funding for professional development, and credit toward the tenure and promotion process (Green et al., 2009; Maguire, 2005; Orr et al., 2009; Shea, 2007; Wolcott & Betts, 2007). Researchers have suggested each of these extrinsic incentives serves as strategies to use to enhance faculty's motivation to teach online or to retain faculty who

are teaching online. For example, in their study on how to retain experienced faculty to teach online courses, Green and colleagues (2009) concluded, based on data from 135 faculty with a range of experience teaching online across different universities, that “Factors that most respondents stated would encourage them to continue teaching distance education courses are the following: continuous training provided by the university (73.33%), fair financial compensation in comparison to workload (72.59%), increased institutional support (71.85%)” (p. 7). These findings were similar across appointment type (Green et al., 2009). Similarly, survey data from 142 tenured, tenure-track, and non-tenure-track faculty members mirrored these results. Chapman (2011) found that flexibility and financial compensation were among the most salient motivators for faculty with each appointment type.

In summary, the literature showed that there are intrinsic and extrinsic motivators for online teaching. Regarding the intrinsic motivators, a caveat needs to be issued. Findings from studies such as Glass’s (2012) and Meyer’s (2012) that revealed that faculty found teaching online intellectually challenging were based on faculty who had won awards for their online courses or who had been teaching online for a number of years. These studies also used small samples.

Factors that discourage faculty from teaching online. A scan of some of the scholarly research about faculty’s experiences teaching online reveals titles such as *Faculty-Perceived Barriers of Online Education* (Lloyd et al., 2012) and *Financial Bottom Line: Estimating the Cost of Faculty/Adjunct Turnover and Attrition for Online Programs* (Betts & Sikorski, 2008). These titles suggest that there are many factors that serve as barriers to faculty who teach online or are considering online teaching. To determine how to retain faculty and enhance the online teaching experience, researchers (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Chen, 2009; Conceicao, 2006;

Green et al., 2009; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Maguire, 2005; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Orr et al., 2009; Shea, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008; Wolcott & Betts, 2007) have studied the factors that serve as barriers.

A majority of these studies were quantitative and were conducted across multi-campus systems, multiple campuses, or at single universities (research, urban, etc.), ranging from 75 (Lloyd et al., 2012) to 2048 (Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabatha & Johnsrud, 2008) participants. The studies included faculty with different appointment types, from different age groups, with a range of years of online teaching experience, and from different disciplinary backgrounds. The most common barriers cited across multiple studies were the (a) increased time and heavier workload (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Chen, 2009; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Shea, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); (b) unstable technology (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Johnsrud et al., 2006.; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); (c) lack of support (Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Maguire, 2005; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Orr et al, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); and (d) lack of adequate training (Baran & Thompson, 2011; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Kyei-Blankson, 2009; Lane, 2013; McQuiggan, 2012; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Rovai, 2010). What follows are some of the main themes related to each of these barriers.

Increased time and heavier workload. Several researchers (e.g. Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Orr et al., 2009; Shea, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008) found that some faculty did not think online teaching was a good use of their time. Data suggested that too much of faculty members' time was consumed by preparing to teach the course and helping students with technology during the course, taking time away from other responsibilities. For example, Tabata and Johnsrud (2008) found that time was a significant variable that influenced the

decisions of 2048 faculty members in a 10-campus public system to teach online. Paralleling these findings, survey data obtained from 75 faculty who taught online at a university in the southeast revealed that faculty frequently commented about the large amount of time it took to respond to student emails and respond to discussion posts online (Lloyd et al, 2012). These findings were echoed by other studies (e.g. Orr et al., 2009; Shea, 2007).

Related to faculty's complaints about the amount of time and work online teaching takes, several researchers (e.g. Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Chen, 2009) found that teaching online required more work than teaching face-to-face. For example, Chen (2009) analyzed a secondary public data set from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). The Postsecondary Quick Information System, a nationally representative survey of distance education conducted by NCES in 2000-2001, provided the variables for the study. Responses from 1485 institutions were analyzed. Among the 15 factors that prevented the institutions from using distance education, faculty's anxiety about workload was the most significant factor (Chen, 2009). Paralleling these findings, data from the Online Faculty Satisfaction Survey administered at a small research university to 135 faculty with between 0-10 years of online teaching experience revealed that more than one-half of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that teaching online required more work than teaching face to face (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009).

Unstable technology. Contributing to the increased time and heavier workload was unreliable technology (Bolliger & Wasilk, 2009; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). In the same study, using data from the Online Faculty Satisfaction Survey, Bolliger and Wasilik (2009) found that if faculty were expected to attend multiple trainings to learn how to use the technology required to teach online, or could not receive the help they needed with technology, they tended to be less satisfied

with online teaching. Paralleling these results, based on survey data they obtained from 75 faculty members with a range of experience teaching online at a university in the southeast, Lloyd and his colleagues (2012) concluded that technology that was not up to date deterred faculty from teaching online. In addition to reliable technology, faculty also needed more assistance with technology so that they were better able to provide assistance to their students (Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008).

Lack of adequate institutional support. The literature included anecdotal and empirical accounts of the type of support that was missing and the type of support that was suggested to motivate faculty to teach online (Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Maguire, 2005; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Orr et al, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). For example, based on survey data from 101 faculty members across universities in Texas, Oomen-Early & Murphy (2009) concluded that faculty would be more motivated to teach online if they received release time. Credit for online teaching, either toward the promotion and tenure process or just in general, was cited across multiple studies as a way for institutions to support faculty who teach online (Lloyd et al., 2012; Orr et al., 2009; Simpson, 2010; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). For example, among the significant variables that influenced the decision to teach online among 2048 faculty in a 10 campus public system was their perception of how the “institution values distance education” (Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008, p. 638).

Lack of adequate professional development. The literature on professional development for faculty who teach online is primarily anecdotal and is predominantly descriptive in nature (Glass, 2012). For example, Lane (2013) described the type of faculty development program that would be ideal to support faculty who teach online at one university. The literature (Baran & Thompson, 2011; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Kyei-Blankson, 2009; McQuiggan, 2012; Mishra &

Koehler, 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Rovai, 2010) also provides a series of critiques about professional development for faculty who teach online.

Among the critiques are that professional development should be ongoing and catered to faculty at different skill levels (Kyei-Blankson, 2009; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Rovai, 2010), professional development focuses too heavily on technology and not enough on pedagogy (Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Kyei-Blankson, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Rovai, 2010), and that universities are not making optimal use of professional development programs to prepare faculty to teach online (Baran & Thompson, 2011; McQuiggan, 2012; Rovai, 2010). For example, those who design professional development programs for faculty who teach online need to “explore transformative learning among faculty as a result of participation in professional development” (McQuiggan, 2012, p. 29) and use adult learning theory to design the programs (Baran & Thompson, 2011; McQuiggan, 2012; Rovai, 2010).

Summary. In summary, these pieces of literature demonstrate the factors that serve as incentives and barriers to online teaching. The main incentives are intrinsic, such as opportunities to learn more about teaching and technology (Glass, 2012; Major, 2010; Shea, 2007). The most common barriers cited across multiple studies were: the (a) increased time and heavier workload (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Chen, 2009; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Shea, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); (b) unstable technology (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); (c) lack of support (Johnsrud et al., 2006; Lloyd et al., 2012; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Maguire, 2005; Orr et al, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); and (d) lack of adequate training (Baran & Thompson, 2011; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Kyei-

Blankson, 2009; Lane, 2013; McQuiggan, 2012; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Rovai, 2010). Here are some conclusions about this literature.

First, the lack of qualitative studies is problematic because while quantitative studies provide some general information about incentives and barriers, they do not offer rich accounts of faculty experiences. Second, because the findings apply to such a broad group of faculty, it is difficult to offer strategic intervention to any specific group of faculty. Third, the body of literature about barriers is much more robust than the body of literature about incentives for online teaching, making it harder to attract faculty to online teaching. However, while being mindful of the barriers, one of the aims of my study is to draw more attention to the positive aspects of online teaching.

Key Elements of Faculty Work

This section is going to address faculty's perceptions of opportunities for flexibility and balance; academic freedom and autonomy; agency; community; and professional growth in online teaching. Research has suggested that these are key elements of faculty work that contribute to faculty satisfaction, productivity, commitment, and professional growth (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008). Balance and flexibility is faculty's capacity to manage their work in a way that supports optimal professional and personal effectiveness. Academic freedom and autonomy is faculty members' "right to make decisions autonomously about how to perform assignments" (Gappa et al., 2007, p. 140-141). Agency is faculty's ability "to craft work lives that make distinct contributions to higher education and are personally meaningful" (O'Meara et al., 2008, p. 18). Professional relationships are those that nurture and energize faculty. Professional growth is the chance for faculty to upgrade, expand, and enhance their knowledge and skills in a supportive and stimulating environment (Gappa et al. 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008).

These elements were defined based on Gappa and her colleagues' (2007) and O'Meara and her colleagues' (2008) extensive reviews of the literature on faculty work, conversations with faculty and administrators, and their own experiences working in the academy.

The types of studies reviewed here were similar to the studies reviewed in the prior section. Samples included part-time, full-time, tenured, and non-tenured faculty members from different disciplines with varying amounts of online teaching experience. Studies that focused explicitly on part-time instructors were excluded. Findings that compared differences in how the key elements were experienced among full-time tenured and tenure-track and full-time non-tenure-track faculty were highlighted.

A review of the literature revealed several themes about online teaching and key aspects of faculty work. First, there were positive and negative features associated with online teaching and flexibility and balance (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007). Second, faculty expressed concerns about autonomy, academic freedom, and online teaching (Bacow et al., 2012; Dykman & Davis, 2008; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). Third, online teaching may have influenced faculty members' sense of agency (Albion, 2001; Campbell, 2012; Ertmer, Gopalakrishnan, Sangeetha, & Ross, 2001; Garnes, 2005). Fourth, there were positive and negative features associated with online teaching and collegiality, community, and professional relationships (e.g. Chen, 2009; Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, & York, 2006; Green et al., 2009; Hiltz et. al, 2007; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Keengwe & Kyei-Blankson, 2010; Orr et al., 2009; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). Fifth, for some faculty, professional growth and learning were obvious intrinsic incentives to teach online, and for others professional growth was

an unexpected outcome of a challenging experience (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Glass, 2012; Green et al., 2009; Hoffman, 2013; Maguire, 2005; Shea, 2007; Shea et al., 2005).

Flexibility and balance. Results of several empirical studies revealed that flexibility functioned as a primary motivator for faculty to teach online (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007). For example, Shea (2007) gathered survey and focus group data about the pros and cons of online teaching from 386 faculty members in the State University of New York system that taught online for a variety of years. He found that flexibility was the most popular motivator for teaching online and had the potential to continue to attract other faculty to teach online. Shea (2007) analyzed findings based on appointment type and concluded that for full-time and part-time non-tenured faculty, flexibility is particularly appealing, more so than for their tenured colleagues. Perhaps this is because non-tenure-track instructors may hold multiple jobs (Kezar & Sam, 2010). Shea (2007) recommended showcasing the flexibility afforded by online teaching, making sure that faculty are aware that they may have enhanced autonomy over their work lives because of the flexibility of online teaching.

While several researchers cited the beneficial aspects of flexibility associated with online teaching (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007), researchers also cited some disadvantages of the flexibility afforded by online teaching (e.g. Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Shea, 2007). For example, in the same study cited above, Shea (2007) urged institutional leaders to be cautious that faculty did not teach online solely for the “flexibility and convenience” (p. 82) and that the caliber of classes offered to students was not inferior to face-to-face classes. In a later study, Heijstra & Rafnsdottir (2010) interviewed 20 faculty members in Iceland and found that the majority of participants did not

feel that teaching online had enabled them to have a better time balancing work and family. On the contrary, because of the flexibility and accessibility of the Internet, faculty experienced an increased sense of pressure to be online, responding to emails and answering students' questions (Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010).

Gappa and her colleagues (2007) identified the importance of flexibility and balance as a key aspect of faculty work. A number of researchers (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007) echoed these findings and underscored the way in which faculty members appreciated the flexibility associated with online teaching. At the same time, researchers (Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Shea, 2007) had some concerns about disadvantages of flexibility. In my study, I had similar findings about the advantages and disadvantages of flexibility.

Academic freedom and autonomy. Results of several empirical studies (Bacow et al., 2012; Dykman & Davis, 2008; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008) about the factors that influence faculty's decision to teach online revealed that: (a) faculty expressed concerns about maintaining a sense of autonomy and privacy in their work, and (b) faculty expressed concerns about increased public scrutiny and copyright protection.

Online teaching, for some faculty, was associated with a decreased sense of autonomy and privacy. For example, based on survey responses of 2048 University of Hawaii System faculty, 40% of whom had taught online and 60% who had not, Johnsrud et al. (2006) and Tabata and Johnsrud (2008) concluded that the greater the tendency for participants to perceive online teaching as voluntary, the lower the tendency to participate. In trying to make sense of these findings, Tabata & Johnsrud (2008) surmised that faculty members might feel resentful if they

sensed that the administration was trying to manage their work by requiring them to teach online, detracting from their sense of autonomy.

Paralleling Tabata and Johnsrud's (2008) findings, data from interviews with senior academic leaders at over 25 institutions revealed that some faculty members were displeased about increased public scrutiny of their courses (Bacow et al., 2012). Most faculty members do not have many colleagues visiting them when they teach face-to-face and appreciate the privacy. On the other hand, when their classes are online multiple people can log in and see what they are doing (Bacow et al., 2012; Dykman & Davis, 2008).

This same data from interviews with senior academic leaders also revealed the copyright struggles over online courses (Bacow et al., 2012). For example, several of the senior academic leaders reported that some universities were reserving the opportunity to use any online course content designed by faculty and denying faculty the ability to copyright their courses. Based on these findings, Bacow et al. (2012) concluded "An uncertain intellectual property landscape for content developed for delivery online may also discourage wider development and adoption of sophisticated online courses" (p. 22). Concerns about intellectual property rights will continue to present ongoing challenges for universities (Bacow et al., 2012; Johnsrud et al., 2006), despite prior recommendations that higher education institutions devise and implement clear policies regarding who owns course materials developed for online courses (Johnsrud et al., 2006).

Gappa and colleagues (2007) identified the value and importance of academic freedom and autonomy as a key aspect of faculty work. However, faculty's concerns about preserving autonomy and privacy in their work and struggles over copyright (Bacow et al., 2012; Dykman & Davis, 2008; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008) indicate that some faculty feel

that their autonomy and academic freedom are undermined when they teach online. I found similar results in my study.

Agency. O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) pointed out that there is some overlap between agency and Gappa and her colleagues' (2007) discussion of autonomy and academic freedom. However, O'Meara and her colleagues argue that there are distinct features of agency, such as faculty's capacity to navigate through the structure of the university, that deserve attention. Because of the distinction O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) made with respect to agency versus academic freedom and autonomy, I am including a brief review of the literature on online teaching and faculty agency.

There is a dearth of literature on faculty's experiences teaching online and sense of agency. Campbell (2012) argued that the way technology has changed faculty work may impact faculty's sense of agency, but this was not a common line of inquiry. Several researchers (e.g. Albion, 2001; Campbell, 2012; Ertmer et al., 2001; Garnes, 2005) referenced technology in their research about agency and self-efficacy. These researchers argued that agency, which is related to self-efficacy, might influence faculty's attitudes toward using technology.

In a dissertation on organizational variables that impact faculty sense of agency, Campbell (2012) summarized sociological and psychological perspectives on agency. Campbell (2012) presented a vignette of a faculty member whose experience was meant to be representative of many of her colleagues. This faculty member, Campbell (2012) wrote, "felt disconnected from her students and less adequate as a teacher because she was not fluent in the newest classroom technologies" (p. 9). Campbell (2012) used this vignette to illustrate how technology was impacting faculty's work and to illustrate a sociological perspective on agency.

A psychological perspective on agency considers how people's beliefs about whether or not they can accomplish a goal (self-efficacy) are related to the sense of control they have over their behavior (Bandura, 1982, as cited in Campbell, 2012). Researchers (e.g. Albion, 2001; Ertmer et al., 2001; Garnes, 2005) who wrote about faculty's self-efficacy in using technology, whether it was faculty's sense of their proficiency with computers or their sense of their ability to integrate technology into their teaching, are referencing a psychological perspective on agency.

O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) identified agency as an important component of professional growth. However, there is a dearth of literature on faculty agency and online teaching. Results of my study fill some of this gap in the literature by examining the implication of online teaching on faculty's sense of agency.

Professional relationships. Findings from qualitative and quantitative studies (e.g. Chen, 2009; Ertmer, 2006; Green et al., 2009; Keengwe & Kyei-Blankson, 2010; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007) revealed that faculty had mixed reactions about professional relationships formed as a result of teaching online. Some of these researchers found that faculty desired community in the form of mentoring, peer support, and collaboration. On the other hand, some faculty did not wish to discuss online teaching with their colleagues or use online teaching to form new professional relationships (e.g. Hiltz et. al, 2007; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Orr et al., 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008).

Several researchers found that since many faculty were either dissatisfied with the training they received to teach online, did not receive training to teach online, or did not know who else was teaching online, they desired opportunities to share ideas about online teaching with their colleagues in a supportive environment (Chen, 2009; Ertmer, 2006; Green et al., 2009; Keengwe, Kidd & Kyei-Blankson, 2010; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007). For example, based on survey

results from 135 faculty members who had experience teaching online, Green and his colleagues (2009) recommended that faculty were provided forums where they can discuss online teaching practices together. When faculty members were provided these types of opportunities, Green and his colleagues (2009) argued, they learned from each other. Paralleling these findings, participants in TEACHnology, a faculty development program designed to support senior faculty who were teaching online, benefitted from (a) discussing teaching with peers, (b) new collegial connections across the university that lasted after the program, (c) a supportive community, and (d) useful feedback from their colleagues (Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007).

On the other hand, several researchers found that faculty were disinterested in discussing their online teaching experiences with their peers (Hiltz et al., 2007; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Orr et al., 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). Based on survey responses of 2048 faculty members in the University of Hawaii campus system, Johnsrud et al. (2006) and Tabata and Johnsrud (2008) concluded that one of the variables associated with a decrease in faculty's likelihood to teach online was sharing experiences about online teaching. While this may sound counterintuitive, participants indicated that sharing results of online teaching with colleagues might not accomplish much, particularly if participants did not enjoy online teaching (Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). Similarly, findings from focus group meetings with faculty about their motivations for teaching online revealed that sharing their experiences often resulted in disapproval from their colleagues who doubted the quality of online classes (Hiltz et al., 2007).

Gappa and her colleagues (2007) and O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) identified the value and importance of professional relationships as a key aspect of faculty work. While some faculty desired and valued collegiality and community in online teaching (Chen, 2009; Ertmer et al., 2006; Green et al., 2009; Keengwe & Kyei-Blankson, 2010; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007), other

faculty did not wish to discuss online teaching with their colleagues (Hiltz et al., 2007; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Orr et al., 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008). In my study, I found that most faculty appreciated the opportunity to form new relationships with colleagues through online teaching.

Professional growth. Several researchers cited learning and professional growth as intrinsic motivators for online teaching (Green et al., 2009; Hoffman, 2013; Shea, 2007; Shea et al., 2005). At the same time, other researchers (e.g. Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Glass, 2012; Maguire, 2005) suggested that professional growth and learning were not necessarily salient motivators for online teaching, but occurred as a result of the online teaching experience. Finally, several researchers (Koehler & Mishra, 2005, 2009; Major, 2010; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Peruski & Mishra, 2004) argued that online teaching resulted in faculty rethinking their pedagogical strategies.

Professional growth and learning functioned as intrinsic motivators for faculty to teach online. For example, 386 faculty members from 36 colleges in the State University of New York System who had a range of years of experience teaching online participated in surveys and focus groups about the pros and cons of online teaching. About two-thirds were “more ‘mature’ faculty (those 45 or over) [who] were more motivated by opportunities to experiment with new pedagogy than were young faculty” (Shea, 2007, p. 78). Shea (2007) found that this group of faculty perceived experimenting with new pedagogies as an opportunity for professional growth. Mirroring these findings, among the 135 faculty from California State University, East Carolina University, and members of the Distance Education Online Symposium surveyed, data revealed that 70.9% found online teaching appealing because they thought it would be intellectually stimulating (Green et al., 2009)

On the other hand, some researchers (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Glass, 2012; Maguire, 2005) found that professional growth may have occurred as a result of online teaching, despite its challenges. For example, Glass (2012) interviewed 16 faculty members who won awards for online teaching at a research university. Data revealed that some faculty found the online teaching experience to be a welcomed challenge, and other faculty disliked teaching online but persisted anyway. Regardless of whether or not they enjoyed the online teaching experience, Glass (2012) argued that these faculty experienced professional growth by going through the process of learning how to teach online.

Finally, several researchers (Koehler & Mishra, 2005, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2006) concluded that learning how to integrate technology into teaching led faculty to rethink how they designed their online and face-to-face courses. These researchers' conclusions were based on their Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) Framework. The TPACK Framework represents teacher knowledge as a "complex web of relationships between content, pedagogy, and technology" (Koehler & Mishra, 2005, p. 134). To successfully integrate technology into their teaching, Koehler and Mishra (2005) argued, faculty needed to consider the relationships among each area. As faculty practiced TPACK, they began to rethink their teaching (Koehler & Mishra, 2005).

For example, survey data from four faculty who participated in a Learning by Design Course revealed that, prior to creating an online course, faculty viewed technology as a tool that would help them translate the content of their face-to-face courses to online courses. However, based on their participation in the course, data showed that faculty learned that "teaching online requires a changing of content and pedagogy. And that designing an online course is different

than designing a face to face course” (Koehler & Mishra, 2005, p. 144). These findings were consistent across a variety of studies (e.g. Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

Gappa and her colleagues (2007) and O’Meara and her colleagues (2008) discussed the value and importance of opportunities for learning and professional growth as key elements of faculty work. While the opportunity for learning and professional growth may be an intrinsic motivator for some faculty to teach online (Green et al., 2009; Hoffman, 2013; Shea, 2007; Shea et al., 2005), other faculty experienced professional growth as an outcome of online teaching, despite experiencing frustration (Bolliger & Wasilk, 2009; Glass, 2012; Maguire, 2005). Finally, several researchers found that online teaching prompted faculty to rethink their teaching (Koehler & Mishra, 2005, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Given that faculty have basic concerns when they teach online, such as how to manage the workload and cope with unreliable technology, in some ways it is surprising that professional growth and learning function as intrinsic motivators. However, in analyzing these findings, it is important to consider the level of experience of online teaching of the faculty who participated in the studies.

Summary. In summary, this research revealed that there were advantages and disadvantages of the flexibility and balance afforded by online teaching (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007); lack of clear policy on academic freedom and autonomy (Bacow et al., 2012; Dykman & Davis, 2008; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); lack of research about how online teaching impacts faculty’s agency (e.g. Albion, 2001; Campbell, 2012; Ertmer et al., 2001; Garnes, 2005); mixed responses regarding faculty’s experience of professional relationships; (e.g. Chen, 2009; Ertmer, 2006; Green et al., 2009; Hiltz et. al, 2007; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Keengwe & Kyei-Blankson, 2010; Orr et al., 2009; Shih & Sorcinelli,

2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); and that professional growth was an unintended consequence and intrinsic motivator for online teaching and resulted in some faculty rethinking their teaching (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Glass, 2012; Green et al., 2009; Hoffman, 2013; Koehler & Mishra, 2005, 2009; Maguire, 2005; Major, 2010; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Peruski & Mishra, 2004; Shea, 2007; Shea et al., 2005).

Online Teaching Across the Career

In the larger body of research on faculty work lives (e.g. Baldwin et al., 2005, 2006, 2008; Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008; Schuster & Finkelstein 2006, 2007), there is a relatively large stream of research about faculty career stage. This prior research has shown that faculty may have challenges, needs, and goals that may be unique to each career stage and similar across all career stages. Therefore, it is important to understand the impact of online teaching across each career stage in order to figure out how to support faculty.

However, based on a review of the literature about faculty's motivation to teach online, Giannoni and Tesone (2003) argued that researchers have not honed in on how these levels of motivation might change based on career stage. Other researchers writing around the same time echoed this critique (e.g., Giannoni, 2001; Rockwell, Schauer, & Marx, 1999). What follows is a brief overview of the small body of empirical research and literature reviews that either explicitly or partially discussed the impact of online teaching on the work lives of graduate students, early, middle and senior career faculty. Among each group of faculty, the need to be adept at online teaching was juxtaposed against the obstacles that prevent this from occurring. At every stage of the career, there were opportunities and challenges that accompanied online teaching.

Graduate students. Because the body of literature about how career stage shapes faculty's online teaching experience is relatively small, studies about the impact of online

teaching on the professional lives of graduate students who are aspiring to be faculty members are included in this section of the literature review. This is a small body of primarily qualitative research (e.g. Austin 2002, 2003; Austin & McDaniels, 2006), and the findings revealed that graduate students who were seeking careers as faculty members would benefit from more training in online teaching

For example, Austin (2002) conducted a four-year qualitative longitudinal study of 79 graduate students who were preparing for faculty careers in a variety of disciplines and working as teaching assistants. Austin (2002) found that when they suggested how to improve their graduate experience, “Graduate students did not usually mention...the likelihood of teaching with technology as areas in which they needed more information. These results indicate lack of awareness about these aspects of faculty work” (p. 112). However, Austin’s (2002) findings were troubling given that, in several articles about necessary skills for this generation of aspiring faculty, Austin (2002, 2003) and Austin & McDaniels (2006) identified proficiency with technology in teaching as a necessity for graduate students seeking faculty careers

In summary, there was scant research on the impact of online teaching on the professional lives of graduate students who are aspiring to be faculty members. The limited data from Austin’s (2002) study suggested that graduate students entering the academy were unprepared to use technology in their teaching. One would expect these future faculty members to encounter some of the barriers to online teaching cited in the literature, perpetuating a pattern of resistance to online teaching.

Early career faculty. Paralleling the literature on the impact of online teaching on aspiring faculty members’ work lives, the body of literature about the impact of online teaching on early career faculty was small. The few qualitative studies showed that early career faculty

had concerns about how online teaching would count toward the tenure and promotion process (Glass, 2012; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Simpson, 2010) and that extrinsic motivators were generally more powerful at attracting early career faculty to online teaching (Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Rahman, 2001).

Many early career faculty members had concerns about the impact of online teaching on the tenure and promotion process. For example, in a qualitative study designed to explore how faculty learn to teach online, Glass (2012) found that among the 16 participants, some were concerned about how the copious amounts of time they spent on their online classes interfered with other aspects of their work, such as research productivity, and whether or not they would be rewarded for online teaching during the tenure process. In a prior qualitative study of 29 faculty and administrators from various departments at the same institution, Simpson (2010) found, for the most part, the majority of junior faculty were “not encouraged to engage in distance education development and/or instruction” (p. 6) and reported confusion in the department regarding the role of distance education in the tenure and promotion process. Based on her findings, Simpson (2010) speculated that without credit toward the tenure and promotion process, there was no compelling reason for early career faculty to teach online.

Based on literature reviews and empirical findings, several researchers (e.g. Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Rahman, 2001) concluded that external motivators, such as credit for online teaching in the promotion and tenure process, were necessary to attract early career faculty to online teaching. However, Ruth (2006) contradicted these findings and found that one faculty member was motivated by the positive challenge of online teaching. Ruth (2006) provided an account of how an early career theological seminary faculty member’s learning to teach online resulted in more meaningful and competent teaching

In summary, findings from the relatively small body of research on early career faculty showed that they may be steered away from online teaching because of a focus on securing tenure (Glass, 2012; Simpson, 2010) and that the primary motivators for them to teach online were extrinsic (Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Rahman, 2001). Given these findings, one would expect mid-career faculty to be ill equipped to teach online.

Mid-career faculty. There was a dearth of empirical research on the impact of online teaching on mid-career faculty's work lives, with the exception of a literature review on how to support faculty across the career (Austin, 2010) and two empirical studies about how to support mid-career faculty (Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Baldwin et al., 2008) which both referenced online teaching.

Baldwin and Chang (2006) contended that it was important to understand how mid-career faculty made sense of changes brought forth by technology. Positioned to serve as mentors to their younger faculty colleagues, mid-career faculty members' attitudes about online teaching and the impact of online teaching on their work lives may impact their younger colleagues' attitudes about online teaching. They concluded mid-career faculty members "can either be allies or stubborn opponents as their institution adjusts to competitive pressures...and integrate new educational technologies" (Baldwin & Chang, 2006, p. 28).

In a later study with 20 mid-career faculty and 20 mid-career administrators at a large research university designed to uncover specific strategies to support faculty at mid-career, Baldwin and his colleagues (2008) concluded that among "Promising practices for mid-career faculty" (p. 49) was teaching online and using instructional technology. But Austin (2010), in an essay about faculty work across the career, argued that it was unclear how mid-career faculty members were adjusting to the changes brought forth by technology.

In summary, the literature reveals a lack of information on the impact of online teaching on mid-career faculty's work lives. While mid-career faculty may be excited by the opportunity to explore new interests through teaching online (Austin, 2010; Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Baldwin et al., 2008), more research is needed to support this conclusion. Furthermore, the dearth of research about the impact of online teaching on mid-career faculty's work lives reflects a continuing pattern of lack of preparation for online teaching that is found among graduate students and some early career faculty.

Senior faculty. There were only a limited number of studies about senior career faculty and online teaching (Giannoni, 2001; Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Passmore, 2000; Rahman 2001; Rockwell et al., 1999; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007; Sorcinelli, 1999). The majority of these studies were over ten years old, which is problematic because of ongoing advances in the technologies used in online teaching. The main findings from this small body of research were the value of internal motivators to attract senior faculty to teach online (Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Passmore, 2000; Rahman, 2001; Rockwell et al., 1999) and senior faculty's need for support when they teach online (Sorcinelli, 1999; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007).

There was a small stream of literature about how to motivate senior career faculty to teach online. Across the studies, the researchers concluded that internal motivators enticed senior faculty to teach online (Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Passmore, 2000; Rahman, 2001; Rockwell et al., 1999). For example, based on survey results from 38 online faculty members at a school of management, Rahman (2001) suggested a model to use to recruit faculty to online teaching. Among the recommendations for how to implement the model was to recruit senior faculty who were interested in thinking more about their teaching. Based on his results he concluded, "senior

professors will be attracted based on their priorities and not on monetary needs” (Rahman, 2001, p. 9).

Several researchers argued that senior faculty members tended to view online learning negatively and openly expressed these views (e.g. Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Rahman, 2001). At the same time, senior faculty members who “often have made significant contributions to their disciplinary knowledge base, may feel dated or left behind” (Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007, p. 23) or anxious about staying up to speed with technology and need support. For example, in 1997 the Teaching and Learning Center at University of Massachusetts Amherst started TEACHnology, a faculty development program designed to help senior faculty capitalize on new technologies to invigorate their teaching, use technology to enhance pedagogy, and support each other as they embarked on the online teaching experience (Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007; Sorcinelli, 1997). Based on survey results from 40 senior faculty fellows who participated in the program between 1998 and 2004, Shih and Sorcinelli (2007) concluded that TEACHnology helped senior faculty enhance their teaching, feel supported, and develop a better sense of how students learn. While TEACHnology seems to be the only program of its kind, Shih and Sorcinelli’s (2007) findings support the value of internal motivators to attract senior faculty to online teaching.

Because of their involvement in TEACHnology, some of the senior faculty assumed informal positions as technology mentors and became involved in university issues related to technology (Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007). These findings may suggest that faculty who are more advanced in their careers may be amenable to assuming leadership positions where they influence the university’s policies and faculty’s attitudes toward online teaching.

However, as reflected by the literature on senior career faculty, the literature specific to career stage and online teaching was limited. Regarding the research on senior faculty and online

teaching, much of the literature was old, with the exception of Shih and Sorcinelli's (2007) relatively recent research on TEACHnology. The main conclusions from the small body of research on senior career faculty and online teaching were: (a) the value of internal motivators (Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Passmore, 2000; Rahman, 2001; Rockwell et al., 1999) and (b) the benefits of supporting senior career faculty who teach online (Sorcinelli, 1999; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007). Findings from these studies also showed that the factors that motivated senior career faculty to teach online were different from the factors that motivated their colleagues to teach online.

Summary. In sum, the literature on the impact of online teaching at different career stages paralleled the larger body of research on career stage: faculty had different needs and challenges unique to each stage of the career. At the same time, there were challenges that may occur throughout the career, online teaching being one of them. There is a small body of literature that showed (a) aspiring graduate students may be unprepared to teach online (Austin, 2002, 2003; Austin & McDaniels, 2006); (b) early career faculty may resist online teaching because they do not receive credit for it during the tenure and promotion process, reflecting the role of external motivators in early career faculty's attitudes toward online teaching (Glass, 2012; Simpson, 2010); (c) mid-career faculty may perceive using technology as a promising practice (Baldwin et al., 2008), though additional literature to support this argument is necessary, and (d) senior career faculty were more likely to teach online due to internal motivators (Giannoni & Tesone, 2003; Passmore, 2000; Rahman, 2001; Rockwell et al., 1999), benefit from support, and are in a position to influence university policy on technology (Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007; Sorcinelli, 1999). My study added to this literature by highlighting the impact of online teaching

on faculty's work lives during the early middle, middle, and senior career portions of their careers.

Literature Review Summary

This study posed the question: What is the impact of online teaching on key elements of early middle, middle, and senior career tenured and full-time non-tenure-track faculty's work lives that are associated with satisfaction, productivity, commitment and professional growth? To begin to answer this question, I discussed highlights of the literature about the work lives of non-tenure-track instructors, and common themes that faculty experience during the middle and senior portions of the career. I also provided an overview of the rather large body of literature about the factors that impact faculty's motivation to teach online. I discussed the impact of online teaching on flexibility and balance; autonomy and academic freedom; agency; community; and professional growth: elements of faculty work that researchers (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008) have suggested are associated with increased satisfaction, productivity, commitment, and professional growth. But, researchers have not systematically addressed the way in which online teaching impacts each of these elements.

Finally, I discussed the small body of literature about how career stage may influence faculty's attitudes toward online teaching. This literature review has also demonstrated that there is a dearth of research on the impact of online teaching on mid-career and senior faculty. Given that mid-career and senior faculty teach online (Seaman, 2009), research that fills in some of these gaps is warranted. Also, this literature review demonstrated the dearth of research on the impact of online teaching on full-time non-tenure-track faculty members. Given that these faculty members are also teaching online, additional research about the impact of online teaching on key elements of their work is necessary.

Conceptual Framework

Three conceptual frameworks grounded this study: Herzberg's (1968, 1974) Motivation-Hygiene Theory, Gappa and her colleagues (2007) Framework of Essential Elements, and O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) Framework of Faculty Growth. What follows is a brief description of the relevance of these frameworks to this study.

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. In the 1950s and 1960s, Herzberg (1968) began to investigate what motivated employees to work hard. Based on reviews of prior research on workplace motivation and empirical studies, he concluded, "The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but, rather, no job satisfaction; and, similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job satisfaction" (Herzberg, 1968, p. 91, italics in original). Therefore, Herzberg (1968) argued, measuring job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction along a one-dimensional spectrum was not useful.

Instead, Herzberg (1968, 1974) identified two factors that explained job satisfaction: hygienes and motivators. Examples of the first set of factors, or hygienes, include satisfaction with salary, supervision, relationships with colleagues, and company policy. Hygienes are external factors that may or may not be present in the job environment. Herzberg (1968, 1974) contended that a lack of hygienes may contribute to job dissatisfaction, but their presence does not ensure job satisfaction. Examples of the second set of factors, or motivators, include "achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement" (Herzberg, 1968, pp. 91-92). Motivators are internal factors that may or may not be present in the job content. These motivators satisfy people's intrinsic desires for growth and achievement, and are the most salient motivators in the workplace. Without these motivators,

people will not experience job satisfaction, Herzberg (1968, 1974) argued, regardless of the presence or absence of the hygiene factors.

Herzberg's (1968, 1974) Motivation-Hygiene Theory sheds light on what factors contribute to job satisfaction and whether these factors are extrinsic (hygienes) or intrinsic (motivators). More specifically, Herzberg's (1968, 1974) Motivation-Hygiene Theory serves as a reminder that the work experience cannot be measured on a single scale because in any job there can simultaneously exist factors that contribute to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Herzberg's (1968, 1974) Motivation-Hygiene Theory suggests that faculty may experience aspects of online teaching as frustrating, on the one hand, but experience professional growth, on the other. Since I argued that positive aspects of online teaching may exist alongside the challenges, Herzberg's (1968, 1974) Motivation-Hygiene theory was a useful framework in this study.

Framework of essential elements. After several meetings with advisory groups of higher education scholars and administrators, reviewing the literature in depth, consulting national databases containing information about higher education institutions (e.g. National Satisfaction of Postsecondary Faculty), and based on their own work in higher education institutions, Gappa et al. (2007) developed the Framework Of Essential Elements. Undergirded by a foundation of respect and collaboration between faculty and administrators, the Framework of Essential Elements serves as a guide for identifying elements of work that need to be present in order to better guarantee a productive and satisfied faculty. The Essential Elements of the Framework are: employment equity, flexibility and balance, academic freedom and autonomy, collegiality, and professional growth (Gappa et al., 2007; Gappa & Austin, 2010).

The Framework of Essential Elements is a comprehensive strategy for higher education institutions to use to rethink faculty work in a way that is responsive to faculty's needs for growth and support in light of the major changes occurring in the academy. Gappa and her colleagues (2007) argued "At the bottom line, positive outcomes for faculty lead to enhanced institutional outcomes, such as the enrichment of the learning environment for students, increased scholarly and research productivity, and greater contributions to the college or university community and to the public good" (p. 143). When higher education leaders understand how to create work environments that foster each of these Essential Elements, faculty will perform better (Gappa & Austin, 2010; Gappa et al., 2007)

Framework of faculty growth. O'Meara and her colleagues' (2008) elaborated on professional growth, one of the elements of Gappa et al.'s (2007) Framework of Essential Elements. Their rationale for elaborating on Gappa et al.'s (2007) idea of professional growth was that the bulk of the literature on faculty highlighted the negative dimensions of faculty work and reflected a narrative of constraint. O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) asserted that faculty have the capacity to experience professional growth when they work to overcome constraints and challenges. This experience of professional growth reflects a narrative of growth. In describing the narrative of growth, O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) argued that there are four aspects of professional growth: learning, agency, professional relationships, and commitment.

Learning refers to measurable changes in faculty knowledge that enhance faculty work. Agency refers to faculty's ability "to craft work lives that make distinct contributions to higher education and are personally meaningful" (p. 18). Professional relationships refer to meaningful and supportive relationships with colleagues (O'Meara et al., 2008). Since O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) drew upon Gappa and her colleagues' (2007) framework to create the

Framework of Faculty Growth, there is an overlap between the key aspects of work identified by each framework. I combined the Frameworks to determine which variables to examine.

The first variable I examined was Gappa et al.'s (2007) notion of flexibility and balance. The second variable I examined was Gappa et al.'s (2007) notion of academic freedom and autonomy. The third variable I examined was O'Meara et al.'s (2008) notion of agency. O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) argued that while autonomy and academic freedom represent aspects of agency, agency also represents the broader idea of faculty's sense of their ability to navigate the work environment in meaningful ways. Therefore, I examined agency separately from academic freedom and autonomy. The fourth variable I examined was professional relationships. O'Meara et al.'s (2008) notion of professional relationships was similar to Gappa et al.'s (2007) notion of collegiality and community. To encompass both ideas, I will use the broader category of professional relationships. The fifth variable I examined was professional growth. O'Meara et al.'s (2008) notion of learning is an aspect of professional growth, but professional growth represents a broader idea. To encompass both ideas, I used the broader category of professional growth.

Summary. This study used three frameworks. I used the first framework, Herzberg's (1968, 1974) Motivation-Hygiene Theory, to (a) examine intrinsic and extrinsic motivators and to (b) make the case that aspects of the same job can simultaneously be frustrating and growth enhancing. I used the second and third frameworks -- Gappa et al.'s (2007) Framework of Essential Elements and O'Meara et al.'s (2008) Framework for Faculty Growth -- to define the key variables I examined. Each of these key variables was intrinsic and supports a narrative of professional growth (O'Meara et al., 2008). Therefore, the question I asked was: how do early middle, middle, and senior career faculty perceive the impact of online teaching on flexibility

and balance; academic freedom and autonomy; agency; professional relationships; and professional growth?

Conclusion

There is a robust body of literature on the barriers that discourage faculty from teaching online. Researchers (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008) have suggested that there are key elements of faculty work. But, less is known about how online teaching impacts each of these key elements of faculty work. The purpose of my study was to examine how faculty members perceived the impact of online teaching on elements of work that were associated with increased satisfaction, commitment, and productivity (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008). In doing so, I hope to uncover aspects of online teaching that support a narrative of growth that coexisted alongside a narrative of constraint (O'Meara, et al., 2008).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of online teaching on key aspects of early middle, middle, and senior tenured and full-time non-tenure-track faculty members' work lives. In this chapter, I describe the methodology I used to conduct the study and explain decisions about the (a) Research design; (b) Procedures for data collection and analysis; (C) Considerations for trustworthiness and reflexivity; and (d) Limitations of the study.

Overview of Methodology

I interviewed 19 early middle, middle, and senior faculty members to discuss the impact of online teaching on key elements of their work lives that are associated with productivity, satisfaction, commitment and professional growth. The interview protocol was designed based on Gappa and her colleagues' (2007) Framework of Essential Elements, O'Meara and her colleagues' (2008) Framework of Faculty Growth, and other relevant literature. Each faculty member I interviewed had at least eight years of full-time in person teaching experience, and taught a minimum of 2 fully online courses. Participants represented a range of disciplinary and demographic backgrounds, and had varied years of experience teaching online. Interviews lasted between 45 to 75 minutes.

Research Paradigm

Because the study was intended to uncover how faculty members perceived the experience of teaching online, an interpretivist approach was appropriate (Merriam, 2009). Underpinning qualitative research studies is the notion of constructivism, through which meaning "is not discovered but constituted" (Creswell, 2009, p. 22) and the belief that there may be more than one reality. A social constructivist lens helps to explain, from the perspectives of the participants, "how people make sense of their worlds and the experiences they have in the

world” (Creswell, 2009, p. 13) and is based on “assumptions that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work” (Creswell, 2009, p. 8).

A qualitative approach was appropriate because the bulk of the research about faculty who teach online has been quantitative (e.g., Allen & Seaman’s 2005-2014 series of national online surveys), measuring faculty attitudes about teaching online. In his synthesis of the literature about attitudes of faculty who teach online, Maguire (2005) concluded that the bulk of data from the 45 articles he reviewed was quantitative and gathered through surveys. Although survey data is useful in uncovering faculty attitudes about teaching online, qualitative studies allow the researcher to gather more detailed information about the phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2009). With regard to understanding the experiences of faculty who teach online, the advantage of qualitative studies is that higher education stakeholders involved in administering online courses can gain a better sense of what it is like for faculty to teach online and how to support them (Maguire, 2005).

Phenomenography

This qualitative study adopted a phenomenographic approach. A phenomenographic approach “aims at description, analysis, and understanding of experiences” (Marton, 1981, p. 177). What follows is a description of the phenomenographic approach and a rationale for its selection for this study.

Due to the shortcomings of quantitative methods in education, phenomenography was developed as an empirical qualitative method (Sandbergh, 1997). Phenomenography is grounded in a firmly empirical foundation (Akerlind, 2012), unlike its predecessor, phenomenology, which was more abstract and theoretical (Marton, 1981). The origins of phenomenography date back to a study of how first year university students approached their learning (Booth, 1997; Entwistle,

1997). Although the study about first year university students was not purely phenomenographic, “the techniques of rigorous qualitative analysis which have become the hallmarks of phenomenography” (Entwistle, 1997, p. 127) evolved from this study.

Phenomenography follows a non-dualistic ontology (Akerlind, 2012; Marton & Booth, 1997), and is neither subjectivist nor objectivist. Phenomenographic researchers believe that “There is not a real world ‘out there’ and a subjective world ‘in here’. The world [as experienced] is not constructed by the learner, nor is it imposed upon her; it is constituted as an internal relation between them” (Marton & Booth, 1997, p. 13). Phenomenographic researchers argue that there is a “relationship between the experiencer and the phenomenon being experienced” (Akerlind, 2012, p. 116), adopting a relational ontology (Marton & Booth, 1997). Researchers using phenomenographic approaches are interested in people’s conceptions of experiences, and the relationships between people and their experiences (Marton, 1981).

Conceptions “refer to people’s way of experiencing a specific aspect of reality” (Sandberg, 1997, p. 203). These conceptions are also called structures of awareness (Marton & Booth, 1997) and are derived from people’s worlds of experience (Entwistle, 1997). Phenomenographic researchers look for variations in meanings of people’s conceptions (Akerlind, 2005), with the understanding that “phenomena, aspects of reality, are experienced (or conceptualized) in a relatively limited number of qualitatively different ways” (Marton, 1981, p. 181).

There are several reasons why phenomenography was a useful research approach to use in this study. Phenomenography has been adopted to understand college students’ experiences of learning from the students’ point of view (Akerlind, 2005; Booth, 1997; Entwistle, 1997). While a small body of higher education research has used a phenomenographic approach to explore

“university teaching from the perspective of teachers themselves, examining academic conceptions of and approaches to teaching” (Kember, 1997; Akerlind & Jenkins, 1998, as cited in Akerlind, 2005, p. 6), this approach has not been widely used, with the exception of Akerlind’s work. Akerlind conducted a series of studies from 2003-2012 using a phenomenographic approach that shed light on teachers’ perspectives on their growth and development as teachers, and how this growth and development informed their approaches to teaching.

Regarding the usefulness of phenomenography to study postsecondary teaching, Akerlind (2005) concluded, “The research presented here indicates that a phenomenographic approach to exploring the experience of academia and academic work has much to offer our understanding of the nature of being an academic and engaging in academic work” (p. 29). Because my study is focused on online teaching, a form of academic work, and I am examining faculty’s experiences of how this form of work impacts their experiences of key elements in the workplace, a phenomenographic approach was appropriate.

Site Selection

This study was conducted at three different sites: a Research 1 University in the mid-west, a comprehensive public research university in the northeast, and a small, private religious college in the northeast. Each of these institutions offered online courses during the fall, spring, and summer semesters. I selected each of these institutions because full-time tenured and full-time non-tenure track faculty members in all phases of their careers teach undergraduate online courses in a variety of disciplines. I also selected three different types of institutions because I wanted to explore whether there were variations in the impact of online teaching on key elements

of faculty work across institutional type. For these reasons, each of these sites was appropriate for this study.

Participant Selection

The sample selection for this qualitative study was non-random. When the purpose of a study is not to make generalizations to a larger population, but to better understand the experiences of individuals, a non-random sample is appropriate (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative researchers generally choose their participants strategically by using purposeful sampling. Purposeful sampling directs researchers' attention to "cases that show different perspectives on a problem, process, or event" (Creswell, Hanson, Plano, & Morales, 2007, p. 75) they wish to describe. Purposeful sampling involves use of strategy to ensure that the participants represent a variety of differing perspectives (Creswell et al., 2007; Merriam, 2009).

The participants selected for this study were early middle, middle and senior faculty. To clearly delineate what I meant by early middle, middle and senior career, participants were divided into three groups based on the number of years of face-to-face higher education teaching experience they had. The first group of participants, early mid-career faculty, had between 8-13 years of teaching experience (n=7). The second group of participants, mid-career faculty, had between 14-21 years of teaching experience (n=6). The third group of participants, senior faculty, had between 22-31 years of teaching experience (n=7). Researchers (e.g., Austin, 2010) have described the early career period of faculty life as the first seven years in the academy. Since this study focuses on faculty in the early, middle, and senior years, faculty members needed a minimum of eight years face-to-face teaching experience to qualify to participate.

Since prior researchers (e.g., Allen & Seaman, 2012; Lloyd et al., 2012) have found that the online teaching experiences tends to improve over time, to qualify to participate, faculty must

have taught a minimum of two fully online courses. The participants in this study also taught online courses for undergraduate students. Because the bulk of students enrolled in online courses (more than 80 percent) are undergraduate students (Allen & Seaman, 2008) it makes sense to focus on faculty who are teaching undergraduate students.

In keeping with traditions of how phenomenographic researchers select their samples, participants were chosen because they were expected “to be representative of the population in terms of qualitative variation in experience, using demographic criteria that one would expect to be associated with different ways of experiencing the phenomenon concerned” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 8). Samples in phenomenographic studies are generally small, but the researcher’s goal is to select a sample with a “range of meanings...[that] will be representative of the range of meanings within the population” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 9). Examples of the key variations I looked for included male and female early middle, middle, and senior faculty who had varying numbers of years experiences teaching online, different appointment types, and who taught across disciplines. Each of these factors may shape the implications of online teaching on key aspects of work.

Among the 10,700 faculty who participated in the national Online Education Benchmarking Study, results revealed that females were routinely more likely to teach and develop online courses than males, and female faculty were more pessimistic about online education than male faculty (Seaman, 2009). These findings were consistent with Lloyd and colleagues’ (2012) quantitative study of 75 faculty who taught at a university in the southeast that revealed that gender also related to how faculty assessed obstacles to teaching online. Findings from the same study revealed that “men [faculty] surveyed documented a greater level of comfort and proficiency with teaching” (p. 8) online than women faculty. By selecting a

sample that is roughly equal in terms of the number of male and female faculty, I would be able to determine if my findings parallel this prior research.

In addition to gender, the number of courses faculty teach online influence their attitudes toward online teaching (Allen & Seaman, 2012; Lloyd et al., 2012). In a national survey of 4564 faculty across a range of colleges and universities, Allen and Seaman (2012) found that the more experience faculty have with online education, the lower the likelihood that they will view it negatively. These findings paralleled the data from 75 faculty who taught at a university in the southeast (Lloyd et al., 2012), which revealed that the numbers of courses faculty members have taught online has been associated with their openness to teaching online. For example, faculty with less experience teaching online observed that there were more factors that deterred them from teaching online than there were for their colleagues with more online teaching experience. The results suggested “any type of experience [teaching online] led to a reduction in perceived barriers when compared to faculty with no online experience” (Lloyd et al., 2012, p. 7).

There has been a rise in the number of online courses delivered throughout a large majority of disciplines (Allen & Seaman, 2008, 2012; Seaman, 2009). Results of Allen and Seaman’s (2012) national faculty survey revealed that faculty teaching in the professions or applied sciences demonstrated more enthusiasm about online teaching than their colleagues in other disciplines. Validating the impact of discipline on faculty’s attitude toward teaching online, Seaman (2009) concluded that disciplinary association might explain differences in attitudes toward online teaching between genders. Among the 10,700 faculty members who participated in the national Online Education Benchmarking Study, data revealed that the number and frequency of online courses offered across disciplines was not the same. Because there has been an

empirically demonstrated relationship between disciplinary association and attitudes toward online teaching (Seaman, 2009), I sampled faculty across a range of disciplines.

I applied to the Institutional Review Board to receive permission to conduct the study. I used a strategic process to recruit participants. First, I contacted that heads of faculty development programs and the distance education programs at each institution and sent them a brief explanation of the study. Faculty development program administrators and distance education program administrators at each of the three schools each put me in touch with several faculty members who met my criteria. When I met with this initial set of participants, I asked them to refer colleagues who fit the criteria and might be willing to participate. In this way, I made use of snowball sampling techniques (Atkinson & Flint, 2001). Since my goal was to have three groups of participants, each with differing amounts of teaching experience, from across a variety of disciplines, after I met with enough participants to create each group and after I reached data saturation (Glesne, 2010), I stopped the interviewing process.

Data Collection

The data collected for this study was qualitative. The primary method of data collection was semi-structured interviews with a small, purposive sample (Akerlind, 2005; Glesne, 2010; Marton & Booth, 1997). The semi-structured interview is designed in advance of the interview and serves as a tool to help ensure that the areas the researcher intends to address are included. The protocol is meant to be somewhat flexible, with ample room for follow up questions (Pickard & Childs, 2007).

In phenomenographic studies, semi-structured interviews are intended to prompt participants' reflections on and descriptions of their experiences so that the interviewer can make an interpretation of the participants' experiences (Entwistle, 1997; Marton & Booth, 1997). The

objective of the interview is to discover the interviewees' perceptions about the phenomenon "at the point of the interview to reveal the interviewee's awareness level of the phenomenon" (Bamigbola, 2011, p. 162).

The interview instrument was designed so that there was a set of questions that corresponded to each of the research questions (Creswell, 2009). To open the interview, participants were asked to talk very broadly about their online teaching experiences. These were very open-ended questions. Examples of these questions included: Tell me about your experience teaching online. What have been some of the high and low points of the experience? These broad opening questions set the stage for participants to provide more specific information. Then, based on Herzberg's (1968, 1974) Motivation-Hygiene theory, I asked participants what they found rewarding and challenging about online teaching and probed for the intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. Finally, I zeroed in on flexibility and balance; autonomy and academic freedom; agency; professional relationships; and professional growth, key elements of academic work that Gappa and colleagues (2007) and O'Meara and colleagues (2008) have found to contribute to positive workplace outcomes such as faculty productivity, commitment, satisfaction, and professional growth.

Follow up questions included unstructured inquiry intended to prompt the participant to expand on their responses, "or to check the meaning that interviewees' associated with keywords that they used" (Akerlind, 2005, p. 10) and included questions such as "Could you tell me a bit more about that?"; "Could you explain that further?" (Akerlind, 2005, p. 10). These follow up questions are essential in getting to participants' "underlying meanings" (Akerlind, 2005, p. 10), and may be more valuable than the pre-set questions. The goal during all phases of the interview was to create space for participants "to reveal their current experience of the phenomenon as

fully as possible without the interviewer introducing any new aspects not previously mentioned by the interviewee” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 10).

In order to test the interview protocol, pilot interviews were conducted with two faculty members at one of the study sites. Based on feedback from these faculty members on the interview protocol and based on analysis of how their responses shed light on my research question, I made adjustments to the interview protocol. Each question in the protocol still aligned with the study’s conceptual frameworks, but I made some of the questions broader and some of the questions narrower in order to gather data that more closely aligned with my research questions.

In keeping with phenomenographic traditions and with participants’ permission, I digitally recorded the interviews, but participants could request that the recorder be turned off at any time. All of the interviews were transcribed verbatim. Interviews were between 45-75 minutes long. Interviews were held in a location that protected the participant’s confidentiality (Creswell, 2009), such as their office, or over the phone. I had permission from the Institutional Review Boards at each institution to enter the site and interact with the participants (Creswell, 2009).

Data Analysis

The object of study and analysis in a phenomenographic study is not the phenomenon itself. Rather, the object of the study is a description of the relationships between the phenomenon and the people involved. The analysis involves organizing these descriptions into categories (Marton, 1981), which represent the outcomes of the analysis (Entwistle, 1997). For example, one category contained intrinsic motivators, one category contained extrinsic motivators, and one category contained both types of motivators.

Each interview was read multiple times to establish familiarity with the transcripts. With interview data, the objective of the analysis is “interpreting the respondent's meaning” (Entwistle, 1997, p. 129). The interview transcripts function as an “expression of meaning” (Akerlind et al., 2005, as cited in Akerlind, 2012, p. 117) and serve as the centerpiece of the analysis. Individual expressions of meaning “may be regarded as a fragment of human understanding of the whole phenomenon...because human experience is always partial” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 6). In phenomenographic analysis, then, varied ways of having an experience serve as “more or less complete understandings of the phenomenon, rather than different and unrelated understandings. These different understandings may then be ordered in terms of complexity or completeness” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 7). The understandings are also ordered by the referential components that represent variation and structures of awareness. These referential components are the “what” of the experience or phenomenon (Marton & Booth, 1997) or “the core meaning given to a phenomenon or object of research by the respondent” (Bamigbola, 2011, p. 163). In my study, the core meaning was the meaning faculty gave to online teaching.

The researcher then accounts for “individual variations in the ways each category is exemplified by individual respondents, and a thorough logical analysis of meaning of these differences” (Entwistle, 1997, p. 133). Each category needs to contain enough information so that its meaning is wholly encompassed and so that the relationships among the categories are evident (Entwistle, 1997). Under optimal conditions, “the outcomes represent the full range of possible ways of experiencing the phenomenon in question, at this particular point in time, for the population represented by the sample group collectively” (Akerlind, 2012, p. 116).

Descriptions of participants’ varied experiences that are the product of phenomenographic analysis are referred to as stripped or reduced descriptions. These

descriptions serve as “a way of experiencing reduced to its key critical features” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 8). Phenomenographic researchers are not interested in the multiple distinctions among individuals’ experiences. Instead, phenomenographic researchers hone in on “identifying what is critical for distinguishing one way of experiencing from a qualitatively different way, in terms of the minimum features necessary for drawing such distinctions” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 8).

There are two interconnected strategies to document these stripped or reduced descriptions that are the outcomes of phenomenographic studies. The first strategy is to establish categories of description, which demonstrate “the range of qualitatively different ways of experiencing the phenomenon in question” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 10). In this study, examples of categories of description were indicators of key elements. The second strategy is to establish “descriptions of common themes of variation running through the categories” (Akerlind, 2005, p. 11) in order to describe what aspects of experience the categories share and how they differ. Differences among the categories indicate variations of participants’ experience of the phenomenon. This second strategy highlights the relationships among the categories and indicates “logical relationships between the categories” (Akerlind, 2005, p 10-11). In this study, common themes of variations were the similarities and differences among how the participants experienced each of the key elements.

The analysis “is a strongly iterative and comparative one, involving the continual sorting and resorting of data, plus ongoing comparisons between the data and the developing categories of description, as well as between the categories themselves” (Akerlind, 2012, p. 117). The researcher reads each of the transcripts multiple times. During the entire period of data collection, I continuously analyzed the data (Merriam, 2009). I read the transcripts repeatedly, along with reviewing field notes, examining them both for emerging themes. The purpose of this

preliminary data analysis was to aid me in any necessary changes to the interview protocol that needed to be made in order to achieve a maximally robust set of data (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007). During the data analysis process, I looked for similarities, differences, and patterns among the participants' comments, in this way "coding, categorizing, and comparing [the data] in order to generate theory about social phenomena" (Glesne, 2010, p. 21).

During the initial readings of the transcripts, the researcher needs to keep a "high degree of openness to possible meanings" (Akerlind, 2012, p. 117). After the researcher becomes more familiar with the transcripts, specific portions of the experience can be honed in on and used to establish categories, as long as the researcher continues to keep an open mind about new possible meanings. When analyzing the transcripts, they must all be considered together as a group in order to capture the variety of meanings among the group and the collective nature of the experience. Transcripts are not analyzed separately from each other because "Every transcript...is interpreted within the context of the group of transcripts or meanings as a whole, in terms of similarities to and differences from other transcripts or meanings" (Akerlind et al., 2005, as cited in Akerlind, 2012, p. 117).

In keeping with this phenomenographic tradition, after I read the individual transcripts multiple times, I organized the transcripts to correspond to each of the three groups of participants (early middle, middle, and senior career). Then, I read each set of transcripts in each group together and closely compared the transcripts to each other. Then, I compared findings across each of the three groups of transcripts.

During the transcript readings, I coded line by line in order to allow myself to be "immerse[d] in the data and discover what concepts they have to offer" (Glesne, 2010, p. 195). Then, broader code categories were constructed based on the codes created during the line by

line coding process. Dedoose was used to help build a systematic coding scheme. During the coding process, I was mindful of any outlying data, making sure to explain it in the analysis (Creswell, 2009). This coding process and continued analysis helped me ascertain whether saturation had been reached in the data or if follow up interviews needed to be arranged (Glesne, 2010).

In addition to the interview transcripts that serve as data for phenomenographic researchers, the researcher's own experience with the phenomenon also serves as data (Marton, 1981; Sandbergh, 1997). Researchers must keep in check their own assumptions and ideas about the specific phenomenon being investigated. By doing this, the researcher keeps an open mind about alternative versions of experience and can report these experiences in a more authentic manner (Sandberg, 1997). As the data in this study was being collected, I used bracketing (Bamigbola, 2011) as a technique to keep my own assumptions in check.

Bracketing allows the researcher to set apart "her opinion on the phenomenon in order not to influence the interviewees and for the validity of the data" (Ashworth & Lucas, 2000, as cited in Bamigbola, 2011, p. 163). Bracketing allowed me to separate my assumptions, ideas, and experiences teaching online from the participants'. As part of the bracketing process, I sat down to reflect on my own assumptions, ideas, and experiences about teaching online and its impact on my work so that I could more readily separate them from those of my participants.

While results of phenomenographic studies may not be generalizable to larger populations, across a variety of phenomenon, similar categories emerge, leading to a collection of fixed categories that are "generalizable between the situations even if individuals move from one category to another on different occasions" (Marton, 1981, p. 177). Even though one of the objectives of phenomenographic inquiry is to denote variation in experiencing a phenomenon,

the amount of overlap among participants' conceptions of experiences allows the researcher to make some generalizations among the participants (Marton, 1981).

Reliability

Within the context of qualitative research, reliability shows “that the researcher’s approach is consistent across different researchers” (Creswell, 2009, p. 190). In phenomenographic studies the goal “is to identify and describe individuals’ conceptions of some aspect of reality as faithfully as possible” (Sandbergh, 1997, p. 204). Two ways to shore up reliability in qualitative research that takes the form of interviews require calling upon other researchers for assistance, in an attempt to elicit more than one interpretation of the data.

The first way to shore up reliability is to do coder reliability checks, during which two other researchers code the entirety or a portion of the transcripts separately and then meet to exchange ideas about the categorizations. In keeping with this tradition, several of the transcripts were peer-coded. After my peers did the coding, I met with them to compare our coding schemes and to ensure that we were clear about what the codes meant and clear about our interpretation of the data.

The second way to shore up reliability is to do dialogic reliability checks, during which the researchers discuss and analyze the data in the transcripts and their interpretations of it and come to consensus (Akerlind, 2012). During my conversations about the transcripts with the peer coders, I was able to do dialogic reliability checks (Akerlind, 2012).

While neither of these strategies to shore up reliability are easy to carry out, when researchers take these steps, they are more likely to maintain “maximum fidelity to the experiences of the individuals investigated” (Sandberg, 1997, p. 204). Statistical software can be used to enhance reliability by helping the researcher to “determine the level of consistency of

the coding” (Creswell, 2009, p. 191). In this study, Dedoose was used to code the data as an additional way to shore up reliability.

Validity

Within the context of qualitative research, validity “means that the researcher checks for the accuracy of the findings by employing certain procedures” (Creswell, 2009, p. 190). From the perspective of the researcher and the participants, the accuracy of the findings needs to be ascertained (Creswell, 2009). In a phenomenographic study, the “researcher asks not how well their research outcomes correspond to the phenomenon as it exists in ‘reality’, but how well they correspond to human experience of the phenomenon” (Uljens, 1996, as cited in Akerlind, 2012, p. 123). The way in which the researcher comes to understand the participants’ experiences always has an element of subjectivity, but in phenomenographic research, when the purposes of the research are an accurate match to the methods selected, higher validity is likely (Sandbergh, 1997). There are several ways to enhance the validity of a qualitative study (Creswell, 2009).

First, I did member checking with a subset of the participants. Member checking consists of providing the participants access to the interview transcripts or paper drafts so that they can indicate whether the researcher has interpreted their ideas properly (Glesne, 2010). After the interviews, I e-mailed a subset of the participants memos that summarized the highlights of the interview and asked them for review and feedback. The participants who responded to these memos were satisfied and did not make any changes to the memo. These responses were an indication of the accuracy of the researcher’s interpretation of the interview (Glesne, 2010).

Second, I tested and retested the categories of descriptive data that were generated through a phenomenographic approach to strengthen validity. I continually tested the categories against the data to make sure there was alignment between the categories and the data and that

the categories accurately reflected and represented the data. This testing was an iterative process and part of phenomenographic research (Akerlind, 2012) and also brought attention to results that did not align with the main themes of the findings (Creswell, 2009).

Reflexivity

When conducting qualitative research, the researcher may interact regularly with the participants. These interactions may generate ethical dilemmas and other concerns that require attention. Acknowledging these dilemmas is a form of reflexivity that occurs when “inquirers explicitly identify reflexively their biases, values, and personal background, such as gender ... that may shape their interpretations formed during a study” (Creswell, 2009, p. 177). Several factors will affect the researcher’s position (Merriam, 2002), reaction to, and interpretation of the data (Entwistle, 1997).

First, in terms of my personal background, acknowledging how being a student interviewer may influence faculty’s willingness to talk to me honestly about their experiences teaching online is an example of reflexivity. Second, I have several biases and values that might color my reactions to participants’ descriptions of their online teaching experiences (Creswell, 2009). For example, my strong personal feelings about the need for faculty to receive appropriate support and access to professional growth opportunities when they teach online may lead to frustration if participants’ experiences suggest that they do not feel supported or able to grow as professionals when they teach online. In addition, my own views about the effectiveness of online teaching may sway how I interpret the data. By bracketing (Bamigbola, 2011) the data, I was alert to how my own biases may be shaping the data collection and analysis process.

Summary

Since the aim of this study was to uncover faculty perceptions about the impact of online teaching on key elements of their work, an interpretivist approach was used (Merriam, 2009). Specifically, I used phenomenography as a lens through which to interpret the data, as this method has been useful for studying postsecondary teaching (Akerlind, 2005). Semi-structured interview data was collected from a purposive sample (Creswell et al., 2007) of 19 early middle, middle, and senior faculty members from three universities, each of which offers online courses in a variety of disciplines to undergraduate students. I analyzed the data using an iterative coding process (Akerlind, 2012) that involved reading each transcript individually, and then in groups, looking for similarities and differences in each of the groups. I described the strategies I used to shore up reliability and validity, and explained how I would keep my biases in check during the data collection and analysis process.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. It is important to acknowledge a study's limitations so that the reader is aware of them, and to enhance the credibility of the study (Glesne, 2010). First, the perspectives of part-time faculty are not addressed. Second, this study uses a small sample, and so findings may only be applicable to the sample of faculty who were interviewed. Third, this study only focuses on middle and senior career faculty, so the perspectives of early career faculty are not explicitly addressed. Fourth, this study did not address the experiences of faculty who teach blended courses.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

This study is about how early middle, middle, and senior tenured and non-tenure-track faculty make sense of online teaching and how it affects their work. I interviewed 19 participants over the phone or in person for 45-70 minutes during May-September, 2014. The participants each had a minimum of eight years of face-to-face teaching experience, and each taught at least two fully online courses. Participants were full-time tenured and non-tenured faculty, represented a range of disciplines, and came from three different institutions.

In this chapter, I argue that the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work is varied at two levels. First, the findings are mixed within individual participants. For example, the same participant explains that online teaching both enhances and detracts from his ability to form meaningful relationships with students. Second, the findings are mixed across the whole group of participants. For example, some participants explained that online teaching contributed a great deal to their professional growth, and others explained that online teaching contributed some, or not at all. These mixed findings suggest that the implications of online teaching on faculty work life are neither categorically good nor bad, but, for most, are experienced along a continuum.

I also argue that online teaching is full of co-existing negative and positive aspects. Alongside every positive aspect of online teaching a participant described, there tended to be an accompanying negative aspect. For example, while many participants seemed to appreciate the freedom to design their online courses, at the same time, these same participants appeared to be at a loss for how to go about setting up their courses. On the one hand, findings about negative aspects of online teaching support the narrative of constraint that O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) suggest runs through the literature about faculty work. Many participants described a

struggle with an aspect of online teaching, or a struggle with the entire experience. On the other hand, findings about positive aspects of online teaching support the narrative of faculty growth (O'Meara et al., 2008). Other participants described online teaching as intellectually stimulating and rewarding. In this way, the findings show that online teaching reflects both narratives.

The co-existence of the negative and positive aspects of online teaching suggests that tensions are inherent in this form of work. Navigating these tensions presented opportunities for learning and professional growth. These findings support the Framework of Faculty Growth (O'Meara et al., 2008), which suggests that faculty can experience professional growth by engaging in components of their jobs that are challenging. Therefore, I argue that the Framework of Faculty Growth (O'Meara et al., 2008) provides an adequate framework for capturing the impact of online teaching on participants' work lives.

The Key Elements of Faculty Work (Gappa et al., 2007) also provided an adequate framework for capturing the impact of online teaching on participants' work lives. In addition to the elements in each Framework--flexibility and balance; autonomy and academic freedom; professional relationships; agency; and professional growth--the majority of participants mentioned the impact of online teaching on their relationships with students. In this chapter, I discuss the mixed impact of online teaching on key elements of participants' work lives and on their relationships with students.

Impact of Online Teaching on Flexibility and Balance

This section addresses findings related to the impact of online teaching on flexibility and balance in faculty work. Flexibility allows faculty to design their schedules in ways that enable them to balance their personal and professional lives, making them more satisfied, productive, and committed to their work (Gappa et al., 2007). One of the benefits of online teaching that is

indicated most often in the literature (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007) is the flexibility and convenience it affords students and faculty. Due to the large time commitment of online teaching, for some faculty, flexibility is an important factor that allows them to make adjustments to how they manage their work and time (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007).

First, I discuss participants' appreciation of the flexibility of online teaching, which parallels findings in the literature (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007). Indeed, I found that many participants appreciated the flexibility online courses afford students and the freedom it provided them to work from a variety of locations and to balance multiple projects at once. Participants also appreciated being able to capitalize on the conveniences afforded by technology tools like Skype and Webex in their face-to-face classes.

On the other hand, the conveniences afforded by technology, for some participants, were overwhelming. This sense of being overwhelmed is what I discuss in the second portion of this section. Paralleling the literature (Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Shea, 2007), some of the participants felt like they were "on call" for students because online classes are accessible twenty-four hours a day. These participants had to work through the challenge of how to set boundaries that allowed them to protect their time and maintain a sense of balance. Some participants also talked about the challenge of having to create structure in an otherwise unstructured part of their work.

Appreciation of flexibility. Three main themes that underscored faculty's appreciation of the flexibility and balance afforded by online teaching were: access to education for students,

more freedom in their schedules, and the knowledge of how to use tools like Webex to fill in gaps in their instruction.

Access for students. Several participants in each of the groups acknowledged the benefits of being able to provide online classes as a way to help students. Adrian captured this idea of wanting to help students when he described online teaching as student-centered. He said, “They can do it at whatever time of day, which I think is cool about online teaching...if they’re reading or studying at 2 a.m. and somebody bumps into a question they want to ask, they shoot it off to me.” Through his work as an advisor for a large number of students in his department, Walter demonstrated an understanding of the value of online classes for keeping students on track to graduate. He said:

I’m putting my advising hat on...and this has actually become a much bigger deal here ...As an advisor, I’ve always had an eye on trying to get [students] through this program by graduation and at the same time I’m also interested in international programs...and I want our students to have this big rich experience...I think online classes are a reasonably significant tool toward helping them do that--have a very rich experience and still be able to actually finish on time because it does afford students the ability to... intern in NY at a major record label.

These comments illustrate participants’ views about some of the ways students benefit from online classes.

For students who are working, online courses may be particularly valuable and convenient. Having been a non-traditional graduate student, Gina was especially sensitive to the opportunities afforded by online classes. She said, online courses “allow them to learn and to earn credits for coursework in a way that they might not otherwise be able to because of their own personal commitments with families or with work or whatever...on a practical level that’s really important.” Similarly, Jack said for students with “jobs during the summer...[online

learning] allows them the flexibility to take things to...keep on track.” Gina and Jack both described how taking online classes helped students who were working.

Even for participants like Todd and Lee, who were largely dissatisfied with their online teaching experiences, there was an appreciation of the benefits of online classes for students. Todd acknowledged that online courses were a great option for students who were closed out of the face-to-face section of his course. Lee explained, “online teaching, I think, is fantastic...people who are agoraphobics...well, they can go to college from their house.” Todd and Lee’s comments reflected an awareness of how online classes are valuable for students, regardless of their own attitudes toward online teaching.

Liberating. It frees me up. Interestingly, just as they acknowledged that online classes offered students flexibility and the ability to balance multiple responsibilities simultaneously, some participants recognized similar benefits in their own personal and professional lives. Kim captured this idea when she said: “the ease for students is also the ease for the teacher. That I think is really a huge plus.” For example, two participants talked about teaching in their pajamas. Jack described online teaching as “Easy for me...I call it my...jammie mode.” Scott said, “I like the freedom of it...because I’m not a great sleeper, definitely for me I love that...whenever I want just do the work. It really fits your schedule, which is great. That’s the number one thing.”

Another advantage of flexibility was that it made it possible for participants to travel while teaching. Participants across all phases of the career acknowledged these advantages of flexibility. Matt, with nine years of teaching experience, said:

It’s definitely made...it more flexible for me, I mean not to have to go to a classroom, which in my case was twice a week before...when I’m doing research...If this is the only class I’m teaching, which it will be in the spring... then I’ll have the freedom to go

somewhere else...[and there is] Internet access everywhere now so I'm able to carry out my teaching responsibilities anywhere in the world, basically.

Matt's comments illuminate the freedom online teaching provided for most participants and the way the flexibility of online teaching allowed them to accomplish other work while teaching.

Similarly, Todd, with 27 years of teaching experience, said, "During the summer...I had no other responsibilities except for this course. I could be anywhere...I went to my in-laws' cabin for a week. I had to get up every day and...check email in the morning and coordinate with people...but I was elsewhere." Matt was earlier in his career and had a predominantly positive experience teaching online. In contrast, Todd was later in his career and had a predominantly negative experience teaching online. However, both acknowledged the convenience and flexibility of online courses.

Many of the participants were grateful for the opportunity to teach online over the summer. In particular, the middle career participants were grateful not only for the flexibility of being able to teach over the summer, but also for the extra income. Kim said, "it does allow me to teach and make additional money but yet I can still have the flexibility that I can go on...vacation and I can still do this long distance." Likewise Janice said:

Especially in the summer, I wouldn't be able to do the research that I'm doing in Colombia and Mexico if I weren't teaching online. Or I wouldn't be able to teach but I need to since I'm a non-tenure-track faculty member and our salaries are so low that we have to supplement them with summer teaching, unless we're independently wealthy, which I'm not. So I like the flexibility.

Interestingly, both the tenured and non-tenured participants acknowledged how they could take advantage of the flexibility of online teaching to travel and earn extra money.

Tools to fill in gaps and help the class stay on track. Lee explained a benefit of the flexibility of online teaching that rang true for several participants. He said:

[I learned how to use] tools to...fill in gaps that otherwise would appear. So for example...if it's a snow emergency... instead of cancelling class, I just say, 'Here's a video I made. Go over all the material we would've gone over today and...watch the video and we can stay on track with the syllabus.'

Though Lee was largely negative about online teaching, he did appreciate the tools it provided to help his class stay on track. Similarly, Walter explained that when he got sick, instead of cancelling classes or forcing himself to go to campus, he held a Webex meeting with his students. These examples suggest that tools that faculty learn how to use when they teach online can be used in their face-to-face courses to help them keep their class on track if they have to miss class.

Balance challenges. As a few scholars (Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Shea, 2007) have pointed out, flexibility does pose some challenges. Because they can access their classes twenty-four hours a day, some faculty may feel pressured to do so and may feel like their online class is infringing on their other work or time with their family (Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Shea, 2007). My findings mirrored these challenges.

Online teaching is pervasive. Todd described online teaching as “flexible but pervasive.” He said, “there’s always something going on...if I look at night before I go to bed, there’s a question to be answered.” Todd’s descriptions of online teaching were predominantly negative, and perhaps this sense of pervasiveness contributed to his negative experience.

However, among the faculty who reacted more positively to online teaching, there was still a sense of pressure because of the twenty-four hour a day availability of the course. For example, Peter described flexibility as the “biggest benefit.” He continued, “However, the biggest benefit is its biggest curse. I’m...always the guy behind the curtain. I think they can always find me because I’m just a presence in cyberspace.” Peter talked several times about his students’ desire and expectations for rapid and frequent email contact. His comments reflected a

tension embedded in the flexibility of online teaching: students' awareness of faculty's ability to access the course anytime may result in the expectation that faculty are always available to answer questions. Peter was sometimes overwhelmed by the quickness with which the fifteen students in his media class would expect a response to his email.

It is not surprising then that Marton's online six-hundred student physics class made him feel like he had to "constantly check in on it...make sure the students are not running into a major problem." He said, "in the summer, the online classes are running during Saturday and Sunday so I do have to do that on the weekends. There are no weekends." Marton's remarks suggested that online teaching may have been encroaching on his free time or that he may have had to be more intentional about protecting his free time. Likewise, Ramona taught three one hundred-student summer sections of an online advertising class. After she described the benefits of flexibility, Ramona said:

On the flip side of that, you are on call...So even though you can be sitting...at the beach out in wherever...you can't just be gone cuz somebody's gonna ask a question on Tuesday night and someone's gotta answer a question in the morning...you have more flexibility but you still have a little more responsibility that comes with it...So it really was... sit down time intensive than just going in to a classroom, answering everybody's questions between 9 and 10 and walking out again.

Participants' comments about the pervasiveness and time-intensive nature of online teaching suggested that flexible is an incomplete description of online teaching. With the flexibility comes the need to find ways for faculty to balance their work and student demands.

Unreasonable expectations. Some of the participants struggled to balance their time during the "labor intensive" online teaching experience, as Monique described it. Monique cautioned faculty who have not taught online and novice online instructors to be mindful of the time commitment. She said:

People who are teaching, especially if they're new at it, they've gotta know it's labor intensive. And I think that people who haven't taught, they...look at the fact, 'oh, wow, you don't have to go to class...you have all this time.' No, you don't...it requires much more time, I think, than a face-to-face course.

Monique has been teaching face-to-face courses since the early 1990s and has been teaching online since 1997. As a senior faculty member and as an experienced online instructor, her words of caution about time-management seemed to be right on target. For example, Rick, who has been teaching face-to-face courses for eight years and online courses for one and a half years, said:

Well, I went into the summer teaching two online courses for the first time and I had fairly unreasonable expectations because like the students, I was thinking, 'oh, it's online, it'll be flexible' and I've already taught both of these courses before so it'll be easier. And I'll have enough time to get the research done over the summer as well. I was thinking...a few courses, half time and I'll have half time left over to do research. And it didn't work out that way at all...So I've done no research this summer.

Rick, like other participants, made a faulty assumption about the flexibility of online classes, underestimating the amount of time teaching online would take.

Summary: Impact of online teaching on flexibility. On the one hand, many participants appreciated the flexibility of online teaching. They acknowledged how online teaching benefits students and frees faculty up to work from a variety of locations on multiple projects simultaneously. These findings support the literature (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al. 2009; Hiltz, et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007) that shows that faculty view flexibility as a primary motivator for online teaching. Participants also acknowledged how technology tools like Webex, which they learned how to use through online teaching, can be leveraged in their face-to-face courses to fill in gaps if class needs to be cancelled or rescheduled.

On the other hand, many participants struggled to maintain a sense of balance when they taught online. They described teaching online as pervasive, citing students' demands for frequent and rapid email contact and the twenty-four hour a day availability of online courses.

Participants also talked about having to figure out how to create structure in their schedules to make space for online teaching, without letting it infringe upon their other work and their personal lives. These findings are also supported in the literature (Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Shea, 2007) that suggests that faculty need to be cautious about the flexibility afforded by online teaching.

Taken together, these findings point to a tension that accompanies online teaching: increased flexibility and the ability to teach from virtually any location may create challenges for faculty in terms of finding a sense of balance in their work and structuring their schedules.

Impact of Online Teaching on Autonomy

This section addresses findings related to the impact of online teaching on autonomy and academic freedom. In their book, *Rethinking Faculty Work*, Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2007) described autonomy as faculty members' ability to control the types of work assignments they have, enhancing their productivity, commitment, and satisfaction. They argued "the availability of new technologies have important implications for the nature and extent of the autonomy and control that faculty traditionally have experienced in their work" (p. 16). Gappa and colleagues (2007) pointed out that new technologies make some faculty feel threatened. Instead of having sole design rights over their courses, this responsibility is now shared among curriculum specialists, technology specialists, and faculty, calling into question to whom the courses belong and threatening their autonomy.

First, I discuss how participants did not express concerns about being forced to collaborate with others to design their courses. On the contrary, findings show participants' appreciation for their ability to make independent decisions about how to design their courses. These decisions included choices about which learning management system (LMS) to use. However, underlying this freedom was a tension. Even though many of the participants appreciated the freedom to design their courses, many of them did not know how to go about designing their courses and felt as if they spent an inordinate amount of time figuring out how to do so.

Second, I discuss findings that reflect questions of ownership discussed in the literature (e.g. Bacow et al., 2012; Dkykman & Davis, 2008; Gappa et al, 2007; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2007). After spending a great deal of time and energy on designing their courses, some of the participants indicated that they were unclear to whom the courses belonged. While some of the participants did not seem aware of these questions of ownership, for others these ownership and intellectual property issues were among the “biggest concerns” about online teaching. I was not surprised to hear participants raising similar issues to those documented in the literature about who owned their course content, who could access their course content, and how their course content could be used. But, there was some noticeable variation across the groups in terms of their awareness of and response to ownership and intellectual property issues, with participants with more teaching experience being more sensitive to these issues.

Freedom to make independent choices about course set up: “Free reign.” Ramona aptly described the experiences of many of the participants when she said she had “free reign” to design her online courses. Some participants described a list of course objectives they had from their department or a syllabus they had to follow, but were otherwise free to make all of the other

design choices. For the majority of the participants, no one was monitoring how they set up their courses or the tools they used to deliver them. Participants reacted to this freedom in a variety of ways.

For example, one of the participants really enjoyed this freedom. Kim described her unique approach to online teaching and her high degree of autonomy. She said:

I approached the online class in a very specific way, not necessarily in the way that online teaching is done or encouraged here...I modeled it after my own experience as an undergraduate in the late '70s, early '80s when we had correspondence courses. So I really modeled this [photography] course along that line...almost like an independent study with an individual professor. It's much looser along those lines and I had a lot more autonomy. I'm sure I'm teaching this quite different from the other teacher who teaches during the regular semester because I mean, summer is also...condensed.

Kim used online teaching as an opportunity to approach teaching in a different way than she did when she taught in person, and seemed quite pleased with the results. It is important here to note that Kim had twenty years of teaching experience and an undergraduate degree in education, which made her feel comfortable trying this new approach. For Kim, the ability to design her course without any guidelines made her feel highly autonomous.

Growing pains. Without any clear guidelines about how to approach course set up, the default design strategy for some participants was trying to “replicate as much as you could the face-to-face model,” as Walter put it when he described his earlier experiences teaching online. Walter explained, “Since it was an already existing course, I think I expected more would...organically roll from face-to-face to online than did...but...I think I was kind of dumb the first time through and I didn't record anything.” Similarly, Scott also used the word dumb to describe what he did the first time he taught online. He said:

I was confused on how to set it up.... There really wasn't much guidance in terms of the structure or the creation of an online course so I...started off with little more than Powerpoints.... that was the big problem I think that first time. I took the in classroom

syllabi and then kind of ...used that as a stepping-stone and then created Power Points. And then I was like, 'Well, this is the dumbest thing ever.'

When they translated content from their face-to-face courses to their online courses, Walter and Scott were both dissatisfied with students' level of engagement and inability to interact. But, like other participants, because of lack of guidelines, that was the first approach they tried.

Scott and Walter both tried new approaches after the first time they taught. For example, Scott worked closely with an instructional designer to set up karaoke in one of his acting classes so that students could read lines with someone live online. Walter began implementing mandatory synchronous sessions. He explained:

By the third time or so, I started using some version of teleconferencing, whether it was voice only or with a camera...I would do one live session a week. In a six-week program, initially I required that students actually attend in real time two of the six. I've since upped that to three. And if they couldn't attend the real time they had to write a paper. Every session was archived. They would have to go and watch the archive and write a detailed summary of the archive as a way...of proving that they did it. Because again...with that level of detachment, the fact that they're not sitting in front of you...you have to find ways to engage them.

While Scott had complete success with karaoke and Walter had mixed success with mandatory synchronous sessions, these choices show how they were able to make better use of the autonomy to design their courses, after figuring out which approaches were not successful and after gaining more experience.

However, this use of trial and error to design their courses was not without its frustrations. For example, several participants explained that they gave up on having synchronous meetings. Janice explained that synchronous meetings were: "messy and sloppy and students didn't really like it. They wouldn't turn their cameras on and then sometimes they would turn their cameras on and then I'd be seeing people's butt cracks as they turned around and walked away. There's babies crying. There's dogs barking." Despite Janice's dissatisfaction

with synchronous meeting tools, she was still able to exercise autonomy by deciding to stop using those tools. Both the tenured and the non-tenured participants demonstrated the same freedom to make choices about how to design their classes.

Choices about learning management system. In addition to making independent choices about how to design their classes, about a quarter of the participants exercised autonomy by choosing to abandon their university's LMS. It seemed as if this decision was spurred by dislike for the university's LMS and the desire for more convenient ways to manage the course. The majority of the participants who experimented with a LMS outside of the university seemed to have positive experiences, though there were some challenges related to needing technical support for working with the new system.

Several participants in each of the groups described a strong dislike for Blackboard, Angel, and Desire2Learn. They were extremely dissatisfied with the capacity of those systems to help them facilitate discussion and communicate with students. For example, Jack explained, "I despise Blackboard...discussions are clunky... and so I've been trying to figure out a way around Blackboard forever." Jack used Wordpress, a program to use to make free websites, to administer his course. Jack said that Wordpress was easier to manage than Blackboard. Jack described online teaching as easy and wanted to increase the number of courses he taught online. The strong negative language he used to describe his dislike of Blackboard suggests that if he did not have the autonomy to abandon Blackboard, he may not have had the easy experience he described.

Like Jack, Todd, at a different university, also disliked the university's LMS. He said, "we used to have Angel and Blackboard and the discussion groups on there were just...horrendous." Todd needed to facilitate online discussion in a class of 400 students. After

having negative experiences with the two different university LMSs, he experimented. He did some research and selected Piazza, a free online platform that can be synchronized with any LMS and is particularly useful for managing large discussions. Todd was very happy with this choice and said, “Piazza works really well” for discussions. Although Todd described his online teaching experience in predominantly negative terms, he was extremely impressed with Piazza and the ease with which he could communicate with a large number of students in online discussions. For Todd, the autonomy to work outside of the LMS helped him manage his online teaching, but did not change his negative opinion about it.

Two of Todd’s colleagues, each at a different institution, were also later in their careers and had positive experiences working outside of the LMS. Rachel, a photography instructor, did not abandon Blackboard entirely, but had her students use Google Blog Spot, a free blog site hosted by Google, to post their photographs. She explained, “We use Blackboard for posting all of our classroom materials...[Blackboard has] a blog embedded in it but being a visual person, it’s not manipulative enough. So I just use Google BlogSpot.” Rachel was satisfied with this decision and seemed to appreciate the freedom to be able to work outside of Blackboard.

Similarly, Harry also had a positive experience using systems outside of the university’s LMS. Harry said, “I had already played around with a lot of course management stuff...I had done a lot of reading...I knew...the difficulty of using WebCT ... I just found it so clumsy.” Instead, Harry used Google docs and Zoho, cloud services that operated independently from the university LMS, to manage his courses. Harry described working with technology throughout his teaching career and having the freedom to continue to learn more about technologies to support teaching as one of the highlights of his online teaching experience. Had he not had the autonomy to experiment, Harry may not have enjoyed online teaching as much as he did.

For Doug, who was earlier in his career, the experience of working outside of the LMS had some challenges related to needing technical support for the new system. These challenges seemed to undermine his autonomy a bit. Doug was the only person in the history department to teach online and was not interested in getting any assistance from his university to set up his class. Without a sample online course to look at for ideas about how to set up his class, Doug decided to use a textbook published by Pearson with a website companion. He explained, “So there were a lot of technical problems... Almost every time I taught it...I would rely pretty heavily on the representative of Pearson who was...available via email and then the tech people with Pearson and their online site.” Doug described his experience running his course through Pearson as “mixed” and explained that if he taught online again he would design the course himself. Though exercising his freedom to work outside of the LMS did not work out as well as he had hoped, it seemed as if Doug was appreciative of the freedom to make that choice.

There were some interesting similarities among the participants who opted to work completely or partially outside of the university LMS. First, both tenured and non-tenured faculty at all three institutions worked outside of the LMS. Second, each of the participants, with the exception of Doug, had technical training as part of their disciplinary background that made them comfortable experimenting with alternative systems. With the exception of Rachel, each of the participants who worked outside of the system was male. With the exception of Doug, all of the participants described primarily positive experiences working outside of the university LMS, regardless of how they described their overall experience teaching online.

Limited freedom. While the majority of participants described an appreciation of the freedom to make choices about how to set up their online classes, including the ability to work

outside of the university LMS, one participant described how online teaching limited his freedom. Rick explained:

There wasn't too much that limited freedom except for the syllabus. The syllabus for the online course was kind of ridiculous in terms of the number of sections we had to fill out compared to the normal syllabus you'd create for a course...The syllabus ended up seven pages. Normally, when I write a syllabus for a course, it's two pages, maybe two and a half, if that. This one is seven pages...So it's two to three times longer than what I would usually do for a syllabus... It's a template that comes from...some administrator at the university...This is what the powers that be have dictated to be the format of the syllabus for online classes.

Rick's comments suggested that he had less freedom to design the syllabus for his online course than for his face-to-face course. This sense of restricted freedom may have contributed to Rick's predominantly negative online teaching experience. Perhaps providing faculty with template syllabi for online courses detracts from their autonomy, particularly if the template is different than how they would design it themselves.

Frustration, confusion, and lack of awareness about course ownership. When courses are placed online, universities must navigate unfamiliar and murky waters of ownership and intellectual property. With the rise of online teaching, "the familiar textbook model in which faculty authors retain copyright does not always translate well for online course development" (Bacow et al., 2012, p. 22). The increased popularity of online teaching is raising questions of ownership, sparking a big conversation in the academy. For example, if a faculty member designs a course for a university and then leaves the university, does the course belong to the faculty or to the university? Paralleling the questions raised in the literature, many of the participants posed questions about course ownership.

Laid-back attitude. Some of the participants, particularly those with less teaching experience, were quite laid back about the idea that people other than students could access their classes. For example, Rick said:

I don't know who all could go in and look at my undergraduate course. When I ask the instructional designer to put the test up, he just went in and did it...he has access to it now. Presumably, he could get access to any of the others if he wanted to.

Rick felt "fine" about people looking at his courses and did not raise any questions about ownership or privacy, suggesting that course ownership issues were not a major concern. Scott, who created five online courses for the theater department, had a similar laid-back attitude. He said:

I have no connections to those courses...a lot of that stuff has been transformed...weird too now that you've created something and you have no idea how it's being taught... like your intellectual property or something.... I guess if you create a course when you're online teaching, it's the property of the department...I don't know. What are the rules?...Maybe at first I'd ask questions, but then I'd be like...do what you want.

Scott's questions about who owns his course even though he created it and is no longer teaching it are reflected in the literature (e.g. Bacow et al., 2012; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008).

Interestingly, this laid-back attitude seemed predominant among the faculty with less teaching experience.

Proceed with considerable caution. Some of the participants were more skeptical and cautious about whom they would allow to access course content. For example, Monique said that she was quite comfortable with the people at the Instructional Support Center accessing her online course. She explained, "I don't have a problem with it. It doesn't bother me. As a matter of fact, hopefully it makes things go quicker because when I have a question, I want an answer." On the other hand, if someone outside of the Instructional Support Center wanted to access her course, she would want to know for what purpose. She explained:

I haven't given anyone else permission...I never give guest permission...It's no different than...if I was in a classroom, if someone wanted to come in...I would permit them in but they would have a conversation with me about coming in. You don't just have someone...off the street just...come in. And, that's the attitude that I have about the guest pass.

For Monique, unless she had information about why someone outside of the Instructional Support Center would want to access her class, she was uncomfortable with the idea and seemed protective of her privacy. This desire to protect the privacy of the content of online courses is reflected in the literature (e.g. Bacow et al., 2012; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008).

Concerns about protecting privacy of course content may relate to concerns about course content being taken out of context and misused. For example, Monica explained:

The thing that I have concerns about...is intellectual property. That's a big issue... And there's not a heck of a lot we can do...because people can download things. They can do screen shots and all of those kinds of things...that's probably...the biggest downside to online teaching...I take a lot of time to develop my lectures and to use references and to really put together the format and the content and the way it's organized. It's my lecture. But...who's to say that somebody else hasn't downloaded that, taken my name off of it and slapped their own on it and taken credit for it?...Or even changed it around and used it and left my name on it. That to me would be even worse...that's my concern about it.

While Monica voiced strong concerns about the possibility of her work being misused or taken out of context, she was “happy to share things with people... but I like to know who I'm sharing it with and how it's being used.” Like Monica, Adrian was also concerned about misuse of course content. He explained:

The hybrid course I developed in 1965, many years ago, when I was no longer teaching the course, the director asked me to provide him with the electronic content to give to another professor... I said ‘But that's my content.’ He said, ‘Not really’...I [told the other professor] that you can use it if you use it fully. I don't want you to take a piece of what I'm saying and then put it in your class in a different way.

This incident underscores how important it is becoming for universities to design clear policies about who owns course content faculty design for online courses (Bacow et al., 2012).

After that incident, Adrian said, when he developed the online class he currently teaches, he asked more questions about who his content belonged to and how he would be compensated for designing the class. He said:

They paid me a little bit of money but it turned out to be 5 dollars an hour I think because it took me so long to develop it... but when I developed this course we had an agreement that if it's to be offered I get first offer and if I decline you can give it to somebody else. Technically, anybody can run the course at this point. It's free standing... This course is not fully mine [since I was paid extra for it]. So, we both learned from that. If the administrator wanted to have control over the content he had to pay for it.

Todd had a comparable disagreement with a dean in his department about course ownership and compensation that caused him to temporarily stop teaching online. Now that there is a new dean with a different attitude, he is teaching online again. Todd said:

There are financial incentives; there's money that can come back to the department with online courses. Well our previous dean... wanted all of it. Every cent. And... so why would we do this?... He was happier with 100% of nothing than having some smaller percent of something. Our new dean is... 100% reversed.

Based on Todd's concerns about course ownership, I was surprised when he invited me to view the website he created to give students access to course content. He said, "it's... freely available ... if you wanted to go on and play around with the course it's all there." Perhaps his ownership concerns had more to do with compensation than privacy, or perhaps he was not threatened or upset by the idea of sharing course content with a doctoral candidate who would only use it for research purposes.

It is interesting to note that both Adrian and Todd, who were tenured faculty members later in their careers, mentioned feeling like they were not properly rewarded for their teaching, a situation that must have been exacerbated by these disagreements with department administrators about course ownership. Both of these incidents are indicative of the conflict that can arise when there are no clear policies about who owns the online course and how its creators should be compensated (Bacow et al., 2012).

Desire to make course content public. While several of the participants who were later in their careers were wary about issues related to course ownership, there was an outlier. Harry

made much of his course content public and thought “it would be great” if other faculty used it. Because of his frustration with Blackboard, Harry put all of his slides on a “totally open” Google site. Though he was happy to share his content and was not concerned about privacy, he acknowledged that other faculty might be “proprietary.” He said:

Probably [at] every school, there are some areas somewhere where people don’t want their work freely... visible. Either because it feels proprietary...[But on the Google site] there was no password required. As far as I was concerned, I didn’t care whether anybody saw these slideshows. In fact, if they saw them and wanted to use them, that would be great. I’m not sure every faculty member feels that way. So having the ability to make parts of your campus site open I think is a good one.

Harry’s perspective on sharing content contradicted concerns about privacy indicated by his colleagues and indicated in the literature.

Summary: Impact of online teaching on autonomy. The use of new technologies is generating serious questions about the autonomy faculty have in their work. In some universities, the online course design process is being unbundled. When courses are unbundled, faculty may not design the courses they teach, raising questions about what it means to teach and own course content (Gappa et al. 2007). None of the participants voiced these concerns about unbundling. On the contrary, they appreciated the freedom to design their courses in ways that worked best for them. However, at the same time as they were grateful for this freedom, at times they felt uncertain about how to set up their classes and spent a lot of time experimenting with new approaches.

The use of new technologies is also generating serious questions about course ownership, which some university administrators and faculty are unprepared to answer (Bacow et al., 2012; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2007, 2008). My findings mirror the questions generated in the literature. I found that among the participants with less teaching experience, there was a laid-back attitude

about course ownership. Among the participants with more teaching experience, there were conflicts and concerns related to course ownership.

Taken together, these findings also support the idea of coexisting positive and negative aspects of online teaching. On the one hand, participants appreciated the ability to design their courses, but some were unsure how to do so and unsure to whom their courses belonged.

Impact of Online Teaching on Relationships with Students

This section addresses findings related to the impact of online teaching on participants' relationships with their students. Results from several studies (e.g. Hagedorn, 1996; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Rosser, 2005) have suggested that for some faculty, their relationships with students play an important role in their overall job satisfaction. Rosser (2005) argues "previous research has shown that the degree of faculty members' involvement (either positive or negative) with students contributes significantly to their overall satisfaction" (p. 88). On the other hand, research shows that when they teach online, faculty members do not form relationships with students the same way they do when they teach in person (Conceicao, 2006; Glass, 2012; Major, 2010). For example, results of the 2014 *Inside Higher Education* "Faculty Attitudes Toward Technology" survey showed that "faculty were most skeptical about the quality of online courses in terms of the 'interaction with students' during class"" (Jaschik & Lederman, 2014, p. 16). Jaschik and Lederman's (2014) findings raise important questions about how faculty experience relationships with students when they teach online.

First, I discuss several participants' comments about how online teaching helped them get to know students on a deeper level, and how students were more engaged than they were in face-to-face classes. These findings parallel prior research (e.g. Conceicao, 2006; Glass, 2012; Shea, Pelz, Fredericksen, & Pickett, 2001; Wasilik & Bolliger, 2009) that shows that for some faculty,

one of the rewarding aspects of online teaching is that they are able to build deeper relationships with students and get a better sense of what students are learning.

Second, I discuss how several participants described an inability to connect with their students in a meaningful way, explained that it was more difficult to motivate and engage students, and felt that the lack of verbal cues made communication more difficult and impersonal. These findings parallel prior research (e.g. Glass, 2012; Wasilik & Bolliger, 2009) that suggests that some faculty experienced difficulties getting to know their students online, and determining if and what students are learning, and did not derive meaning from their interactions with students.

Get to know students better, high quality participation, and high student engagement. When they teach online, faculty may not relate to students the same way they do in the classroom. For example, Conceicao (2006), based on a study of ten faculty members who were teaching at universities in the United States and Canada with between two and sixteen years of online teaching experience, concluded, “the online experience brings new dimensions to the teaching practice when there is an absence of physical presence...the experience is rewarding in new ways” (p. 26). There are four ways that my findings support this study. First, some participants were able to get to know students better than they did in face-to-face classes. Second, some participants described online teaching as more engaging for students. Third, some participants explained that some students were more independent in online courses. Fourth, a few participants talked about being able to give students rich feedback.

Students respond to the “power of anonymity.” Peter used the phrase “power of anonymity” to describe how comfortable some students feel in online courses. He explained:

They don’t really know who I am...they know my face from looking online but I don’t really know who they are. They’re an online presence. So they can say just pretty much

anything. Which can be quite positive. So I have students who would probably say nothing in class about some very sensitive topics but online, they are a voice in cyberspace...They feel more comfortable saying just whatever is on their mind.

Like Peter, a few other participants used the word anonymous in a positive way to describe their interactions with students online. Scott said: "My expectations were that it would be a lot more faceless and a lot more anonymous and by the end you develop a rapport...And that was surprising to me." While Scott described the rapport he developed with his students, Ramona described the higher level of responsiveness she experienced. She said:

The in-person class that I have is very large...It's really me spitting out information to people. The online class, and maybe it's--...you're anonymous-- you get a lot more response from students. I do, at least. They are much more willing to comment. They are much more willing to discuss things in the classroom that I know they wouldn't be saying.

Notably, in this context the word anonymous was not used in a negative way as it is sometimes used in the literature (e.g., Major, 2010) to describe the impersonal nature of faculty's relationships with students in online courses. Here, participants were referring to a sense of safety or privacy students experience in online classes that causes them to share more.

"It's more engaging." Matt described online teaching as "more engaging." He explained:

People who haven't taught online may be skeptical but I feel like it's more engaging. I'm able to interact with students more...in the in-class format, even in a small class, the majority of students are really reluctant to speak up...there's always...a few students who are very willing to speak up and dominate the conversation. I feel like the conversation is more balanced [online]...students feel like they can be more opinionated in an online format than they would in a class where they're kind of holding back a little.

Jack echoed Matt's comments about students being more engaged in online classes than they are in face-to-face courses. Jack said:

I think [online teaching is] great...I think it's particularly good when it comes to engaging all of the students in the class...If I teach a course of 35 students...in person, I'll have maybe eight to 10 people who contribute on a continuing basis. And here, everyone's forced to become involved...engaged in an argument in a good sense of the word.

For these participants, there seemed to be a high level of satisfaction with the quality of students' participation in online courses.

A few of the participants were also pleased with students' engagement with social media tools. For example, Ramona said:

I find the ability to connect and use a lot of the various social media that I've tried in class but people don't jump on that bandwagon quite as readily...being able to watch somebody's twitter feed or being able to see what people are posting on a padlet wall...So they're a lot more engaged and you see a lot more participation. It makes it more fun cuz I hear more about what's going on. I know more about what's going on with the online people than I do with the in-class sometimes.

Rachel made a similar comment, noting how students engaged well with each other in the online format. She said: "I look at the blog and I see the students engaging on this wonderful kind of conversation with each other, that they're using the terminology from the first lesson...and it's all working." Scott explained, "students use a lot of varying tools and it's pretty creative what they come up with." Interestingly, Ramona, Rachel, and Scott each taught in disciplines that value creativity (advertising, photography, and theater) and their comments seemed to indicate that it was possible for students to demonstrate creativity in online courses. In addition, each of these participants had primarily positive online teaching experiences, perhaps partially because of their satisfaction with students' participation.

Students "understand that there is a lot more self-responsibility." While some of the literature (e.g., Glass, 2012; Major, 2010) suggests that faculty may have trouble motivating students in online classes, several participants commented that students were more independent.

For example, Ramona said:

I...like how everything is so clean cut...The students don't depend on having me remind them every day that they have to do this or they should be looking at this because it's...out there. And most of them understand that there is a lot more self-responsibility in an online class than there is [in a face-to-face class]... I have a lot of freshman and a lot of sophomores and they need their hand held to some extent. And they do online too but in

the classroom they seem to think it's all my responsibility to make sure that they keep on track. And in online--and it's not that I really have told them that—they just seem to take up the role more.

Ramona's comment suggests a level of surprise about students' ability to figure out what they need to do to "keep on track" in online courses. Doug also seemed pleasantly surprised. He said:

Some of the students wrote really, really good essays. They would...perform extremely well...on tests and map quizzes... So that was good to see. That students didn't necessarily need me to be present in order for them to get something out of the class...so that I think is rewarding!

Interestingly, Ramona and Doug both explained that they did a lot of lecturing in their face-to-face classes, which they both described as putting on performances for their students. Perhaps their feeling of not having to perform online made them more sensitized to students' abilities to learn without their performances.

In support of Ramona and Doug's comments about students showing more self-responsibility, a few other participants talked about how students seemed to do more work in online courses. For example, Janice said:

When... they're in a face to face class...they still are supposed to read and they're supposed to post but I think ...with the online class, the same amount of their grade is connected to their post...I think it's not as easy as, 'Well, I'm gonna go to class and I'll hear about it in class. Or we'll talk about it in class'...it seems like they're doing more. Of the actual work.

Like Janice, Matt talked a great deal about how he "still ha[s] the same gratifying outcomes [he] had in the [in-person] class." One of the biggest benefits of online courses, Matt explained, was that students were "actually doing the readings...They're not coming to class--they're coming to the schoology site, but they're more prepared." These findings contradict the literature (e.g., Jaschik & Lederman, 2014) that shows that the majority of faculty members are skeptical about the quality of students' learning in online classes.

Students receive better feedback. A few participants talked about being able to give better feedback to students in their online courses than they can in their face-to-face courses. For example, Janice said:

I teach big classes, 120 students, usually face-to-face. So when I only have 25 students, I feel like I can have more...connection with them, even though it's online and it would seem maybe not intuitive that I have more connection with them. But it's a smaller group so...I'm doing more of the grading cuz I usually have a grader when I have 120 students. So I'm probably responding more and adding more things. Like just this last class...we don't read about this, but [a student] mentioned in one of his posts about...the privatization of the prison system and so...in my response to his...I'm able to suggest, 'Well, there's this book...you might be interested in reading.'...And I feel like I'm doing that more when I have the online classes cuz they're smaller.

Janice seemed pleased by her ability to give deeper feedback to students. Similarly, Scott said, "I always give really specific notes to each individual...and I have a personal relationship with them." These comments suggest some faculty believe that they give students in their online classes better feedback than the students in their face-to-face classes.

Hard to get to know students, low quality participation, low student engagement.

The set of findings in this section run counter to the findings I presented in the last section. For example, while some participants believed that it was easier to engage students in online courses, here I describe other participants' comments about the difficulty of engaging students in online courses. Indeed, the findings in this section parallel survey results that showed that "faculty are reserved about the quality of online classes compared with in-person classes" (Jaschik & Lederman, 2014, p. 7). There are four ways my findings supported this study. First, some participants felt lonely when they taught online and did not get to know their students. Second, some participants described online teaching as impersonal and unsatisfying, and struggled to form relationships with students in the absence of visual cues. Third, some participants struggled

to ascertain the extent of students' learning online. Fourth, high levels of cheating were frustrating to several participants.

Online classes are “lonely”. Two participants used the word lonely to describe their online teaching experiences. Rick said:

Online teaching is lonely and painful...I don't see any students and I like to talk to my students and I like to be with students and watch how they're progressing and I don't see them. To a large extent, I don't even know what they look like.

Rick attributed the loneliness to the way online teaching is “depersonalizing the learning environment.” The lack of face-to-face contact with students also made Scott lonely. He said:

I think the lonely part of it is...there's nothing better than being in a classroom...there's nothing better than taking the content and growing it to a new place based on discussion. And that's a little difficult...there's not really that immediate tangential teaching that can be so exciting...despite that you do know these students, you don't really know these students

Scott's comment reflects some of the tensions of online teaching. On the one hand, he appreciated being able to get to know his students, but on the other hand, he seemed to miss out on not really knowing his students.

Scott described online teaching as lonely not just for him, but for his students as well. He continued, students “don't speak either. They're just spending all of their time in their head. There is no verbal interaction. I find that can be lonely.” Similarly, Peter talked about how students were unable to get to know each other in online classes. He said a lot of students in his face-to-face courses:

Have noted, even in my larger course...that the relationships that they develop with the students in the class... are incredibly important. And when they leave a class having that cohort is very important to them. They don't get that same feeling in an online course... They don't have a relationship with each other...By the end of it, they...often do feel comfortable talking with me both online and afterward in person, but they haven't a clue who their classmates might be. And that's a part of communication I think that a lot of the students really miss.

Ironically, while some students seemed to struggle to get to know each other, they did not struggle to get to know Peter.

In addition to students not knowing each other, several participants talked about not knowing who their students were. For example, Adrian taught classes with 600 students. He said, “Over a 4 year period 20 percent of [the university] has had my class... Sometimes when I’m out walking I wonder how many people know who I am and if I had them in my class or not...I have no idea who they are.” Scott taught classes with between fifteen to twenty-five students and explained that he often would not know who his students were if he saw them in person. He explained:

It’s so weird because you would go into [the store] and people would be...checking you out at the cash thing and they’re like ‘oh, you’re my teacher in class.’ And you’re like, ‘wow that’s weird.’...People would say, ‘Oh, I really enjoyed your class’ and you had no idea who they were.

Even with a smaller number of students, Scott’s comments suggest that it may be difficult for faculty to recognize students in online classes. Kim explained that she had students who took her online courses and then took her face-to-face courses, but she did not know them. She said:

I don’t know my students at all...when a couple of them popped up in my class and I said, ‘What brought you to this class?’ and they said... ‘Don’t you remember me? I took that online course with you.’ No, I didn’t even make that connection because I never saw them...and now I’m looking at somebody...that’s you....All you have is the name...and what they turned in.

While some participants described the benefits of anonymity, other participants described some of its disadvantages.

The “human aspect” is missing. Kim’s phrase, the “human aspect,” aptly captured what some participants explained was lacking in online teaching. Kim explained:

When people can see you...they can read who you are as a person. And they know how to...approach you and they know whether you distance yourself or not because they can see you. They can tell by the tone of your voice, they understand you have a sense of

humor. They understand part of your style...And, it's really difficult to get that online. That human aspect...It's kind of impersonal in a way that the best teaching is very personal ...so that's a tough one.

Like Kim, other participants pointed out some of the challenges of not being able to see students in front of you and how they missed that aspect of teaching. Todd said, "Part of the fun of being an instructor is interacting with your students. And you lose that...You can talk all about...social networking...but...you miss the personal contact and I think you miss it as instructor." Like Todd, Doug described the "adverse reaction" of teaching on his relationships with students. He said:

When you're teaching online, you're not really interacting personally with students... Some of the students in particular--the good ones--the ones I wouldn't mind seeing in my office hours or seeing on campus--to...talk to them about-for example-becoming a history major... But that's unlikely to happen. It's unlikely to develop in a sort of organic way. In the same way that when you see somebody two or three times a week personally it does...the down side is not getting to know them...more directly.

Doug's comment illustrates concerns about losing an element of teaching that many instructors value: face-to-face interaction. His comment also illustrates the challenge of the absence of non-verbal communication.

Heavy reliance on email, for some participants, seems to confound the absence of verbal cues and make it harder to get to know students. Marton said:

I don't see the [students]...Sometimes they are polite, when they communicate online. But because they don't know me and I don't know them, we are just an email address to each other. And, sometimes they get upset and not so polite...we always know each other's name. It's not anonymous.

Marton's use of the word anonymous connotes a depersonalization and a sense of detachment.

Monica echoed the "challenges" of communicating over email. She said:

One of the other challenges, too, in regard to online teaching is the communication aspect through email...because people can misinterpret email so easily. I can and so can students. And if I'm in a rush...I see an email and I quickly just fire off a response so I can respond to it, it can sometimes appear to be a curt response and I don't mean it that

way, or students can contact me and it can come across as being very irate and rude to me in the way that they're phrasing.

These comments support Conceicao's (2006) findings that show that one of the factors to which participants attributed the challenging nature of online teaching was lack of eye contact and verbal communication cues.

Are students "actually getting this material?" Lack of verbal cues and face-to-face interaction also made it more difficult for participants to gauge what students were learning. Peter described the "frustration of trying to understand...are my students actually getting this material?...There is a meta communication that happens when you see someone. You know they're getting it. That obviously can't happen online."

Other participants mentioned similar challenges related to how to discern if students were keeping up with the work, in the absence of visual cues. Rachel said, "I have to trust their own motivation skills and there are many assessments that I put in place to make sure that they're keeping up. But still...that eye contact is not there and that is different for me." While Todd acknowledged that he could gather some feedback on how his students were doing through Piazza, the quality of this feedback was not the same as he was able to gather in his face-to-face classes. He said:

You can feel some stress through questions being asked on Piazza...so one of the things that Piazza does is that it does let you gather statistics about... students...who is just looking at the question, who's answering questions...you can get all that... there are plenty of students who just look and never ask, which is fine, but then you have no way of getting any temperature on those people. Whereas, if they're totally stressed out in the classroom, you can at least get a reading out of them.

These comments underscored the difficulty of collecting data on students' progress without verbal cues.

Several participants also seemed frustrated by students' failure to read emails or course materials. Peter seemed to capture this experience when he said that one of the challenges of online teaching was "The feeling of repeating one's self consistently, even though it's in writing and it's online." Other participants offered examples that supported Peter's comment. For example, Adrian said, the "syllabus is pretty detailed, but they often don't read them. Rather than go to the FAQ they'll send me a question that's already been answered." Marton described similar difficulties. He said:

This is a generation who when they get an email, the longer the message gets...they say I'm not going to read it. Where is the syllabus? And of course it was ...the first or second line in the message, but they don't get that far either. So it's a little bit challenging.

When students do not read the syllabus or email, it becomes more difficult for faculty to communicate with them and to assess student progress.

To make up for lack of face-to-face contact and to try to get a better idea of how students were progressing, some participants experimented with synchronous communication tools like Webex or Skype. Walter and Gina were the only participants who made any positive comments about students' response to synchronous communication. Gina said:

I modeled it after my face-to-face course...and...because I...do synchronous...I'm doing what I do in the classroom only I'm doing it on a computer. So, in the same way that I would interact with face-to-face students, I am interacting with the students who are present during the synchronous sessions.

Gina felt that these synchronous sessions were an important part of students' learning. The sessions were not required, and she said attendance was varied. In contrast, Walter required synchronous sessions. He said "It made a huge difference having everybody be able to see each other."

At the same time, Walter, and several other participants, acknowledged the problems with synchronous sessions. He said, "What I did notice this term was as the term went on,

students started having more camera problems...The dog ate my camera.” Walter told a story about a student who turned her web camera on during a synchronous meeting, but was doing something completely unrelated to class that she did not mean for Walter or her classmates to see. Lee had similar problems with web cameras. He said, “A lot of them just started turning off their cameras...disabling their microphones...so that half the students were partying in their room and pretending to just...log into class. It was really frustrating.” Many students, Rick explained, just did not bother to attend synchronous sessions. Rick said, “the synchronous sessions get typically less than 50% attendance and then...half...never said anything.”

Some participants did not try synchronous meetings because they anticipated they would be too difficult. Jack explained that he did not use synchronous sessions “because I find it too difficult to get people at the same time to do something...scheduling is just horrible and so I’ve just kind of given it up.” Kim voiced similar concerns and was adamant about the idea that synchronous sessions were not always appropriate for online classes. With the exception of Walter and Gina, the other participants either gave up on synchronous sessions or did not try them. Use of synchronous tools then, for most participants, did not appear to be a useful way to get better feedback on students’ progress.

Which students “are actually in front of the computer?” Doug, along with several other participants, raised this question. He said:

Maybe... the faculty are just paranoid...but you could see a circumstance in which, for example, a boyfriend or a girlfriend would type up an essay response for...each other... So I think there’s a bit of a loophole there. Again, I don’t...fret about it excessively. But you do wonder...whether the students are collaborating in some way that allows them not to be really engaging in the material that you want them to be.

Doug’s comment captured a sense of helplessness about how to determine if students were cheating. Similarly, Monica said, “I have concerns about...the lack of being able to know

whether people are randomly cheating. And there's not a heck of a lot we can do about the cheating part of it." Faculty's concerns about cheating are attributed to the physical distance between the instructor and student and not knowing who is in front of the computer (Dietz-Uhler & Hurn, 2011), and my findings also reflected this concern.

Rick and Adrian explained how lack of face-to-face contact and not knowing students well made it more difficult to deal with cheating. Adrian said:

There's one element I'm not so sure I like. It has to do with the fact that you don't have a relationship. Like in a classroom...we'll have a relationship, and they know who I am and what I expect. Just more social norms are in place. I think when people come to the exams, they don't know me that well, and it's less hesitant to cheat.

Adrian's course was completely asynchronous but he delivered the final exam in person, and "called three people out last semester" for cheating during the exam. Adrian described cheating during an in-person exam, but was also skeptical about cheating during online quizzes. He said, "I don't know if they're actually doing the online quizzes, it can be anybody." Rick also talked about catching students cheating. He explained:

I run into cheating a lot...on average one or two a year...And in nine years, I've only had two instances of a person who is caught cheating who just sat there and lied to my face and said 'no, I wasn't cheating', even when they're presented with the blatant evidence that they were cheating. And I did have this again with this person, who was cheating in this course. Happened yesterday which was frustrating...you don't see the people so cheating in this class would've been painfully easy.

Paralleling the literature (e.g., Lanier, 2006; Young, 2012) that talks about problems with cheating in online classes, several participants mentioned students who cheated in their classes. This type of behavior would seem to have a negative impact on faculty's interactions with students.

Summary: Impact of online teaching on faculty's relationships with students.

Faculty's satisfaction with their interactions with their students affects their overall job

satisfaction (Hagedorn, 1996; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Rosser, 2005). On the one hand, findings showed that several faculty members seemed pleased about aspects of interacting with students in online classes. For example, when faculty do not see students, they get to know them better; when faculty or peers are not in front of them students participate more; when faculty are not at the front of the room lecturing, students take more responsibility for learning; and when faculty grade the work of students they do not see, students get better feedback. Some of these findings may seem counterintuitive or ironic, but they underscore the value faculty place on rich interactions with students (Jaschik & Lederman, 2014).

On the other hand, findings showed that several faculty members, including some of the faculty who spoke positively about interacting with students in online courses, were frustrated about aspects of interacting with students in online classes. For example, faculty described online teaching as lonely and impersonal, faculty struggled to communicate with students without verbal cues, faculty had trouble discerning students' progress, and faculty were taken aback by students' cheating. Mirroring Wasilik and Bolliger's (2009) findings, two sources of dissatisfaction for faculty who teach online were lack of face-to-face contact and inconsistent engagement among students.

Taken together, these findings illuminate the tensions inherent in online teaching. For every positive comment about faculty and student interaction online, there was a negative comment. Some participants made both positive and negative comments, whereas some participants spoke entirely negatively about faculty student interaction in online classes.

Impact of Online Teaching on Relationships with Colleagues

The section addresses findings related to the impact of online teaching on relationships with colleagues. The value of strong, supportive, and collaborative relationships with colleagues

is important to faculty's satisfaction, productivity, commitment, and professional growth (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008). O'Meara and her colleagues describe these relationships as "interactions that provide personal and professional support; that stimulate, facilitate, and shape learning; and that strengthen faculty capacity to bring the best of their talents to their work roles" (2008, p. 29). Supportive relationships among faculty who teach online can foster faculty's learning about online teaching and help broaden their collegial networks (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008).

Findings in the literature are mixed with regard to how teaching online impacts faculty's relationships with colleagues when they teach online. While some faculty members seek out communities in which they can discuss their online teaching (Chen, 2009; Ertmer, 2006; Green et al., 2009; Keengwe & Kyei-Blankson, 2010; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007), others do not (Hiltz et al., 2007; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Orr et al., 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008).

First, I discuss findings that show that some participants felt supported by colleagues when they taught online. Primary sources of support included staff at instructional support centers that helped them design their online classes. In addition, participants benefited from faculty learning communities (FLCs) where they met with their peers to discuss online teaching. These findings support the literature (Chen, 2009; Ertmer, 2006; Green et al., 2009; Keengwe, Kidd & Kyei-Blankson, 2010; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007) that suggests that faculty valued the opportunity to get assistance with designing their courses and to discuss online teaching together.

Second, I discuss findings that reflect the literature that suggest that teaching online can be isolating for faculty (Bailey & Card, 2009; Betts & Sikorksi, 2008; Glass, 2012; Shea et al., 2001). A few participants described a sense of being in the dark in terms of how their colleagues were approaching online teaching, being on different pages than their colleagues in their

approach to online teaching, or not having colleagues with whom to discuss online teaching. This sense of isolation can detract from the learning that can occur in supportive and nurturing professional communities (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008).

Support for online teaching: Forming relationships with adjunct instructors.

Finding showed that there were several sources of support: relationships with faculty members, use of the instructional support center, collaboration with colleagues on projects, and FLCs.

Several of the participants talked about gaining support for online teaching from their colleagues. Rachel and Gina talked about supportive relationships with part-time adjunct faculty members. Rachel said:

I felt like it...was a collaboration with an adjunct faculty member [who had already taught the course online]...The first day, I emailed her immediately. 'Hey, it's 9:00. Nobody's responded to my email.' She's like, 'just relax.' So there was this... collaboration going on back and forth. It was more that I was writing the lectures and passing those onto her and she was giving me advice on how to actually create a community.

Rachel, who was new to online teaching, described this relationship with the adjunct faculty member as the closest thing she had to a mentor when she began to teach online. Gina worked with an adjunct faculty member to design a template for the online course she was teaching, after she had taught it a few times. Gina said: "The one teacher and I who designed this for future teachers got to know each other better... And we each kind of learned something from each other." Gina and Rachel seemed to appreciate the opportunity to build relationships with adjunct faculty members who helped them with their online teaching.

Using the instructional design center for support. Several other participants talked about seeking support from the instructional support center. Kim said:

I know sometimes the biggest problem with online is that...you're working in isolation in a way and it's nice to have these other places to go...If I needed help, I know I could call

up [staff person] who runs our online educational programs and run ideas past her and she'd be able to give me advice to do this or that.

Like Kim, Rachel, at the same institution, seemed impressed with the level of support from the instructional support center. She said there is "this wonderful whole area that oversees online teaching. Just an amazing resource." Monica and Adrian, at different institutions, both had point people they would call for help at the instructional support center. Adrian stated:

If there were technical issues...I can reach out to the regular [Desire2Learn] D2L helpline. They must know my number. I don't hesitate to call. If I'm not finding a satisfactory solution I'll reach higher up...when I was having D2L problems and I couldn't get them solved I'd get in touch with [higher up staff person].

Similarly, Monique said, "I'm constantly in touch with the instructional support center."

Interestingly, the faculty members who described relying on the instructional support centers were later in their careers. Perhaps they felt less confident about their technology skills, or knew who to call for help. Ramona, who was also later in her career, emphasized the importance of working with the instructional design center, particularly for faculty who are new to online teaching. She said:

Go to [the instructional support center]...Well, it's amazing how many people don't or they don't even know it exists. Which I was just baffled by. Cuz I said to somebody... 'Well, did you talk to anybody over there?' And they looked at me like 'what's that?'... It's that resource that you have for free.

Ramona did take her own advice: setting up an appointment at the instructional support center was the first thing she did when she learned she was going to be teaching online.

Comparing notes with colleagues. Several participants talked about learning about online teaching from colleagues. For example, Kim "compared notes" about online teaching with one of her colleagues in California. She said:

Before I signed up to do this, I called her up and I said, 'All right, I know you've done online teaching. This is a [photography] studies course. Wonder if there's any tips or techniques...not on the curriculum...but...management and you could tell me...best

practices that I have no idea [about] because I've never done it. And she gave me some really sage advice.

Though Kim had twenty years of experience teaching face-to-face classes, due to her lack of experience teaching online, she found her colleague's advice about how to manage online classes to be very beneficial.

Similarly, Lee described learning about online teaching from one of his colleagues. He said:

[This faculty member] started getting...worldwide attention for some of the things that he was writing...relating gaming with education, which had a lot to do with computers in education. And so he started discovering...teaching tools which might make... pedagogy a lot easier, maybe even more appealing to students, much more interactive. And they look pretty cool... We would get together once in a while and then exchange ideas or talk about tools that we had heard about and introduce them to other people.

Even though Lee "thought about using" some of the teaching tools, when he "realized that online teaching is just not for me," he "didn't bother following up on it." But, his comment suggests that even though he did not like online teaching, he did learn about new teaching tools from his colleague.

Rachel detailed "interesting" conversations with colleagues, and non-academics, about online teaching. She said they talked about the following issues that emerged:

Difficulties and the excitement and...are there benefits?...What is the 21st century classroom going to look like?...It's interesting because I have a circle of academic friends, those are the kinds of things that people that are beginning teaching and quite frankly are retired are still interested in...And I guess that what's interesting about the online stuff, and social media in general, because not all faculty participate in it, is the community that it does form. That I can form a community pretty tightly with my colleagues in my area. Or maybe not so tightly, quite frankly, because some of them are adjuncts and they're not there all the time. In other areas, they're in a different part of the building. I don't even see them. And what's intriguing for me is how online then has fostered a different kind of community across disciplines and even within the same discipline of people that just because of time situations can't see each other. So in some ways, my not being there all the time has actually been supplanted by the more interesting, more encompassing kind of community that I've created with the online and social media relationships.

Rachel's remarks raise questions about what community means and what professional relationships now look like in the academy, with the rise of part-time faculty members and online teaching assignments that do not require faculty to come to the office. These conversations are also an example of the rich learning that can occur when faculty share ideas with each other (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008).

Collaborating on projects. Scott and Peter talked about support in the form of collaborating with other colleagues they met through online teaching. Scott said:

I just did a production of Peter Pan set in colonial India. And there were collaborators from all over campus...[Technology tools have]... helped me share work and information... because theater is such an immediate form...there's the information from the choreographers that need to go to the costumers that also impacts the lighting designer...because of the online presence and my ability to facilitate a bunch of conversations online...I think that's a way in which it helped...my ability to collaborate online with people.

Peter, in media and telecommunications, described how being online more prompted him to reach out to other colleagues with shared interests. He said:

I sent a bunch of the links that we're using in one of my hybrid courses to the head of the advertising department. Being online forces me to find examples of things online...we were exchanging [messages]... there's a series of ads...[about] the notion of social inclusion and we were having this ongoing discussion... I think that it opens up possibilities for me to find out what other people are doing. And to potentially do some collaboration.

For Scott and Peter, support for online teaching came from new ideas for collaborations with colleagues.

Faculty learning communities (FLCs). While the findings described above represented examples of informal support and collaboration, a few participants found formal sources of support and collaboration through their involvement in FLCs. Ramona and Scott were in the

same FLC. They both talked about what they gained from participating in a FLC that was designed to orient them to D2L. Ramona said:

What's been more rewarding is joining this faculty learning community.... So there's all these people...who are into online teaching. I've learned more just from these guys...and talking to them...cuz we have a Facebook group...I had a student... who was in the online class, didn't pay her bill, and D2L drops you...I go on Facebook and say 'Hey, have you guys ever seen this?'...So I've learned a lot more from that recent participation than workshops...lately.

Ramona appreciated the FLC for introducing her to colleagues to turn to for troubleshooting.

Scott used his involvement in the FLC to work on collaborative projects with colleagues. He said:

[In the FLC, I am working] to create an online, collaborative depository or hub to connect people...on campus that want to collaborate. In theater, specifically, we're doing eight or nine shows a year of subjects about...which we are not experts, but there are experts on campus...It's finding people, first, and then finding a plan. I think that's what's happening.

The FLC helped Scott achieve one of his goals: collaborating with other faculty with an interest in theater.

Feelings of isolation. Findings from the literature (Bailey & Card, 2009; Betts & Sikorksi, 2008; Glass, 2012; Shea et al., 2001) suggest that teaching online can be isolating for faculty. They may lack support from colleagues or their institutions, or they may not have anyone to talk to about their experiences teaching online. Without this support, some faculty may feel uncertain about how to go about online teaching. Some of my findings parallel this literature.

“On a different page.” This is how Lee explained his conversations with colleagues about online teaching. He said:

The issues that...matter to me didn't really seem to be much of a big deal for anybody else...but the kind of discussion questions and the arguments that I would try to raise and get people to think...was... not what other people were doing...so the...department would

have a weekly faculty enrichment program where colleagues would share whatever it is that they were into that might help teaching the material that we're teaching [online]. And I would float some ideas by and no one would respond, no one was interested...in anything I was doing.

Lee seemed isolated from his colleagues whose approach to online teaching was quite different from his. He continued:

The way other people would try to conduct their class did not challenge any of the underlying assumptions that students brought with them to the class. And that's what I wanted to do...but everybody else sort of seemed to say.... 'that's not the way to do it.'

Perhaps this sense of isolation contributed to Lee's decision to stop teaching online.

Working in a vacuum. On the other hand, Ramona enjoyed teaching online and found her participation in a FLC about online teaching meaningful. But, she also described a sense of isolation. She said:

I have this little community cuz I've become involved. But there doesn't seem to be any general departmental...I have no idea what colleagues are doing. I don't know what their online classes are. I don't know what kind of assignments they use. I don't know what kind of testing they use. And I think it would be beneficial [if that]... information...was known and shared...it would be nice if I said, 'I really need to find a new online testing system and I know that so and so is using this.'... but right now I would never know that unless I tried to track everybody down and ask them what they are doing.

For Ramona, it seemed as if her sense of community within which to discuss online teaching was a bit incomplete, and that she would benefit from having a better sense of what tools her colleagues were using in their online classes.

Similarly, even though online teaching played a big role in Harry's work, he did experience some isolation. At the close of our interview, Harry said:

I think I may have...overdone my welcome here...but I enjoyed the chance to talk about it because...I never get a chance to talk at this type of level or even think about what it's done for me. So thank you for giving me the chance to do this.

Clearly, Harry was grateful for the opportunity to discuss online teaching in depth, and this opportunity for discussion was missing from his experience.

Summary: Impact of online teaching on relationships with colleagues. When faculty members feel as if they belong to an academic community to which they can add, they are more likely to be satisfied, productive, and committed to their work (Gappa et al., 2007). My findings show that teaching online may increase a sense of community among faculty because they seek out people to talk to about this new experience. Participants described feeling supported by other colleagues who taught online or worked at instructional support centers. Participants also described how online teaching helped generate ideas for collaboration and spur participation in FLCs. These findings support O'Meara and her colleagues' contention that "Regardless of what the contextual change may be (...new technologies)...it is likely to shift how professors act and interact on the job; their new actions and interactions may spur new thought and new learning—and possibly growth" (2008, p. 88). These findings show that online teaching may enhance a sense of community, and enhance professional growth.

On the other hand, teaching online may decrease a sense of community because faculty members do not think that there are people to talk to about this experience. My findings show that different ideas about how to teach online, lack of knowledge about how their colleagues are approaching online teaching, and lack of people to talk to about online teaching may cause a sense of isolation.

Taken together, these findings suggest a tension. On the one hand, some participants felt as if they were part of a supportive professional community when they taught online. On the other hand, some participants did not feel as if they were part of a supportive professional community when they taught online.

Impact of Online Teaching on Professional Growth

In this section, I discuss findings that relate to the impact of online teaching on professional growth. O'Meara and colleagues (2008) described professional growth as "change that occurs in a person throughout his or her academic career or personal life and that allows her or him to bring new and diverse knowledge, skills, values, and professional orientations to their work" (p. 23). Professional growth is also an essential component of faculty's satisfaction, productivity, and commitment to their work. The importance of faculty being able to experience professional growth is particularly important as new technologies are reshaping faculty work and, therefore, faculty members must manage the challenges of learning how to become proficient with new technology tools (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008).

First, I discuss findings that support the value of the availability of ongoing professional development opportunities that offer continued support for faculty who are working with new technologies (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008). Findings show that the majority of participants appreciated the opportunity to attend professional development about online teaching and make presentations about what they have learned from teaching online at their professional associations. On the other hand, several participants either did not have the time or incentive to attend these programs or thought that these programs were inadequate.

Second, I discuss findings that support the literature that suggests that teaching online prompts faculty to rethink their teaching (e.g. Koehler & Mishra, 2005, 2009; Major, 2010; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Peruski & Mishra, 2004). Many participants talked about how teaching online caused them to reassess their teaching strategies and to incorporate more technology in their face-to-face classes. Even among the participants who did not enjoy teaching online, some were able to recognize how it helped them rethink their teaching.

Third, I discuss findings that show that online teaching helps faculty develop new ideas for projects and research. This finding supports the literature (e.g., Meyer, 2012) that suggests that teaching online often helps faculty generate new research questions. Even though online teaching may take time away from their other work, many faculty members came up with new ideas that were generated through their online teaching.

Fourth, I discuss comments from a few participants who explained that online teaching does not impact their professional growth. These participants thought that they did not learn any new skills from online teaching, and that it took away time from other professional activities like research.

Professional development is valuable. The importance of ongoing professional development for faculty, particularly when they are learning new skills, has been underscored in the literature (e.g. Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008). My findings support this literature.

Several participants appreciated the opportunity to attend workshops or to present at workshops related to online teaching. For example, Ramona said:

I'm meeting people who are from all walks of life. As opposed to before you were...with the American Advertising Association meeting, or the Mass Media Communications people and now...you go to this International Online [conference]... So it's a whole other kind of group of people who are all talking about using similar things...So from that standpoint it's certainly...taken me in a whole other direction.

A few participants echoed Ramona's comments about how attending professional development sessions related to online teaching broadened their interests and spurred thinking about new ideas. Monique said:

One of the reasons why I wanted to do the [6 week] teaching academy was because of the teaching and learning theory that we would be exposed to...In universities generally, you're not exposed to those theories unless you're in a school or department of education...I wanta write more about this course and so I thought that this was a good foundational opportunity.

For Monique, teaching online activated a desire to attend professional development to learn more about teaching and learning theory.

Speaking on panels. Several participants described the rich experience they gained talking on panels or at conferences related to online teaching. For example, Kim stated:

Well, I have done panels. I'm a member of [a] ...professional organization for people who teach film...Since we work with hands-on... creative work and really mentor students, there's a whole lot of buzz about online teaching... You have a niche that you're talking about... I love the conferences and doing workshops and...collaborating with people and sharing knowledge. It's really very helpful as a teacher. I've gotten a lot of great ideas that I feel improved my teaching over the years...after taking part in panels and getting information that way.

Similarly, Monica said, "I have been involved with my professional organization in providing an online web tutorial...and I could see maybe doing more of that in the future." Participants' comments about how they found attending or presenting at these workshops interesting supports the literature (e.g. Glass, 2012; Green et al., 2009; Hoffman, 2013) that suggests that, for some faculty, online teaching serves as a stimulating intellectual challenge that is a form of professional growth. It is interesting to note that among the participants who talked about their appreciation of intellectually stimulating professional development opportunities, the majority of them were later in their careers.

Professional development is not valuable. On the other hand, while many of the participants seemed satisfied with existing professional development opportunities, Harry was a strong exception. He explained:

I guess I'm proud to say I'm a continual thorn in the side and agitator for better use of technology. And...more informed faculty development and technology use...that would include a healthy partnership between faculty and information technology...I agitate for...help for faculty to understand more what they can do online. And different...types of faculty development than currently exists...So I believe that...you will get much better participation in online teaching and hybrid teaching, and...much better teaching and learning experiences, both teacher side and student side, if you have faculty participation in the faculty development effort.

Harry expressed some strong views about the inadequacy of some of the current professional development opportunities available to faculty who teach online. While the majority of the other participants did not share these views, Harry's comments parallel the literature (Baran & Thompson, 2011; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Kyei-Blankson, 2009; McQuiggan, 2012; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Rovai, 2010) that suggests that some of the current professional development opportunities available to faculty who are teaching online are inadequate.

No one rewards my involvement in workshops. A few participants did not involve themselves in professional development because they did not have time to attend, and they were not rewarded for attending. For example, Adrian explained:

There have been some [workshops]. It was a question of time. I've seen the workshops and I say to myself, 'That would be cool to attend.' I did attend Angel and D2L classes and that kind of stuff. But it's just not enough time. It's not rewarded. Nobody here is saying... 'You go and take a couple of classes in technology and become more proficient at this. We're going to recognize that.' Rather they say, 'What are you doing?...I can't imagine anybody having enough time to attend it all. If I read everything we are supposed to read, there was still reading amongst my to-do pile, among other things.

Adrian's comments illustrate the tension of wanting to attend workshops that might help him with his online teaching, but not having the time to do so. Similarly, Todd explained, "the time it took to develop the course has taken away from me doing the research that I need to be doing...it's robbing Peter to pay Paul... Of course, only the research matters in terms of promotion and stuff like that." Adrian and Todd talked about not being properly rewarded for their teaching, and their comments suggest that professional development may be a luxury that some faculty cannot afford. This finding supports that literature (e.g., Rovai, 2010; Shea, 2007) that suggests that faculty do not have time to take advantage of professional development opportunities that might contribute to their professional growth.

A reexamination of teaching practices. There are several ways in which online teaching prompted participants to rethink how to present content, how to keep course content current and engaging, how to set up discussions, how to organize their courses, and how to communicate with their students.

More engaging presentation of course content. Several participants thought about different ways to use technology to present content in their face-to-face courses. For example, Rachel said:

It certainly is impacting the way that I'm thinking about the classes that I teach during the year. Do they all have to be face to face? What kinds of information can be conveyed effectively online versus what kind of information needs to be with the student right there? And so that's been...real interesting...pulling back that curtain and trying to think about how to integrate this whole online situation into the classroom...because it's making me reevaluate my teaching strategies and because of that, I have to learn a different way of thinking and presenting information. And that is fascinating to me.

Rachel's comment shows that she is thinking deeply about how to present content in a way that is more engaging to students. Similarly, Doug talked about thinking more about how to integrate multi-media content in his courses. He said:

In teaching, I think it's gotten me to be a little bit more technology-friendly in the classroom. Because one of the...things I try to do with the online is give them ...little movie clips or little lecture clips--not just from me, but from other people too--that are available online and it allows them to experience multi-media rather just reading. And, I think in the classroom...delivering a lecture for 50 minutes...it's hard for the students to keep their focus...I take some of those little videos and I show them...maybe 5 minutes or so just to break up the monotony of a class and lecture.

Doug's comment showed how he can use technology tools to optimize students' learning.

Similarly, as Peter thought about his teaching, he realized he needed to incorporate technology in his classes particularly because he was teaching in the media and communications field.

This is gonna sound crazy. When I see someone walking with a bunch of yellow notes ... it feels like whatever lecture is going to happen will feel antiquated...If I only get up there and lecture for two and a half hours...and not have [lecture] interspliced with some element of media in a school that calls itself the School of Media and Communication,

it's not gonna be a good teaching experience...So I think that it gives me insights into more current examples I can use in my class. Because it forces me to be online more... it opens up things that I wouldn't look at...I think that by teaching online, I'm much more comfortable in understanding online platforms and understanding some of the things that exist via a number of different media. For example, across the web, across YouTube.

For Peter, and several other participants, using tools like YouTube helped them keep their content current.

Peter, Marton, and Lee, who were all in the earlier parts of their careers, talked about using resources like YouTube to present material. Marton said:

We use a lot of YouTube videos lately...there is not only music and entertainment on YouTube, but there is physics...related material. Experiments that would be really hard to do. Some people took a lot of time, and, work...and they made a very good video...explanation of it. And then we show that.

Marton explained that “learn[ing] all sorts of web technologies” made him “more effective, more efficient.” Participants’ comments about how they began to integrate more technology into their teaching show how they were thinking about new ways to present content.

Even in light of walking away from online teaching, Lee acknowledged the value of using resources like YouTube to present information. Lee said that during the “battle with online teaching...the interesting thing is...it challenged me to try to present material in different ways.”

He spoke about this several time during the interview. He said:

A lot of the tools that I learned from online teaching...I think helped me in class situations tremendously. So over the last year, my course evaluations for the classes that I already was teaching pretty well...I think went up by ten percentage points since I started doing all this other stuff...so I could even tell that students were responding to the fact that there were different ways to review the material, different ways to revisit the material and so that was really cool.

Though he walked away from online teaching, Lee was able to recognize what he learned during the experience and how this new knowledge benefits his teaching. Lee's comments are a good

illustration of O'Meara and colleagues' (2008) contention that faculty are capable of growing while carrying out aspects of their jobs they do not enjoy.

How to better structure online discussions. Several participants thought about how to have higher quality discussions. Lee explained that after using discussion boards online, he had a better sense of how to use them in a meaningful way in his face-to-face classes. He said: "I can just make it totally voluntary...And since the number of students who were posting generally stays around 10, it's a much more manageable situation and everyone in the class reads the threads so they get the benefit from all of those discussions." Likewise, Monica explained how working with an instructional designer to put together her online course helped her think through how to set up discussions. She said:

[The instructional designer] ...helped say...when you're in a face-to-face course, you don't necessarily have weekly assignments or weekly discussions because you're meeting in class and those are your discussions. So having some type of a discussion topic and the way to put a discussion topic together that really stimulates thought, critical thinking and stimulates conversation among participants [online]...I'm still working on that...not posting questions that there's basically a concrete answer to. Or a question that once a few students answer, there's no room for anybody else to contribute anything...[that] helped me to think about how do I pose questions to my face to face class to get good discussions going during class...I try now to incorporate more clinically-focused discussions...taking the content that they should've been reading...and saying, okay, here's an application. Now, let's figure this out...So, I think all of that has been helpful.

These comments show how thinking about how to structure discussions in online courses prompted some participants to consider new ways to structure discussion in their face-to-face courses.

"More thoughtful about" course organization. Several participants talked about how teaching online forced them to better organize their courses. Janice said that teaching online:

Helps you get it together because you cannot teach online and...go as you go...you have to have everything done beforehand. You have to have everything... planned out. You have to be very specific about what's happening. You can't just do it on the fly...prepare your lecture a minute before class starts. You can't do that online...I developed a textbook

based on my classes... to push me to do more reorganizing...I think the best thing was it really pushed me to be more thoughtful about my organizing of the class and...it was a good motivation to make it a stronger class.

Janice's comment about having to have everything planned out was echoed by other participants.

Scott said: "It sort of helps your teaching in the classroom. Because you've been asked to clarify, codify, and regularize what you say...I know exactly the way to structure this because I've already structured this lecture...It really does help me...deepen my work." Scott described clarifying and codifying his work as one of the biggest benefits of online teaching.

For some, organizing class content in advance may be stressful. For example, Rachel said:

It's really interesting because there is so much preparation that I have to do prior to the teaching... I'm doing [lectures] in PowerPoint where I have to have visual...aids to them as well. And there's just this scramble of wait, wait, how can I put all this in one thing? And maybe I'm more scattered in the regular classroom than I realize but this... organization is just so crucial and it is a little stressful.

For others, organizing content in advance may not come naturally. Todd said online classes have "to have a tighter organization...students need you to be totally organized...and, by nature, that's not the way I work." Todd's comments illustrate another example of how it is possible for faculty to dislike teaching online and at the same time acknowledge that an aspect of their teaching has improved. O'Meara and colleagues (2008) argue "the rise in technology...calls on faculty to organize their work in particular ways, and doing so forces them into substantive learning in an organizational scheme that is new to them" (p. 88). Participants' comments about how teaching online prompted them to do more planning reflects this new organization of their work.

My communication skills have improved. Developing better communication skills has also helped some of the participants improve the organization of their classes. For example,

Monica said, “One of the most basic strategies is really paying very close attention to the way I write my syllabus. My directions have gotten much more specific over time.” While Monica recognized the importance of clear communication in the syllabus, Marton recognized the importance of clear communication in email. Marton explained how he managed student email. He said, “There are better detailed instructions. Over the years, I perfected those instructions, messages going out.” For Marton, with upwards of 600 students, communicating clearly via email was crucial to the success of his course.

A few participants also explained how they have learned to manage emails that “rub you the wrong way,” as Monica put it. She said, “I think it’s helped me to grow a little bit because I’ve gotten to be more patient...I try to be very careful now...I’m not even going to respond to it until...[I] calm down.” Monique described a similar carefulness in responding to students’ email. She said, “Being very careful about how I respond...has carried over to the ways in which I correspond period.” This increased sense of carefulness with correspondence is another way participants showed that they were rethinking aspects of their teaching.

New ideas. In a qualitative study with 10 faculty members at different universities, Meyer (2012) found that teaching online spurred faculty’s thinking about new research interests related to online teaching. Paralleling this study, several of the participants described how new ideas for research and projects evolved out of their online teaching.

Research projects. Monique talked about her sabbatical research, which was based on a question that evolved from teaching online. She said:

Part of my sabbatical research project is revisiting the students who have taken the class since 1997 and I was able to...get in touch with some of those students...when I proposed the course, I felt that we could have more honest conversations online about difficult topics and I hoped they would be long lasting. And I found that for some of the students, they were and not necessarily just in the workplace but also in their private lives.

Monique indicated that she was continuing this line of research and seemed to appreciate how online teaching inspired this project.

Adrian thought about how he could use students in his online classes to help him with his research. He said, “I have 600...[students] that took the course and have expressed an interest in wine. If I wanted to study something about wine, I could ask them. Of course, with the university’s approval.” Interestingly, the two participants who discussed how teaching online helps them with their research were both farther along in their teaching careers.

New ideas for projects. Several of the faculty with a bit less teaching experience talked about how online teaching spurred new ideas for projects or ideas about new ways to go about their work. For example, Walter had begun thinking about how to use technology tools to foster collaboration between his campus and a satellite campus in another country. He said:

One of the things that I’d like ...our...students [in the other country] to be able to do is a study abroad here for the semester...so that they can take classes with our Grammy-winning instructors...what I’m thinking is...the students [in the other country] could Skype in...In terms of benefits-that’s something I couldn’t even consider 10 years ago.

By allowing students in the other country to participate in the face-to-face course via Skype, Walter hoped to make it easier for them to participate in a study abroad experience.

Matt, as a faculty member in a School of Agriculture, explained that outreach was one of the primary functions of his job. He described how his online teaching helped him with his outreach. He said, “I do a lot of talking to reporters and speaking to other audiences...my online teaching definitely helps me with that... questions that come up from students I may get from other people...it helps to polish...having that interaction...with the students in my classes.” Matt’s comment illustrates how teaching online helped him come up with new ideas for how to present his work in another area of his job.

Online teaching did not contribute to professional growth. A male participant at each stage of the career (early middle, middle, and senior) stated that he did not experience professional growth through online teaching. Rick, an early mid-career faculty member who did not like teaching online, said that the only way he saw online teaching contributing to his professional growth was by giving him a skill that he can put on his CV. As a tenured faculty member, having a new skill to list on his CV did not seem important to him. Jack, a mid-career faculty member with a background in multimedia explained, “I was already engaged in multimedia journalism and...I’ve been teaching...about [the] Internet...for almost 20 years and so most of it’s just...old hat to me.” Todd, a senior faculty member, explained that online teaching has interfered with his research and writing, and has not contributed to his professional growth. This lack of professional growth does not suggest that these participants are uninterested in professional growth. Rather, it may suggest that different aspects of work trigger professional growth for some faculty and not others.

Summary: Impact of online teaching on professional growth. The opportunity for ongoing professional development keeps faculty engaged in their work and helps them develop new skills (Gappa et al., 2007; O’Meara et al., 2008). My findings support this idea. However, some participants did not have the time, did not get rewarded, or did not find professional development adequate. This finding is troubling, raising questions about how faculty who do not access professional development or who do not find professional development adequate continue to stay engaged with their work and develop new skills.

The use of new technologies is prompting faculty to rethink their teaching (e.g., Koehler & Mishra, 2005, 2009; Major, 2010; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Peruski & Mishra, 2004) and form new research interests (Meyer, 2012). Indeed, participants indicated that teaching online

sparked thinking about how to use technology tools to present content in new ways, how to structure discussions, how to organize their work, how to communicate better, and how to develop new research questions. Participants' ability to rethink their teaching and form new research questions, regardless of whether or not they enjoyed online teaching, supports O'Meara and colleagues' (2008) contention that faculty can learn because of, and in spite of, working through challenges they take on.

However, a few participants indicated that teaching online did not contribute to their professional growth. Comments from these participants do not suggest that these faculty members are disinterested in professional growth, but rather that they did not see this form of work as enhancing their professional growth.

Taken together, these findings underscore a tension. Even if faculty members do not enjoy certain aspects of their work and struggle to complete them, they can still experience professional growth.

Impact of Online Teaching on Agency

This section addresses findings related to the impact of online teaching on agency. Agency describes the internal and external resources people use to exercise power in their personal and professional lives (O'Meara et al., 2008). When faculty members act strategically and take advantage of resources available to help them accomplish their goals, they can overcome obstacles and derive meaning from their work, staying more engaged and productive (O'Meara & Campbell, 2011; O'Meara et al., 2008; O'Meara & Terosky, 2010).

First, I describe how resources like faculty members' disciplinary background and training to teach online shaped their online teaching experience. Many participants demonstrated strategic thinking by identifying a need for training to help them with online teaching. I would

expect that seeking training would benefit participants by giving them the opportunity to learn new skills, and for many participants this was indeed the case. But, for one participant, attending training prior to teaching online drew attention to his lack of preparedness, and he did not find training helpful.

Second, I discuss how participants derived meaning from their online teaching, since agency relates to faculty's ability to construct meaningful professional lives (O'Meara et al., 2008). Faculty can use their skills and determination to exercise agency to work through difficult aspects of their jobs and find meaning in their work (O'Meara et al., 2008). Many of the participants talked about encountering obstacles, particularly the first time they taught online, but worked persistently to overcome them and derived meaning from online teaching. On the other hand, some of the participants worked through the obstacles they encountered when teaching online, but still did not find the work meaningful. These findings are conflicting and show that for some participants the challenge of teaching online was meaningful, and for others it was not.

Training and disciplinary background. It is important to consider the resources that are available to faculty when they teach online. Marshall (2000) explains, "Faculty members' abilities to activate agency, garner power, and exert agency relates to the resources available for their so doing" (as cited in O'Meara & Campbell, 2011, p. 449). Disciplinary background and training are two of the resources that shape faculty's ability to exert agency when teaching online.

A number of participants worked in the media and telecommunications industry, and they indicated that their prior work experience made them comfortable with using computers. Walter said, "As a recorder...my background is very...tech intensive, and so I'm not a stranger to these silly devices and can figure things out." Similarly, Todd explained how he learned to teach

online: “I mean, this is what we do for a living. If I want a cool web page, I’ll make it.” Todd, with a computer science background, indicated that he felt ready for the “mechanics” of online teaching. Although feeling ready for the “mechanics” of online teaching may have increased Todd’s sense of agency as he prepared to teach online, both he and Walter encountered many challenges when they taught. For example, Walter said, “It’s exponentially more work than teaching a face-to-face class and I still feel that way...especially the first time.” His comment suggests that even faculty with a technical background may benefit from training.

Some participants recognized the need for pedagogical training to supplement their technical backgrounds. For example Harry, with about thirty years of teaching experience in computer science, said:

It’s all about living on the Web...all of my classes are hybrid...And so teaching...exclusively online...hasn’t been that huge of a leap for me...I’ve also taken a couple of [massive open online courses] MOOCs to see what those were like...I wanted to see what the technology was and the pedagogy that was made possible by the use of technology. I took two different MIT MOOCs to see what was going on there and...some of that stuff has informed the type of stuff I’m trying to do in my online class.

For Harry, taking the MOOC to fulfill his desire to learn more about the relationship between pedagogy and technology provided him insights for his own teaching and perhaps increased his sense of agency.

Rachel also had a technical background in photography and pursued training in online teaching. After she had been teaching online for a few semesters, Rachel decided to participate in a certificate program for “teaching [graduate] students how to teach at a higher education level.” She said, “It’s a great class because it’s teaching me how to teach students...and it’s an online course...it’s really interesting, seeing how I am teaching an online class as well as taking an online class.” In describing her online teaching experience, Rachel said, it is “a different approach. And that, for me, has been fun and exciting. And it has been challenging at the same

time.” For Rachel, curiosity about how other faculty approach online teaching prompted her to seek out professional development opportunities that would offer her some insights about this.

Harry and Rachel’s decisions to seek out professional development support the idea that it is possible for faculty “to act intentionally, planfully” (Marshall, 2000, as cited in O’Meara et al., 2008, p. 28), and demonstrate agency by making strategic decisions about the type of training that would benefit them. Interestingly, Rachel and Harry were both in the later phase of their careers. Whereas Todd and Walter had technical backgrounds, did not seek additional training, and talked about the enormous time commitment of online teaching, Rachel and Harry had technical backgrounds, sought additional training, and talked about the satisfying challenge of online teaching. This finding suggests that seeking training to supplement a technical background may increase faculty’s ability to exert agency. This finding supports the literature that suggests technology training needs to be supplemented by pedagogical training (e.g., Bailey & Card, 2009; Rovai, 2010).

Whereas the participants with technical backgrounds who sought training while they were teaching online were much later in their careers, the participants without technical backgrounds sought training prior to teaching online and were earlier in their careers. Participants who sought training before they taught learned specific skills during training that they could then apply to their teaching. For example, before she taught for the first time, Gina decided to learn more about online teaching. She said:

I went first to hear about online courses at a session for faculty. Then I took an online course...so that we could ... experience... being a student in an online course...It was interesting. I learned a lot about how the interaction with others in the [online] course is more guided, and more informal in a sense. So that everyone’s encouraged to interact with each other and because it’s not confined to a small period of time in a classroom face-to-face learning, people are at their leisure to join in and respond to others at any time during the week.

For Gina, the training was useful in terms of helping her think about how to promote interaction with her students in online courses.

Similarly, Janice and Lee went to the same training before they taught. Lee explained, the training “was pretty informative in terms of how to use the asynchronous classroom setup which is sort of like a web chat room except you now have ability to show PowerPoints.” Lee and Janice also learned how to use technology tools to make their classes more interactive. These findings suggest that going to training before teaching online helped them learn skills that allowed them to “activate agency” (O’Meara & Campbell, 2011, p. 449) as they prepared to teach.

On the other hand, Rick also received training before he taught online. But he did not find the training useful. He said:

We took the same course twice. It was an online course about how to teach online...That course was not very useful for us. It was very much about how to coordinate discussions...but our curriculum is not discussion-based. It’s computer science. We’re doing [computer] programs...it was okay for helping us get more familiar with the tools we were using but in terms of how to run the course, it wasn’t very helpful.

For Rick, it seemed like the training he received before he taught online made him feel more acutely aware of his lack of preparedness for online teaching. This finding illuminates a tension. Training that is not perceived as useful by faculty may underscore their feelings of under preparedness and cause doubts about their ability to “exert agency” (O’Meara & Campbell, 2011, p. 449). Even though Rick was also a computer scientist, he did not see his disciplinary background as an asset as he was preparing to teach.

Agency and sense of meaning. In this section, I discuss changes in faculty’s agency from the beginning of their online teaching experience to their more current experiences. Then, I describe how some of the participants overcame barriers and derived meaning from online

teaching, demonstrating an increase in agency. In contrast, other findings will show that faculty did not find the work of online teaching meaningful.

“Going in blind.” This comment from Scott captured the way several participants described their initial impressions of online teaching and the low sense of agency they felt. Several participants at all three institutions with varied years of teaching experience each described a sense of confusion and a lack of confidence the first time they taught online. For example, Scott said, “I was going in blind...Stupidly, I had never even looked at an online course before I started creating one. I was just like ‘I got this.’” Similarly, Kim said:

I was pretty frazzled. Pretty hectic... There are no books for me to use...I had to write my own stuff...I was working all week, every day, writing the curriculum for week two while they were working on week one... all the way through. It was very, very hectic...Really, really... time consuming.

Peter had a technical background, but said that the first time he taught, “I had no clue what I was doing.” These comments reflect a narrative of constraint. O’Meara and her colleagues (2008) explained that a narrative of constraint draws attention to the obstacles and limited resources faculty have to do their work.

Navigating the learning curve. On the other hand, a narrative of faculty growth supports the idea that “faculty have and can develop a sense of agency to navigate barriers and put effort, will, intent, and talent into their work” (O’Meara et al., 2008, p. 165). My findings indeed do provide evidence of some faculty members’ ability to work through challenges and increase their sense of agency throughout the course of their online teaching experiences. Gina captured this idea of an increasing sense of agency when she mentioned a learning curve. She said:

My first experience doing it--I was not as satisfied with it as my last experience doing it, and so that’s also a learning curve...for the first time you teach any class whether online or face to face you think of all of the things you can do differently.

Similarly, Kim described how teaching any class for the first time is particularly challenging:

The first time, you're guessing...one thing really worked like gang busters, another thing completely fell apart, so the second time you teach you tweak it...and now you've worked out the kinks...and by the time you're through teaching the third time, you feel like...I've got this. I'm cooking...now...this class is like a dream class...just clicking along because I've worked out all of the problems.

Interestingly, both Gina and Kim both recently finished teaching their third online class at different institutions and have grown increasingly satisfied with their experience.

For some participants, one of the biggest obstacles they successfully navigated was technology. For example, Scott said, "I've become much less fearful of technology. I'm now, honestly which is hilarious, I help people in the department with their fear of technology... Whereas, I was the one before that's, like, what's an email?" Because he wanted to find out if it was feasible to teach a theater class online, Scott decided to confront his fear of technology and teach online. In this way, Scott demonstrated that he had "a sense of power, will, and desire to create work contexts that meet the individual's goals over time" (Elder, 1997, as cited in O'Meara & Campbell, 2011, p. 448). Scott worked closely with his university's instructional design center to set up his courses, perhaps increasing his sense of agency.

A few other participants also worked closely with instructional design centers. For example, as soon as she found out she was going to be teaching online, Ramona went to the instructional design center for help. Ramona explained:

Not knowing how to do something myself meant that every little bug I had to go running to the guys over at [the instructional support center]. Whereas, now I know how to fix a lot of things myself. So...as I have learned more, it has gotten better...It's just frustrating--I don't really even know how to say this--there's always something you don't know...some little quirk about [the learning management system].

While she was grateful for the assistance, Ramona was frustrated by not being able to solve all of her own problems. Monique also worked with an instructional designer and had a comparable experience. She explained, "It was frightening at first because I did depend on him a lot. And so

I had to kind of wean my way from him.” Ramona and Monique’s comments illustrated the tensions that might accompany being dependent on an instructional designer for assistance.

Increased “comfort level.” But, as they accumulated experience teaching online, some participants experienced an increased sense of agency. After she described her dependence on an instructional designer, Monique said:

I became more competent in using early Blackboard...I’d come in here. I’d spend time trying to figure out how to use it cuz it was all very new. And...like with anything else, you work with something and your comfort level increases... I’m a baby boomer so this is not something that I’ve been exposed to since birth and so I truly have...to step out of my comfort zone...Certainly, in 1997, this was stepping out of my comfort zone.

Since the participants were recruited by number of years teaching and not age, Monica was at retirement age but had less teaching experience. She had similar fears about technology and said, “I was so fearful initially of any of this stuff...I come from the DOS years...Do you even know what that is?...From the very beginning when I was thinking ‘what the hell am I doing, I have no idea how to do this’.” Monica went on to explain one of the ways she benefitted most from teaching online. She said:

It’s really helped me with my knowledge and ability of using technology in teaching....and not be quite as threatened by it...you’re talking to somebody who’s turning 62 this year...so I didn’t grow up with technology...but...the online teaching has actually helped me so that I’m much more comfortable.

Notably, both Monique and Monica voiced anxieties about using technology and worked closely with instructional designers, perhaps increasing their sense of agency.

Monica and Monique also described online teaching similarly. Monica described online teaching as “challenging but rewarding.” Monique described the rewarding aspects of online teaching as “the challenges.” Their comments suggest that meaning can be derived not just in spite of a challenge, but also as a result of working through a challenge. This finding supports the

idea that faculty have “ability to assume agency” (O’Meara et al., 2008, p. 25), which Monique and Monica illustrated when they took on the challenge of online teaching despite their fears.

“Intellectual challenge.” Other faculty who were more senior in their careers also found aspects of online teaching meaningful. For example, Harry said, “It’s given me...an intellectual challenge that anybody in academe wants to have...It’s going to change the way I work, and...I don’t think I’m retiring any time soon cuz I like doing this.” Similarly, Adrian said online teaching was:

Kind of exciting. It was fun to think of what to do and how to do it...It’s always interesting and fun. But what I found also interesting was I was able to go through it all and listen to my non-fluencies. I could go in and listen and I could remove stuff. Like if I’m making noises now I could remove those noises and just have the talk. That was fun to listen to myself... that gave me time to improve it and it was fun to be a part of that and to do that as well.

These findings echo what is in the literature (e.g. Rahman, 2001; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007; Sorcinelli, 1997) about the potential of online teaching to rejuvenate senior career faculty.

Online teaching is not meaningful. On the other hand, several participants did not find online teaching meaningful or experience an increase in their sense of agency. Regarding his confidence in his online teaching, Rick said:

I don’t feel like I’m doing the greatest job...my online is a translation of the lesson in the classroom to the videos and posting them. Which from everything I’ve read is not the way you’re supposed to teach online. But at the same time, having taken the [training course] twice and done a little bit of reading about how you’re supposed to do it, I don’t really see how to do it... And I’m not enjoying it...the information is there but it’s not the way I would want to learn...I feel kinda sorry for my students.

Rick’s remarks reflect an absence of any form of learning or meaning from online teaching.

The lack of meaning and satisfaction Rick and Todd derived from online teaching was evidenced when they both advised colleagues not to teach online. Rick’s comment was sarcastic. He said: “Everybody should do it, so I don’t have to....my colleagues...probably don’t hate it as

much as I do but they all recognize it's more work... They don't complain quite as much. And again, I don't complain all that much myself... I'm using harsher language with you." Rick closed the interview by saying "If it helps, I really like my job when I'm teaching face to face." Similarly, Todd said:

Don't do it...it takes a huge amount of time and you have to figure out where that's gonna come from...for me, I'm tenured and I can make those kinds of choices. An untenured professor, I would say, no way because it's going to steal time from the other stuff that's necessary for you to get tenure.

Both of these participants were quite clear that online teaching was not meaningful for them, nor did it increase their sense of agency.

While Rick and Todd continue to teach computer science courses online, Lee has received permission to stop teaching online. He explained "one reason why it made it a little easier for me to walk away was the religion department, because I can pack them in in my regular race class, they asked me to teach a 150-student section." Given that Lee is a non-tenured faculty member, I might expect that he would be forced to continue to teach online. O'Meara and Campbell (2011) explained: "A faculty member's status in a research university as untenured...may influence his or her sense of entitlement to certain work resources or feelings of agency in taking advantage of them" (p. 448). Though Lee did not experience meaning through teaching, he was able to demonstrate agency by receiving permission not to teach.

Among the three participants who derived the least meaning from online teaching, each was at a different institution. Rick and Todd were tenured, and Lee was not. Rick and Lee were earlier in their careers and Todd was later. Their experiences suggest that institutional context and career phase may have less bearing on the meaning associated with the experience than the experience itself. Interestingly, Todd and Rick were computer science instructors and Lee taught

in the humanities. While Rick and Lee taught classes of between 15-25 students, Todd's classes had between 200-300 students.

Summary: Impact of online teaching on agency. The decision of several participants to seek training before or during online teaching is an example of self-authorship. The idea of self-authorship is reflected in Neumann, Terosky, and Schell's (2006) description of agency as "faculty members' capacity to construct the contexts of their own learning and development in professional and intellectual ways" (as cited in O'Meara & Terosky, 2010, p. 46). For the most part, resources in the form of training helped to fill gaps in participants' skills and knowledge about online teaching, thereby increasing their ability to exert agency. Participants with tenure and without, at each of the three institutions, across multiple disciplinary types, and with varied years of teaching experience, each took advantage of training. Findings underscore the need for training that focuses both on technology and pedagogy, in order for faculty to fully benefit.

Faculty's ability to exercise agency in their online teaching may increase over time. When faculty members talk about teaching online for the first time, their comments appear to align with a narrative of constraint (O'Meara et al., 2008). However, as they described an accumulation of experience, their comments may align more closely with a narrative of faculty growth (O'Meara et al., 2008). Accompanying the narrative of faculty growth, for some participants, may be an increase in agency and an increased sense of meaning from their work. On the other hand, some participants may not derive meaning from this form of work and may not feel a sense of agency doing it.

Patterns Across Gender, Appointment Type, Discipline and Years Teaching Online

At the individual and group levels, findings about the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life were mixed. While there were more similarities than differences

among the whole group of participants, there were a few patterns that are worth noting. Of course, given the small sample size I cannot say with certainty how accurately these patterns represent the experience of all full-time early middle, middle, and senior career tenured and non-tenured faculty members who teach online.

Prior research (e.g., Lloyd et al., 2012; Seaman, 2009; Shea, 2007) has shown that factors such as age, gender, rank, and discipline have influenced the nature of faculty's online teaching experience. For example, Shea (2007) found that each of these factors impacted how faculty ranked motivators and de-motivators for online teaching. Shea (2007) maintained that the more it is possible to make sense of variations among these factors, the better insights researchers can gain concerning factors that shape faculty's acceptance of online teaching. Next, I describe patterns across gender, appointment type, discipline, and number of classes taught online that emerged from the data.

Gender. Among the 19 participants I interviewed, roughly three-quarters of them (12) were male. My findings showed that gender might have noticeable implications for online teaching on key elements of faculty work life. The three participants who spoke most negatively about online teaching were male. This finding stands in contrast to prior studies (e.g. Lloyd et al., 2012; Seaman, 2009) that suggest male faculty had more positive experiences teaching online than female faculty. Perhaps the fact that my study was qualitative with a small sample and Seaman (2009) and Lloyd and colleagues' (2012) studies were quantitative with larger samples explains why my findings differ from their research.

Appointment type. Among the 19 participants I interviewed, 12 of them were tenured and seven of them were not. My findings showed that online teaching did not have a noticeable impact on key elements of faculty work across appointment type. These findings parallel the

limited number of studies (Chapman, 2011; Green et al., 2009; Shea, 2007) that compare faculty's online teaching experience across appointment type

Discipline. Among the 19 participants I interviewed, a range of disciplines was represented. While the impact of online teaching on faculty work life seemed to be mixed across disciplines, there was one notable finding. Among the three participants who described the impact of online teaching on their work lives the most negatively, two of them worked in computer science departments at different institutions. Because of the small sample size, it is not possible to determine whether this is a legitimate pattern or a coincidence.

Number of classes taught online. Among the 19 participants I interviewed, findings suggested a pattern of number of classes taught and satisfaction with the experience. On the one hand, for the majority of the participants, online teaching seemed to get easier as they gained more experience. These participants described increased confidence when it came to managing their classes and using technology, for example. These findings parallel prior research (Allen & Seaman, 2012; Lloyd et al., 2012; Shea, 2007) that show as faculty accumulated experience teaching online, their attitudes improved. This finding makes sense, given that tasks often become easier with more practice and exposure.

On the other hand, for some of the participants, online teaching did not get easier, or became more difficult as they gained more experience. These participants described increasing levels of frustration when it came to interacting with students, or designing their courses, for example.

Patterns Across the Career

Because one of the primary aims of this study was to explore whether the impact of online teaching on key elements of work changes during the early middle, middle and senior portions of the career, a separate section is devoted to these findings.

Career Phase. Among the 19 participants I interviewed, findings showed the impact of online teaching on key elements of work did change across different phases of the career.

Early middle career participants. (8-13 years teaching, n=7). A pattern emerged among participants in the early middle phase of their careers. Two of the participants who were earliest in their careers were the most vocal about their dislike of online teaching. These participants were particularly troubled by how online teaching decreased the quality of relationships with their students. This finding parallels results of the “Survey of Faculty Attitudes on Technology” (Jaschik & Lederman, 2014) published in *Inside Higher Education* that show that younger faculty, as compared to their more senior colleagues, are most skeptical about learning outcomes achieved through online classes.

Middle career participants. (14-21 years teaching, n=6). There were no noticeable patterns among this group, other than the finding that participants in this group tended to be middle of the road when it came to perceptions of implications of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life. For example, most participants in this group did not seem particularly positive or negative when they talked about different aspects of online teaching.

Senior career participants. (22-31 years teaching, n=6). Two patterns emerged among participants in the senior phase of their career. First, the senior participants seemed to have a greater appreciation for opportunities for professional growth presented through online teaching. This finding makes sense, given that senior faculty may have more time and energy to invest in their professional growth. Second, senior faculty also seemed to have a greater sensitivity to

intellectual property issues. This finding also makes sense, given that this group of faculty may be more accustomed to earlier times when copyright policies were more clear-cut (Bacow, et al., 2012).

Findings: Summary And Conclusion

Findings show that the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life are mixed at an individual and group level, suggesting that the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work cannot be characterized as either just good or just bad. Rather, online teaching reflects a narrative of constraint and a narrative of faculty growth (O'Mea et al., 2008), with positive and negative aspects that exist alongside each other. The obstacles presented by online teaching, for most of these participants, seem to serve as catalysts for learning and professional growth. In the next chapter, I will discuss the implications of these findings for research and practice.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This study explored the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life that are associated with increased faculty satisfaction, productivity, and commitment: flexibility and balance; autonomy and academic freedom; relationships with students and colleagues; professional growth; and agency (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008). While there is literature (e.g., Green et al., 2009; Lloyd et al., 2012; Shea, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008) about the barriers faculty face when they teach online, less is known about the impact of online teaching on each of these key elements. Participants were early middle, middle, and senior full-time tenured and non-tenured faculty from three institutions who taught in a range of disciplines and who taught at least two fully online classes, and who had at least eight years of full-time face-to-face teaching experience in higher education settings.

Over the last several decades or so, technology has been reshaping how faculty members go about their work (Gappa, et al., 2007; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006, 2007). Concerns have arisen among higher education administrators that students' increased demand for online courses will outpace the supply of faculty who are willing to teach these courses (Orr et al., 2009; Seaman 2009; Shea, 2007). Several years' worth of large national survey data (e.g., Allen and Seaman 2011, 2012, 2013) suggest that many faculty members are resistant to online teaching.

A comprehensive review of the literature about faculty members' experiences teaching online showed that there were four main obstacles that decrease faculty's motivation to teach online: (a) increased time and heavier workload (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Chen, 2009; Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Shea, 2007; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); (b) unstable technology (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Johnsrud et al, 2006. Lloyd et al., 2012; Major, 2010; Oomen-Early & Murphy,

2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); (c) lack of support (Lloyd et al., 2012; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Maguire, 2005; Orr et al, 2009; Tabata & Johnsrud, 2008); and (d) lack of adequate training (Baran & Thompson, 2011; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Kyei-Blankson, 2009; Lane, 2013; McQuiggan, 2012; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Oomen-Early & Murphy, 2009; Rovai, 2010). While it is important to be mindful of these obstacles, the bulk of the literature focuses on them, as compared to focusing on the benefits of online teaching. If the literature highlights the obstacles to online teaching, faculty may use this literature as evidence of why they should be resistant to online teaching. Given students' increased demand for online courses (Allen & Seaman, 2007; 2010), and the increasing pressure faculty members are under to teach online (Bacow et al., 2012; Conceicao, 2010), faculty members' resistance to online teaching is problematic.

The discussion of faculty members' resistance to online teaching also shows how a narrative of constraint (O'Meara et al., 2008) runs through the literature about online teaching. A narrative of constraint illuminates the obstacles faculty encounter in their work and the limited resources they have to manage these obstacles. O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) called for a change in this narrative, suggesting a shift in the conversation about faculty work to acknowledge the ways in which faculty are resilient and clever enough to overcome these obstacles, thereby demonstrating their capacity for professional growth. Findings from this study are intended to support this conversational shift.

The results of this study can be useful in several other ways. First, findings can help to uncover whether there are opportunities for faculty professional growth through online teaching, in spite of its constraints. Second, the findings can be used to design more strategies to support faculty who teach online and amplify any positive aspects of online teaching, thereby possibly

making online teaching more appealing to faculty while decreasing faculty resistance to online teaching. Third, findings can be used to shed more light on faculty members' perspectives on online teaching. Despite the fact that faculty members are under increased pressure to teach online, their voices are somewhat absent from the ongoing national conversation about online education (Allen & Seaman, 2012; Glass, 2012).

Summary of Major Findings

Through interviews with nineteen faculty members, I found that across the whole group, the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work was described in positive and negative ways. Regarding flexibility and balance, participants indicated that online teaching freed them up and allowed them more control over their schedules; but, at the same time, the flexibility presented participants with challenges in how to structure their time. Regarding autonomy and academic freedom, participants indicated that they appreciated the ability to make independent choices about the design of their online courses, but lacked guidance in doing so and were unsure to whom the courses they designed belonged. Regarding relationships with students and colleagues, participants indicated that, in some ways, online teaching led them to feel more connected to students and colleagues, while in other ways they felt more disconnected from students and colleagues. Regarding professional growth, the majority of participants indicated that they experienced multiple forms of professional growth, in spite of the challenges online teaching presented. Regarding agency, participants indicated that, while the first few times they taught online were quite difficult, for most participants, online teaching became less difficult over time.

For example, the same participant who described online teaching as flexible also talked about how the flexibility of online teaching made it harder to manage his time. The same

participant who described online teaching as enhancing his sense of freedom and autonomy to design his courses also felt confused about how to design them. The same participant who described online teaching as enhancing his relationships with students and colleagues also talked about feeling isolated from students and colleagues when he taught online. The same participant who described online teaching as contributing to his professional growth also talked about the anxiety and struggle that occurred as he learned to teach online. The same participant who described an increased sense of agency after teaching online multiple times also expressed a low sense of confidence about online teaching. The tables below provide a snapshot of some the participants' comments about some of the most positive and most negative aspects of the impact of online teaching on their work.

Table 1. Faculty Perceptions of Positive Aspects of Online Teaching: A Sample of Faculty Voices.

Faculty Perceptions of Positive Aspects of Online Teaching: A Sample of Faculty Voices	
Flexibility and balance	"the ease for students is the ease for the teacher" Kim
Autonomy and academic freedom	"free reign" to make independent choices about course set up Ramona
Relationships with students	"[students] can say just pretty much anything. Which can be quite positive" Peter
Relationships with colleagues	"my not being there all the time has actually been supplanted by the more interesting, more encompassing community that I've created with online and social media relationships" Rachel
Professional growth	"[teaching online] helps you get it together because you cannot teach online and...go as you go" Janice
Agency	"I didn't grow up with technology...but...the online teaching has actually helped me so that I'm much more comfortable" Monica

Table 2. Faculty Perceptions of Negative Aspects of Online Teaching: A Sample of Faculty Voices.

Faculty Perceptions of Negative Aspects of Online Teaching: A Sample of Faculty Voices	
Flexibility and balance	“flexible but pervasive...always something going on” Todd
Autonomy and academic freedom	using the “in-class room syllabi...as a stepping stone...[was] the dumbest thing ever” Scott
Relationships with students	“online is teaching is lonely and painful...I don’t see any students” Rick
Relationships with colleagues	“I would float some ideas by and no one would respond, no one was interested...in anything I was doing” Lee
Professional growth	“I’ve been teaching...about [the] Internet...for almost 20 years and so most of it’s just old hat” Jack
Agency	“I was going in blind...Stupidly, I had never even looked at an online course before I started creating one” Scott

At the group and individual level, these mixed findings suggest that the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work is neither categorically good nor bad but, for most participants, is experienced along a continuum. On the one hand, findings about the negative impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work support the narrative of constraint that O’Meara and her colleagues (2008) argue permeates the literature on faculty work. Many participants described an aspect of online teaching as challenging, or described the entire experience as difficult. On the other hand, findings about the positive impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work support the narrative of faculty growth (O’Meara et al., 2008). Many participants described online teaching as a stimulating and rewarding challenge that resulted in new learning.

The co-existing positive and negative impacts of online teaching on key elements of faculty work show that there are tensions in this form of work. For example, teaching online for the first time may be quite time-consuming and stressful for faculty members, but as they gain experience, the work may become easier and more gratifying. The tensions presented by online

teaching serve as opportunities for faculty professional growth, as faculty work to resolve the tensions. These tensions presented by online teaching also illustrate the complex and challenging nature of this type of work and the opportunities it may present for faculty professional growth.

Discussion of Results

It is important to honor faculty members' perceptions of both the positive and negative impact online teaching has on key elements of their work. In some ways, these mixed findings---particularly within an individual faculty member's experience--may seem somewhat conflicting or hard to reconcile. How is it that the same faculty member who said that online teaching allowed him to get to know students better also said that teaching online made him feel disconnected from his students? For this faculty member, both of these descriptions were true, though they seemed a bit incompatible or counterintuitive. In this way, findings from this study can be likened to a paradox.

Paradox is a term with multiple definitions (Chen, 2002; Lewis, 2000; Poole & Van de Ven, 1989). Organizational studies researchers have defined a paradox as "two contrary or even contradictory propositions to which we are led by apparently sound arguments" (Poole & Van de Ven, 1989, p. 563). Taken separately, both propositions may seem feasible but, in combination, they may seem mismatched. Paradoxes denote "conflicting demands, opposing perspectives, or seemingly illogical findings" (Lewis, 2000, p. 760). Because my findings showed that there were co-existing negative and positive aspects of online teaching, or opposing perspectives about the impact of online teaching on key elements of work within and across participants, likening the findings to paradoxes makes sense.

At first glance, the mixed and paradoxical nature of the findings may not seem particularly useful. How do university administrators, faculty members, scholars, and

policymakers respond to a group of faculty members who indicated that online teaching has mixed impacts on their work? Or, how do campus leaders support faculty when for some online teaching enhanced their sense of autonomy, and for others it detracted from their sense of autonomy? But, prior researchers (e.g., Cameron & Quinn, 1988; Chen, 2002; Lewis, 2000) have argued that paradoxes provide useful lenses through which to interpret phenomenon.

The utility of paradoxes is that “no choice needs to be made between two or more contradictions or opposing voices. Paradox includes and embraces ideas that seem to clash irreconcilably...suggesting that the seemingly contradictory or mutually exclusive elements out of which a paradox is constructed actually operate simultaneously” (Cameron & Quinn, 1988, as cited in Chen, 2002, p. 181). This type of argument---the simultaneous operation of mutually exclusive elements--adequately gives voice to the positive and negative co-existing aspects of online teaching that surfaced in this study.

Several other researchers (e.g., Daniels, 2012; Guri-Rosenblit, 2005; Power & Gould-Morven, 2011; Seaman 2009) studying online education have used the term paradox to describe some facet of it. In an article critiquing the massive open online course (MOOC) trend, Daniels (2012) pointed out several paradoxes of MOOCs. For example, there is a misconception that just because an elite institution is well renowned for research, its teaching is of equal quality. Daniels (2012) argued that it is faculty at these elite universities who offer MOOCs, but there is little data to indicate they are skilled at teaching online or face-to-face. Daniels (2012) found this paradox troubling but, upon further examination of this paradox, concluded that the delivery of MOOCs will prompt these elite research universities to attend more closely to teaching and teaching strategies in online courses.

Paradoxes about online teaching have also been identified at a policy level. In *Eight Paradoxes In The Implementation Process of E-Learning In Higher Education*, Guri-Rosenblit (2005) identified several paradoxes. For example, offering online courses allows universities to broaden student access to higher education, particularly among working adults and students who are returning to school after a long absence, because these students can take online courses at their convenience. But, Guri-Rosenblit (2005) argued, “unprepared and less qualified students are less qualified to use the new technologies’ capabilities without intensive and steady support” (p. 16). Guri-Rosenblit (2005) asserted that a clear view of paradoxes like this is key in order for higher education policy makers to take steps to integrate new technologies in meaningful ways. Like Daniels (2012), Guri-Rosenblit (2005) examined paradoxes closely to determine how to make sense of online education.

Based on data from a survey of 10,700 faculty members, Seaman (2009) concluded that there are multiple paradoxes in online education. For example, even though data showed that faculty members were skeptical about the effectiveness of online courses, faculty still advised their students to take online courses. Similarly, even though data showed that roughly two-thirds of the respondents identified insufficient pay as an obstacle to online teaching, only one-third of the respondents reported that extra pay was a salient motivator for online teaching. Based on these findings, Seaman (2009) concluded that it is necessary for universities to offer a range of incentives in order to make online teaching appealing to faculty who are motivated by financial compensation and those who are motivated by other factors. In this way, Seaman (2009) used the paradoxical survey findings to carefully strategize about how campus leaders can support faculty, and concluded that these paradoxes provide fodder for conversation among campus leaders about how to support faculty who teach online.

Similarly, the paradoxical findings from this study can be used to suggest strategic support for faculty who teach online. By considering the paradoxical findings from this study---the positive and negative co-existing aspects of online teaching---campus leaders may be better able to support faculty who teach online. Next, I outline implications for the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work and provide suggestions for how to better support faculty members engaged in this work.

Implications For Practice: Key Elements of Faculty Work

Maintain flexibility and balance for faculty who teach online. The findings of this study echo a highly consistent finding in the literature about online teaching: flexibility is one of the most salient motivators for online teaching, and faculty members and students appreciate the flexibility afforded by online education (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Cavanaugh, 2005; Green et al., 2009; Hiltz et al., 2007; Rahman, 2001; Shea, 2007). Universities can appeal to faculty members' desire for flexibility to motivate them to teach online (Major, 2010; Shea, 2007). For example, universities can offer faculty members the opportunity to teach online over the summer while they are traveling or during the academic semester when they are doing research abroad. My findings showed that participants really appreciated the opportunity to teach over the summer in order to earn extra income. It is important for universities to maintain the flexibility afforded by online education to preserve its attractiveness to faculty and students (Major, 2010; Shea, 2007).

At the same time, findings from this study mirror prior research (e.g., Heijstra & Rafnsdottir, 2010; Shea, 2007) that suggests that faculty members' ability to log into their courses and respond to their students at all hours made some faculty feel pressured to work more hours, blurring the boundaries between personal time and work time. It is important for

universities to address challenges faculty members encounter when they teach online related to managing their time and workload. For example, Shea (2007) suggested that universities help faculty members set clear expectations for their students about how much communication to expect. Faculty development specialists can help faculty to create schedules in which they use productive time management strategies, such as setting aside the same time each week for online teaching responsibilities (Shea, 2007).

Findings about the increased flexibility of online education add fodder to conversations sparked by moving teaching outside of the physical classroom, raising questions for faculty about how to manage their schedules (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008). There is no "one size fits all" answer to these questions. But, faculty who do find answers to these questions of how to structure their time in a more satisfying way can improve not only their online teaching experience, but also the overall quality of their work lives (Shea, 2007).

Balance autonomy with support and guidelines about course ownership. The findings of this study demonstrate that faculty members appreciate the freedom to make independent choices about how to set up their online courses. Giving faculty full ownership of the course design process gives them more freedom and creativity (Major, 2010). Universities can continue to support this freedom by leaving decisions about online course design up to faculty, while being sure to offer support to faculty members who need it.

Findings also suggest that some faculty feel overwhelmed and confused about the course design process and often try to replicate the same class they taught in a face-to-face class format in the online format. When faculty members do not know how to go about setting up their online courses, particularly those with limited knowledge about technology (Major, 2010), they tend to approach online teaching in a superficial and mechanical way (Zemsky & Massy, 2004). For

example, they scan all of the material from their face-to-face course to their online course without making any changes (Zemsky & Massy, 2004). For this reason, universities need to support faculty as they put their classes online. For example, faculty development staff can meet with faculty one-on-one or in groups to offer consulting about how to design online classes (Major, 2010). These meetings can be virtual or face-to-face.

Universities also need to provide training if they want faculty to use a learning management system (LMS) for activities other than posting assignments and grades (Zemsky & Massy, 2004). Universities might be well served to be alert to findings from studies like this, which show that many faculty members are exercising their autonomy by working outside of what they perceive as cumbersome LMSs. While working outside the LMS may enhance faculty members' sense of autonomy, working outside the LMS also has some disadvantages. For example, faculty members lack support when they run into technical issues. If faculty viewed LMSs as more user-friendly and were able to give input toward their design, perhaps they would be more likely to work inside the LMS (Zemsky & Massy, 2004).

While findings of this study show that faculty appreciated the ability to make independent choices about their classes, findings also showed that faculty were uncertain about to whom their courses belonged. Faculty's wariness and uncertainty about course ownership is an important factor that influences their decisions to teach online (Bacow et al., 2012; Dykman & Davis, 2008; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabatha & Johnsrud, 2008). Scholars (Bacow et al., 2012; Dykman & Davis, 2008; Johnsrud et al., 2006; Tabatha & Johnsrud, 2008) looking at how universities can enhance faculty motivation to teach online advise that clear university policies be put in place to alleviate faculty members' concerns about privacy, copyright, and intellectual property. For example, universities need to decide whether to compensate faculty for designing

an online class that might be taught by a colleague or if faculty can take their online courses with them if they leave to go work at another university (Bacow et al., 2012).

A lack of clarity about ownership of intellectual property is a complex issue that may result in rifts and ongoing tensions between administrators and faculty (Muskal, Dziuban, & Hartman, 2013). For example, while faculty may want to retain sole ownership of courses they design and to protect the privacy of their courses, administrators may want full or shared ownership of the courses and permission to access the courses at any time. This example illustrates the complexity of intellectual property issues raised by online education and the conflicting perspectives of faculty and administrators (Muskal et al., 2013). Findings of this study illuminate the gray areas surrounding course ownership.

Acknowledge how online education changes interactions between faculty and students. Student and faculty interaction plays a crucial role in faculty job satisfaction (Hagedorn, 1996; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Rosser, 2005) and in students' learning (Shea, 2007). Findings from this study echo prior research that shows that when faculty members teach online, it changes how they interact with students (Conceicao, 2006; Glass, 2012; Major, 2010) and it influences their satisfaction with online teaching (Wasilik & Bolliger, 2009). Whether participants experienced enhanced relationships with their students, disconnected relationships with their students, or alternated between feeling connected and disconnected from their students, all of the participants talked about how interacting with their students helped them support their students' learning and helped them derive satisfaction from teaching. These findings point to the importance of thinking about how to enhance the quality of student-faculty interaction in online classes.

Faculty development specialists should help instructors devise ways to have regular and frequent interactions with students that give students a good impression of instructors' social presence (Aragon, 2003). Social presence is "an individual's perception of the quantity and quality of interpersonal communication in an online learning environment" (Reio & Crim, 2013, p. 122) and is a vital part of faculty members' and students' satisfaction in online courses. For example, in their syllabi, faculty should include clear guidelines for expectations about synchronous meetings. Training should teach faculty how to use Skype and Web ex, computer applications that use web cameras to enable face-to-face communication online. If faculty know how to use these tools, they may be more likely to interact with students online (Major, 2010).

At the same time, this study's findings show that faculty encountered difficulties using tools like Skype that involved web cameras. For example, faculty who were concerned about cheating wanted students to use their web cameras so that they would know that it was actually their students in front of the computer, but many students simply turned off their web cameras. Since one of the primary ways to promote academic honesty in online classes is to limit the physical distance between students and faculty (Dietz-Uhler & Hurn, 2011) and since interaction between students and faculty plays an important role in online classes (Aragon, 2003; Reio & Crim, 2013), perhaps faculty development specialists need to work with faculty to design policies about the use of web cameras in their courses.

My findings suggest that participants' satisfaction with their ability to form relationships with students online heavily influenced their overall satisfaction with online teaching. It is important for universities to keep in mind that the physical distance between students and faculty in online classes does change how faculty members and students interact (Conceicao, 2006; Major, 2010) and does influence faculty satisfaction with online teaching (Major, 2010; Wasilik

& Bolliger, 2009). Therefore, it would be useful for faculty development specialists to spend more time preparing faculty for how their relationships with students may change when they teach online and examining how to support faculty as they form relationships with students in online environments.

Support faculty in forming relationships with colleagues in new ways. O'Meara and her colleagues (2008) argued that faculty have the “ability to create, nurture, and sustain” (p. 26) relationships that foster professional growth. My findings showed that teaching online changed how faculty interacted with each other, in some ways presenting more opportunities to build community and in other ways making faculty more vulnerable to isolation. Faculty may, for example, meet colleagues from different areas of the university when they participate in faculty learning communities about online teaching. Alternatively, faculty may find that they think differently about online teaching than their colleagues or do not have anyone to talk to about their teaching.

In light of these findings, which are similar to prior studies (e.g. Glass, 2012; Shea et al., 2001), universities should think broadly and creatively about how to foster opportunities for instructors who teach online to network to stave off loneliness (Bailey & Card, 2009). For example, faculty development centers can invite faculty to participate in brown bag lunches (Bailey & Card, 2009) and faculty learning communities to discuss their online teaching experiences (Hutchings, Huber, Ciccone, 2011). Universities should also consider using technology tools to overcome constraints of time and space that limit possibilities for faculty to interact with each other. For example, faculty development centers can capitalize on the convenience of technology tools by helping faculty set up virtual meetings over Skype to talk

about online teaching or by creating discussion forums for faculty to discuss their online teaching experiences throughout the semester.

Given that technological advances are transforming the academy, universities should be thinking about what it means for faculty to feel that they are part of a community. On the one hand, does the ability to teach online at home alone, or in an office alone, interfere with faculty members' capacity or desire to build community? On the other hand, does the opportunity to exchange ideas with colleagues they may never meet in person suggest possibilities for increased support for online teaching and collaboration on new projects?

Findings from this study show that a desire to learn more about online teaching and start new projects prompted faculty to collaborate with colleagues across the university and form new relationships. These supportive relationships with colleagues are particularly important for faculty as they engage in the unfamiliar work of online teaching and learn by exchanging ideas about online teaching with their peers (Gappa et al., 2007; Glass, 2012; O'Meara et al., 2008).

Universities should also consider how computers, and other electronic devices, shape people's capacity for authentic relationships (Turkle, 2012). In her book, *Alone Together*, Turkle (2012) urges people to consider how technology impacts the human capacity for intimacy, as people use computers and other electronic devices to communicate and forego the intimacy that grows out of face-to-face communication. The title of the book reflects the ways in which the use of technology can create a simultaneous experience of loneliness and togetherness (Turkle, 2012), an underlying paradox associated with the use of technological devices for communication. Given that authentic relationships are an important part of faculty satisfaction and faculty professional growth (Gappa et al., 2007; Glass, 2012; O'Meara et al., 2008), it is

important that campus leaders are mindful about how technology can serve to simultaneously bring people together and make them feel isolated (Turkle, 2012).

Recognize the opportunities online teaching presents for professional growth.

Findings from this study showed that many faculty members valued the opportunity to engage in professional development that helped them develop their teaching skills and gave them the opportunity to experiment with new technology tools. Universities should continue to offer this type of professional development for faculty who teach online in order to prepare them to teach and to support them while they are teaching. This professional development could be delivered in an online or face-to-face format, or in a combination of the two. At the same time, to increase faculty motivation to attend professional development, universities should consider rewarding faculty who attend. For example, universities can offer course releases or financial compensation for faculty who attend professional development. Without these rewards, faculty are less likely to attend professional development and less likely to spend time revising their online classes (Shea, 2007).

Findings from this study showed that when they teach online, faculty thought deeply not just about how to deliver a high quality online course, but also about how to raise the quality of all of the classes they teach. For example, faculty members reexamined how to better organize all of their classes or how to better structure class discussion. Findings from this study also showed that faculty members enjoyed experimenting with new forms of technology like Skype and Web ex. Rethinking their approach to teaching and experimenting with new forms of technology are identified in the literature (e.g., Green et al., 2009; Lloyd et al., 2012; Maguire, 2005; Rockwell et al., 1999; Schifter, 2002; Wolcott & Betts, 2007) as intrinsic incentives for

online teaching. Intrinsic incentives tap into faculty's desire for professional growth (Wolcott & Betts, 2007).

It is these intrinsic incentives that are frequently the most salient motivators for online teaching. For example, Schifter (2002) surveyed 263 faculty members to investigate barriers and incentives for online teaching. Data showed that intrinsic incentives like the opportunity to take on a challenge or enhance their teaching were more salient than extrinsic factors like extra compensation (Schifter, 2002). Other researchers (e.g., Lloyd et al., 2012) have made similar findings. Findings from this and prior studies suggest that universities would be well served to recognize the value of intrinsic incentives in motivating faculty to teach online and in enhancing faculty professional growth. Perhaps faculty development centers can draw more attention to the rewarding challenge presented by online teaching in order to encourage more faculty members to try it (Shea, 2007).

Findings from this study also showed that when they teach online, participants formed ideas for research based on questions related to teaching in the online environment. For example, when Monique, a participant in this study, offered to teach an online section of a race and communications class in 1997, part of her motivation was to explore whether students could have more honest conversations about race in an online class than they could in a face-to-face class. For her sabbatical research project, Monique followed up with students from the 1997 online race and communications class to revisit this issue and found that the online class did indeed help these former students participate in difficult conversations about race.

Monique's sabbatical research project is an example of the scholarship of teaching (Boyer, 1997, as cited in Meyer, 2012). The term "scholarship of teaching" developed as the result of an "effort to enlarge the conception of scholarly work to include not only discovery

(research), but also engagement, integration, and teaching/learning” (Lattuca, 2006, p. 536).

Department chairs, then, might reward faculty who engage in the scholarship of teaching related to online teaching (Meyer, 2012). However, when making this recommendation, it is important to acknowledge that the scholarship of discovery tends to be perceived as more important than the scholarship of teaching at some research universities (Kreber, 2002). In addition, some disciplines may not recognize the value of faculty doing research about their teaching in the discipline, since this type of scholarly research may not advance the discovery of new knowledge (Colbeck, 1998; Healey, 2000). The type of university they work in and the discipline they teach in, then, may have bearing on whether universities would reward faculty for doing research on their online teaching.

Findings from this study showed that most faculty members who teach online, whether or not they enjoyed the experience, gave an example of how it contributed to their professional growth. Universities would also be well served to recognize that professional growth occurs at different levels, as the findings of this study suggest. While some participants readily described how online teaching contributed to their professional growth, others had more difficulty explaining or addressing this issue. If campus leaders can recognize that even faculty who do not like teaching online are likely learning new skills from doing so, they may be better able to promote online teaching.

Help faculty increase their sense of agency. Access to resources shapes the way in which people exercise agency (O’Meara & Campell, 2011). In terms of developing and honing the skills necessary for online teaching, training is an example of a resource that shapes faculty’s agency. Findings that showed that participants with and without disciplinary backgrounds that required them to use technology benefited from training underscored the need for increased

pedagogical training for online instructors. The need for this training is two-fold (Bailey & Card, 2009). First, many instructors do not have a background in teaching. Second, instructors need to know how to adjust pedagogical practices when they teach online. Pedagogical training also needs to be supplemented with technology training (Bailey & Card, 2009).

Even though faculty with disciplinary backgrounds in technology benefited from training, universities may be well served to consider faculty's proficiency with computers as a way to better customize training (Shea, 2007). For example, for faculty who are not proficient with or who are intimidated by computers, the technology portion of training should be quite basic, at least initially (Shea, 2007). For faculty who are proficient with computers, perhaps the greater focus should be on pedagogical skills.

In addition to customizing training by considering faculty proficiency with computers, universities should also consider the timing of training. Given the sense of helplessness several participants described the first time they taught online, access to customized training prior to online teaching is important in order to reduce anxiety. Training prior to teaching can also be used to help faculty think about how to structure their schedules and the kind of relationships they want with their students, and to think broadly about what types of teaching strategies they can use in an online environment (Bailey & Card, 2009). After faculty have accumulated some experience teaching online, they may benefit from training in more specific areas (e.g. assessment of learning outcomes) or simply from ongoing opportunities to meet with colleagues to discuss online teaching (Bailey & Card, 2009). Since agency changes with time (O'Meara & Terosky, 2010), the timing of training is important.

Faculty members have the capacity to take charge of and direct their learning in purposeful ways (Glass, 2012; O'Meara & Campbell, 2011; O'Meara et al., 2008). Several

participants in this study demonstrated an ability to direct their learning in purposeful ways by attending training prior to teaching online for the first time in order to learn how to use the LMS or other technological tools. But, Glass (2012) argued, faculty members have the capacity to draw meaning from their work that goes beyond learning new skills and “involves approaching one’s academic life as an ongoing act of self-creation” (p. 109). Faculty development specialists and other campus administrators should recognize then that going to a training about online teaching is one way faculty members author their own learning. At a deeper and longer-lasting level, faculty members may always be thinking about how to learn from and derive meaning from their work and how their work influences their sense of identity (Glass, 2012). People who support faculty who teach online should bear in mind that online teaching serves as an opportunity both for faculty to learn new skills, and for them to think about the meaning and direction of their work in a more general sense (Glass, 2012).

Implications For Practice: Patterns Across Gender, Appointment Type, Discipline And Years Teaching Online

In this section, I will discuss how variations in gender, appointment type, discipline, and number of years teaching online shape the impact of online teaching on faculty work. The more universities understand each of these variations, the better able they will be to target their support (Shea, 2007). Given that there were only 19 participants in this study, in this section I make observations about some of these patterns, but I do not offer any definitive conclusions.

Gender. Over three-quarters (12) of the participants in this study were male. Findings about the impact of online teaching on key elements of work related to gender need to be interpreted with the caveat that male and female faculty perspectives were not represented equally in my sample. My findings, among my sample, showed that gender did relate to different

patterns of the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life, with female faculty members responding more positively than male faculty members to online teaching. For example, whereas some of the male participants in my study were quite dissatisfied about not being rewarded for online teaching or having time to attend online teaching workshops, some of the female participants talked more favorably about how online teaching workshops presented opportunities for professional growth and expanded their network of colleagues.

On the one hand, my results parallel prior research (e.g. Lloyd et al., 2012). For example, Lloyd and colleagues (2012), in a survey of 75 faculty members who taught online from the same university about the barriers and incentives for online teaching, found that the male faculty identified a greater number of barriers to online teaching than their female colleagues. On the other hand, my results stand in contrast to prior research (e.g., Allen & Seaman, 2012). For example, results of a national survey of 4,564 full-time, part-time, tenure-track, tenured, and non-tenure-track faculty, some of whom had taught online and some of whom had not, showed that male faculty members were more optimistic than their female colleagues about online teaching (Allen & Seaman, 2012). While the sample sizes of each of these studies certainly varied greatly, given the somewhat contradictory findings across the three studies, perhaps more research needs to be conducted about how gender relates to barriers faculty identify for online teaching. Results of this research could potentially be used to better understand how to address faculty members' resistance to online teaching.

Appointment type. Within my sample, 12 participants were tenured and 7 participants were not. Findings did not show that appointment type relates to the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life, at least not among this modest sample of faculty members. These findings aligned with prior research. From a survey of 142 full-time tenure-track, tenured,

full-time non-tenure-track, and part-time instructors, Chapman (2011) found that the incentives and barriers for online teaching were similar across appointment type. Chapman (2011) recommended that campus leaders be aware that perhaps tenure-track, tenured, and full-time non-tenure-track instructors find the same set of incentives as attractive reasons to teach online, and that universities should do what they can to amplify these incentives.

In this study, perhaps appointment patterns did not relate to faculty members' experience of key elements of their work because there are more similarities than differences in how full-time tenured faculty and full-time non-tenured faculty members are treated at each of the three institutions where I conducted this research. Perhaps both tenured and non-tenured faculty members at each of these institutions had equal access to resources, such as professional development for online teaching, and were equally compensated for online teaching.

Discipline. Findings from this study suggest that participants' disciplinary affiliation relates to the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life. Several of the participants made comments about how teaching online specifically in their disciplines impacted their work in key ways, either positive or negative. For example, in terms of the negative impact, two computer science professors explained how they had to constantly update the online course content because of changes in the computer science field, and that this added to the already heavy workload of online teaching, taking more time away from their research.

Others' descriptions about how discipline relates to the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work were positive. For example, Scott talked about how he wanted to teach theater classes online since so many of his colleagues in the theater department believed it would not be possible, or appropriate, given the live, in-person nature of the discipline. Scott explained that his online theater classes were successful, and it was through teaching these classes that he

learned how to use tools like Skype and Google Drive to collaborate with colleagues across campus on other projects. Peter, who taught communications and media courses online, explained that because so much of today's communication occurs online, faculty in this discipline should be teaching students how to communicate online by offering online classes. Peter, like Scott, also talked about how teaching online opened up opportunities for collaborations with colleagues.

Several of the participants in this study made comments that suggested they believed some courses are more appropriate for the online format than others. For example, Gina, a psychology professor, said that she was quite certain that the content of the developmental psychology course she taught online was appropriate for an online format. But Gina adamantly explained that the psychology research design methods course she taught in person was not appropriate for an online format because it was a hands-on class that she set up as if the students were on an in-person collaborative research team. Gina also explained that in the research design methods class, she used the computers in the classroom to demonstrate how to use different data analysis software programs. Gina thought that it would be impossible to set up the research design methods course this way online.

Some researchers (e.g., Allen & Seaman, 2012; Mandernach, Mason, Forrest, & Hackathorn, 2012; Seaman, 2009; Shea et al., 2001) have explored whether faculty believe the content in their disciplines is appropriate for online delivery, and if the learning outcomes in their disciplines can be achieved in online or blended formats. For example, Mandernach and colleagues (2012) surveyed 102 full-time and part-time tenured and non-tenured psychology faculty members, about half of whom had taught online before, to explore their perceptions about the appropriateness of teaching undergraduate psychology courses online. They found that the

majority of faculty indicated that it was appropriate to offer at least one class in an online or blended format, but that not every course should be offered in this format. In a discussion of their results, Mandernach and colleagues (2012) explained:

Perhaps the real reason for the lack of support is due to a fear of teaching applied skills, such as methods and vocational skills, in a virtual environment that does not allow for an informal assessment of one's interpersonal abilities. Specific to psychology, faculty may prefer an opportunity for face-to-face engagement with students when teaching skills that will ultimately rest on one's ability to interact effectively with others. (p. 207)

Comments from participants in my study and results from studies like this suggest that the nature of the content in a discipline and the learning outcomes envisioned for students has bearing on faculty members' perceptions of the appropriateness of offering online classes in their disciplines.

Based on their findings, Mandernach and colleagues (2012) recommended that departments consider offering "content-based courses" (p. 207) online and "skill-based courses" (p. 207) face-to-face. For universities that offer fully online degree programs, though, this recommendation may not be all that useful. In addition, the increase in delivery of online courses is not occurring just in a few disciplines or in a few courses, but across several major disciplinary areas at roughly equal rates. The demand for online classes in business, liberal arts and sciences, general studies, humanities, health professions and related sciences, education, computer and information sciences, social sciences and history, psychology, and engineering is growing at equal rates (Allen & Seaman, 2008). Therefore, it is reasonable to suppose that regardless of whether they think their course or discipline is appropriate for an online format, faculty members may be asked or told by their department to deliver the class online.

Perhaps, then, in addition to acknowledging the debate about whether courses in a discipline are appropriate for an online format, it is more important to focus on what kinds of

teaching strategies and learning activities faculty members can use to deliver a variety of courses online. Several participants in my study talked about innovative strategies they used to make their online courses interactive. Rachel, who taught photography online, described how students had to keep blogs of their photographs for her and their peers to comment on. Scott, who taught several theater classes online, described working with the instructional support center to set up a karaoke program that allowed students in an acting class to read lines with a virtual actor.

It may be useful, then, for faculty development centers to heavily market the ways in which they can support faculty in making their courses interactive, and how they can work with faculty members to design skill-based courses online. It is important to point out that recommendations about how faculty development centers might consider marketing their services and supporting faculty in the design of interactive and skill-based courses may not dispel the skepticism of faculty who believe that the content of their discipline is not appropriate for the online format. But, given that more and more courses are being offered online without consideration for whether the content is appropriate for the online format, the suggestions may be worth considering.

Number of classes taught online. Findings showed that the number of online classes participants taught throughout their careers relates to the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life, at least among the faculty who responded to this study. For most of the participants, the online teaching experience seemed to improve as they gained more experience. In particular, two participants, Kim and Gina, indicated that they felt much more comfortable teaching their third class online than they did when they taught their first two classes. Given these findings, perhaps universities should strongly encourage faculty to teach online at least three times, since for many faculty the experience seems to improve with time.

While this may seem like an unreasonable or unrealistic request based on faculty members' multiple responsibilities, if faculty members are aware that the online teaching experience seems to get easier over time, perhaps they would be more willing to stick with it.

These findings from this study relate to prior research (e.g. Allen & Seaman, 2012; Lloyd et al., 2012; Shea, 2007) that suggests that the more experience and exposure faculty members have to online teaching, the more accepting they are of it. Based on survey responses about the barriers and incentives for online teaching from 386 faculty teaching online in 36 colleges in a large state university system, Shea (2007) concluded, "The number of times an instructor had taught online was associated with the relative importance of the demotivators" (p. 79). For example, compared to their colleagues who had taught three or more online classes, a larger proportion of instructors who had taught online once or twice indicated that lack of in-person contact with students discouraged them from wanting to continue to teach online (Shea, 2007).

Of note, however, for other participants in my study, the online teaching experience did not improve as they accumulated more experience. Three participants spoke in primarily negative ways about the impact of online teaching on the key elements of their work; each of them had taught online at least three times. Comments from Lee, Rick, and Todd revealed several areas of major dissatisfaction, including the time-consuming nature of online teaching and the heavy workload. In addition, Lee and Rick both spent a great deal of time talking about lack of meaningful interactions with their students and concerns about student cheating. Lee and Rick both tried to use Skype and Webex to have more meaningful interactions with their students, but they seemed disappointed with the results. Lee and Rick described how this disappointment over unsuccessful online synchronous interactions with students grew over time and made them miss teaching face-to-face classes that much more. This mounting

disappointment may explain why their online teaching experience did not improve over time regardless of the number of classes they taught.

Indeed, the participants who indicated that online teaching improved as they taught more online classes also voiced some of the same dissatisfaction as the participants who indicated that it did not improve. However, it appeared as if the participants who indicated that online teaching got easier over time found some “efficiencies,” as one participant put it, to reduce the workload. Examples of the efficiencies Walter described included tape recording his lectures and re-using his PowerPoints. Regardless of whether participants indicated that online teaching got easier as they gained more experience with it, the majority of the participants were still able to discuss how online teaching contributed to their professional growth. This finding supports the value of a narrative of faculty growth (O’Meara et al., 2008).

Implications For Practice: Patterns Across The Career

Career Phase. In this section, I discuss how variations in years of in-person full-time higher education teaching experience related to the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work for those in my study. Other studies may explore this trend and, if it holds, universities may want to adjust the type of support they provide accordingly.

Early middle career participants (8-13 years teaching, n=7). Among the participants with between 8 to 13 years of teaching experience, a noticeable pattern emerged, in that they tended to describe online teaching in less positive terms than their senior colleagues. My findings paralleled prior research (Jaschik & Lederman, 2014; Seaman, 2009; Shea, 2007) that suggested that younger faculty members were less accepting of online teaching than their older colleagues.

For example, results of Shea’s (2007) survey of 386 faculty members who taught online showed that younger faculty members, compared their more senior colleagues, were more

skeptical about whether online courses could achieve the same level of quality in learning outcomes as face-to-face courses. One might hypothesize that younger faculty members were more adept with using technology tools and, therefore, would have an easier time with online teaching. However, regardless of the level of adeptness of faculty members with technology, prior research (e.g. Jaschik & Lederman, 2014; Seaman, 2009; Shea, 2007) has shown that some faculty members who were earlier in their careers, because of their skepticism about the quality of students' learning in online courses, were somewhat less likely to want to teach online than their more senior colleagues.

Shea (2007) questioned how higher education institutions would be able to accommodate students' demand for online courses and deliver high quality online courses if some younger faculty members are reluctant to teach online and are skeptical about its quality. My findings, along with findings in prior research (Jaschik & Lederman, 2014; Seaman, 2009; Shea, 2007), point to the need for universities to devise strategies to motivate younger faculty members, as well as those more advanced, to teach online. Based on a review of ten years' worth of literature, Passmore (2000) found that faculty earlier in their careers are motivated to teach online by extrinsic rewards (e.g., increased pay, increased flexibility). Perhaps, then, university administrators who wish to motivate faculty who are earlier in their careers to teach online should appeal to their desire for extrinsic rewards.

Middle career participants. (14-21 years teaching, n=6). Among the participants with between 14 to 21 years of teaching experience, the only noticeable pattern was a tendency to describe online teaching in moderate terms. None of the participants in this group spoke in a strongly negative way about online teaching, or in a strongly positive way. Findings from this study suggested that the faculty participating who were in the middle stage of their careers were

adjusting fairly smoothly to online teaching and perhaps were relatively open to the idea. These findings support the conclusions of prior researchers (e.g., Baldwin & Chang, 2006; Baldwin et al., 2008).

Based on interviews with 20 mid-career faculty members and 20 department chairs, Baldwin et. al (2008) concluded that the middle portion of the career might be an opportune time to involve faculty in online teaching. Given that mid-career faculty may feel freer to pursue interests that are more meaningful to them after earning tenure, it may be a particularly appropriate time for department chairs to discuss with them the possibility of teaching online.

Baldwin and colleagues (2008) offered several suggestions for how department chairs could support the involvement of middle-career faculty in online teaching. First, department chairs could work with mid-career faculty to set goals related to online teaching, including teaching new online courses, incorporating technology into their existing courses, or engaging in the scholarship of teaching and learning about online teaching. If department chairs work with mid-career faculty to help them identify clear professional goals related to online teaching, then mid-career faculty may stay more engaged in their work and feel more supported (Baldwin et al., 2008). Findings from this study about mid-career participants' openness to online teaching suggest that Baldwin and colleagues' (2008) recommendation to help middle-career faculty set goals related to becoming more involved in online teaching may be well received by this group.

Second, Baldwin and colleagues (2008) recommended that department chairs could encourage mid-career faculty to attend professional development sessions for online teaching and could work with faculty developers to lead these sessions. For example, mid-career faculty could set up online course peer review programs where they give each other feedback on their courses. By encouraging mid-career faculty to get involved in professional development related

to online teaching, department chairs would help meet mid-career faculty's need for professional development (Baldwin et al., 2008). Findings from this study about mid-career participants' openness to online teaching suggest that mid-career faculty may be amenable to becoming involved in professional development for online teaching.

Third, Baldwin and colleagues' (2008) recommended that department chairs keep in mind that mid-career faculty's involvement in this type of professional development may be useful in preparing them to assume leadership and mentorship roles in online teaching. My findings support Baldwin and colleagues' (2008) conclusion that the middle career phase may also be a good time to groom faculty to mentor their younger colleagues in online teaching, particularly since prior researchers (e.g. Jaschik & Lederman, 2014; Seaman, 2009; Shea, 2007) have suggested that younger faculty tend overall to be reluctant to teach online.

Senior career participants. (22-31 years teaching, n=6). Among the participants with between 22 to 31 years of teaching experience, there were two noticeable patterns. First, participants in this group expressed a greater appreciation of online teaching as an opportunity for professional growth. Findings from this study are parallel to some prior research. For example, Shih and Sorcinelli (2007), based on interviews with 61 senior faculty members who participated in a faculty learning community about teaching with technology, found that the stimulating challenge of online teaching served as a strong incentive for senior faculty to teach online. Online teaching also appealed to these senior faculty members because of its potential to improve student learning and to enable them to use new technologies in creative ways. Shih & Sorcinelli (2007) also found that the faculty members they interviewed were eager to take advantage of opportunities to discuss online teaching with colleagues and wanted support to learn how to use new technology tools for online teaching.

Given these findings, perhaps faculty development centers should “think about offering longer, intensive experiences that balance theory and practice and provide support for first-timers” (Journet, 2007, p. 117). Or, faculty development centers could offer more structured opportunities for senior faculty to discuss online teaching with their peers (Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007). Perhaps faculty development specialists can capitalize on the openness of some senior faculty members to online teaching by asking them to serve as mentors to their younger peers who are teaching online. Perhaps if skeptical or reluctant younger faculty members had enthusiastic senior faculty mentors as colleagues when they teach online, they would be more willing to teach online (Baldwin et al., 2008; Shea, 2007).

Although this study’s results about senior member’s perspectives paralleled some of the previous research, it also contrasted with some other research. For example, based on data from 10,700 faculty members, Seaman (2009) found that some senior faculty members were hesitant to teach online. Compared to their junior and senior colleagues, senior faculty members were developing online courses at lower rates (Seaman, 2009). Researchers (e.g. Seaman, 2009; Shih & Sorcinelli, 2007) have pointed out the possibility that senior faculty members may sometimes be resistant to online teaching due to anxieties about learning how to use new technologies or lack of interest.

Participants with between 22 to 31 years of teaching experience had more concerns about course ownership and were more cautious about issues related to privacy and intellectual property. These findings about ownership suggest that perhaps faculty with more experience were more accustomed to the “familiar textbook model” (Bacow et al., 2012, p. 22) that offered clearer intellectual property guidelines. Perhaps faculty with less teaching experience were younger and more used to the idea of content being made public on the Internet, and were less

sensitive about privacy. Since there are still a lot of unanswered questions about online teaching and course ownership and it is not a well-researched area, it is difficult to compare results of this study to those of prior researchers. Also, the sample for my study was quite small.

Contributions to Theory

In the prior section, I discussed the impact of online teaching on key elements of faculty work life and the implications for practice. In this section, I discuss how findings from this study contribute to theory about online teaching and to the field of organizational studies research.

Prevalence of paradoxes in online education. Findings from this study call attention to some of the paradoxical dimensions of online teaching. Findings show that these paradoxes cut across variations in gender, appointment type, discipline, number of courses taught online, and career phase. But, what do these paradoxical findings contribute to theories about online education and faculty work? To answer this question, I turn to the fields of psychology and organizational research, where paradoxes have been used to study organizational behavior and advance organizational studies theory (Cameron & Quinn, 1988; Chen, 2002; Lewis, 2000; Poole & Van de Ven, 1989). I also turn to prior research about online education.

The word paradox is now part of the lexicon, and is commonly used in popular media and scholarly literature. Paradox is derived from the Greek words para, which means past or contrary to, and dox, which means opinion (Chen, 2002). Taken together, para and dox denote apparent contradictions, or the existence of simultaneous mixed opinions or events (Lewis, 2000). Examples of paradoxical ideas commonly demonstrated in corporate settings are doing more with fewer resources, and increasing efficiency and productivity with careful attention to detail and quality (Poole & Van de Ven, 1989).

By their very nature, paradoxes are messy. Paradoxes “divulge inconsistencies in our logic or assumptions” (Poole & Van de Ven, 1989, p. 564). Some organizational researchers (e.g. Chen, 2002; Lewis, 2000) argue that some managers think that examining these messy paradoxes can be a chore, and some managers would rather not dive beneath the surface of these apparent contradictions. Instead of looking at how “the opposites that constitute paradox” (Chen, 2002, p. 182) function at the same time in the workplace, some managers look at them as separate events that cannot happen simultaneously. In this way, some managers try to minimize the complexities of paradoxical events by viewing them through either/or frameworks. As lenses through which to view behavior, these either/or frameworks eliminate the possibility of two events happening at the same time; either one event occurs, or another event occurs, but both cannot occur at the same time. In this way, these either/or frameworks obscure areas of potential conflict illustrated by paradoxical events. By disregarding these potential conflicts that are hidden by either/or frameworks, managers inadvertently may be making it harder for themselves to manage employees (Chen, 2002; Lewis, 2000).

Researchers in the field of psychology (e.g., Beck, 1988) have likened either/or frameworks (e.g. Chen, 2002; Lewis, 2000) to black and white thinking patterns that occur when people want to categorize events using either one of two categories. Just like either/or frameworks, black and white thinking patterns are polarizing and potentially damaging to people’s thought processes. Beck (1988) maintained, “polarized thoughts are very common and can be described as all-or-nothing thinking where there is no middle ground” (as cited in Bovey & Hide, 2001, p. 380). When individuals engage in polarized thinking, they label their experiences using only one of two categories (e.g. yes or no, good or bad), employing faulty reasoning that conceals “inconsistencies in our logic or assumptions” (Poole & Van De Ven,

1989, p. 564). Beck (1988) argued that this polarized thinking results in cognitive distortions, or inaccurate assessments and thoughts people have about themselves and their experiences (as cited in Bovey & Hide, 2001), and a failure to see inconsistencies in their logic (Poole & Van de Ven, 1989). The mixed results of this study suggest that campus leaders would be getting a distorted representation of the impact of online teaching on faculty work by viewing it through an either/or framework and disregarding paradoxes, as inconsistency seems to characterize the experience.

If organizational researchers overlook paradoxes in favor of either/or frameworks, Cameron and Quinn (1988) pointed out, it is likely that “oversimplified and polarized” (as cited in Lewis, 2000, p. 760) perspectives about people’s behavior in organizations will prevail. In a seminal piece in organizational studies literature, *Paradox And Change: Toward A Theory Of Organizational Management*, Cameron and Quinn (1988) urged researchers to embrace paradoxes in order to uncover the “complexities, diversity, and ambiguities” (as cited in Lewis, 2000, p. 760) that exist in organizations. By attending to paradoxes, managers may more easily see the underlying tensions and subtleties of people’s behavior, along with the more obvious dimensions of behavior (Berlinger & Sitkin, 1990).

Using the same logic, I argue here that by looking closely at paradoxes, scholars and practitioners who seek to understand how faculty perceive the impact of online teaching on key elements of their work will continue to uncover nuanced descriptions of this form of work. These descriptions will allow universities to better support faculty who teach online, and perhaps motivate more faculty to teach online. Based on data from 10,700 faculty members, Seaman (2009) drew similar conclusions about how campus leaders can use paradoxes to make sense of faculty members’ reactions to online teaching.

Seaman (2009) concluded, “the paradoxes evidenced by the survey results also suggest considerable opportunity for campus leaders to engage the faculty in constructive dialogue about the quality, support, and overall role of online education at their respective institutions” (p. 4). Seaman’s (2009) findings suggest that campus leaders need to look at not just whether faculty members support or do not support online education, but also at how to make online teaching appealing to faculty with disparate perspectives about it.

As an alternative to either/or frameworks (Chen, 2002; Lewis, 2000) or black and white categories, paradoxes illuminate gray areas. Gray areas are the figurative spaces between diametrically opposed black and white categories (Bruhn, 2008). Like gray areas, paradoxes represent a wealth “of multifaceted understandings offered by tensions, oppositions, and contradictions among diverse explanations of the same phenomenon” (Chen, 2002, p. 182). Recognizing gray areas alerts people to “knowledge which requires further study and thought (the so-called ‘gray area’)” (Weiler, 2004, p. 48). Findings from this study surely highlight the need for further study and thought about online teaching and suggest the usefulness of conceptualizing online teaching as a gray area, replete with paradoxes.

Making meaning of the paradoxes. I drew upon Gappa, Austin, and Trice’s (2007) Key Elements of Faculty Work and O’Meara, and Neumann, and Terosky’s (2008) Framework for Faculty Growth, and found that several broad themes related to how faculty perceive the impact of online teaching on their work emerged. Each of these themes reveals another paradoxical dimension of the online teaching experience. Here I describe these themes, including how faculty members’ sense of agency, concerns about relatedness, and the changes they experience when they teach online present additional paradoxes to consider while reflecting on the meaning of this study’s findings.

The first paradox relates to faculty members' sense of agency. Agency refers to the internal and external resources faculty members have to manage their work (O'Meara et al., 2008). Early on in the experience, lack of resources in the form of knowledge or skills seemed to result in a sense of helplessness for some. Faculty members who are experts in their field struggle to make sense of online teaching, an area in which they often have little expertise. For most faculty members, online teaching is a new activity and faculty may have little knowledge from which to draw. For faculty members who have never taken an online course, there is no frame of reference from which to envision the experience. For many faculty members, the online teaching experience improves over time as they learn new skills and find more efficient ways to manage the time and workload. As faculty members move forward with their sense of agency, they are also reminded of their initial sense of helplessness. Figure 1 illustrates the factors that constrain and enhance faculty members' sense of agency. The negative sign indicates the constraining factors and the positive sign indicates the growth enhancing factors. The horizontal line shows how these factors may change over time.

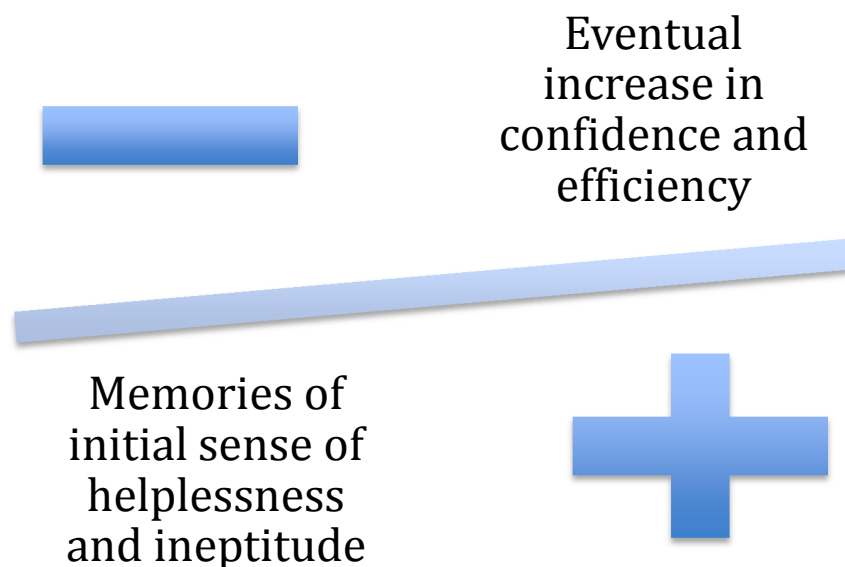


Figure 1. Sense of Agency: Constraining and growth enhancing factors.

The second paradox relates to faculty members' concerns about relatedness. Faculty members' sense of relatedness—to each other and to their students—is an important element of their job satisfaction (Gappa et. al, 2007; Hagedorn, 2000; O'Meara et al., 2008). Faculty members indicated that online teaching made them feel simultaneously more connected and more disconnected, underscoring how online teaching changes how faculty members interact with students and colleagues. Some of the faculty members described a keen awareness of the sense of loneliness online teaching can generate for them and for their students. Other faculty members described an appreciation of how the online environment allowed them to get to know their students well, but realized that do not know who their students are if they see them in person. As faculty members described feeling connected to their students, they also pointed out the anonymity of these relationships. Figure 2 illustrates the factors that constrain and enhance faculty members' sense of relatedness. The negative sign indicates the constraining factors and the positive sign indicates the growth enhancing factors. The horizontal line shows how these factors may change over time.

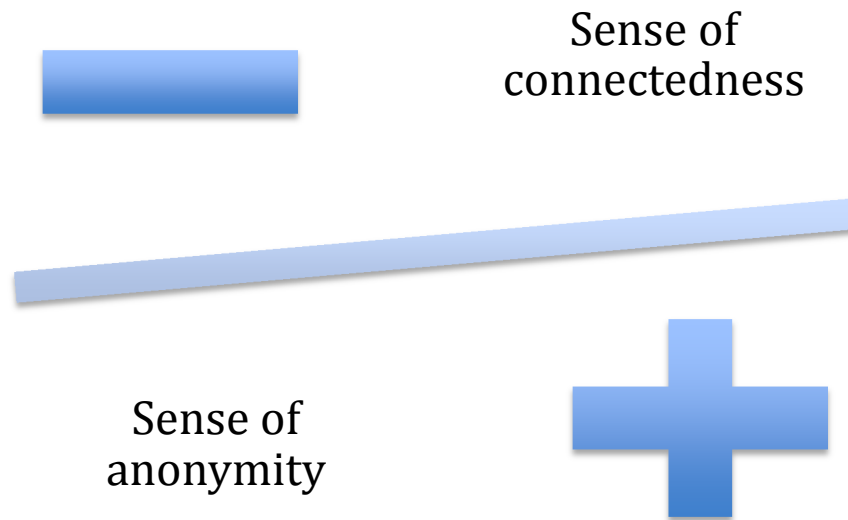


Figure 2. Sense of Relatedness: Constraining and growth enhancing factors.

The third paradox relates to how faculty members are changed through online teaching. As faculty members engaged in online teaching, the experience changed how they went about their work and how they felt about their work for worse or for better. For worse, the change in the medium through which they interact with their students takes away a rewarding and meaningful aspect of teaching—face-to-face contact with students. For better, some of the change is rewarding as faculty members learn new skills and think about their teaching in new ways. As faculty members experience the changes online teaching brings in how they approach their work—whether these changes are rewarding or not—opportunities for professional growth arise. Figure 3 illustrates the factors that constrain and enhance faculty members' sense of growth. The negative sign indicates the constraining factors and the positive sign indicates the growth enhancing factors. The horizontal line shows how these factors may change over time.

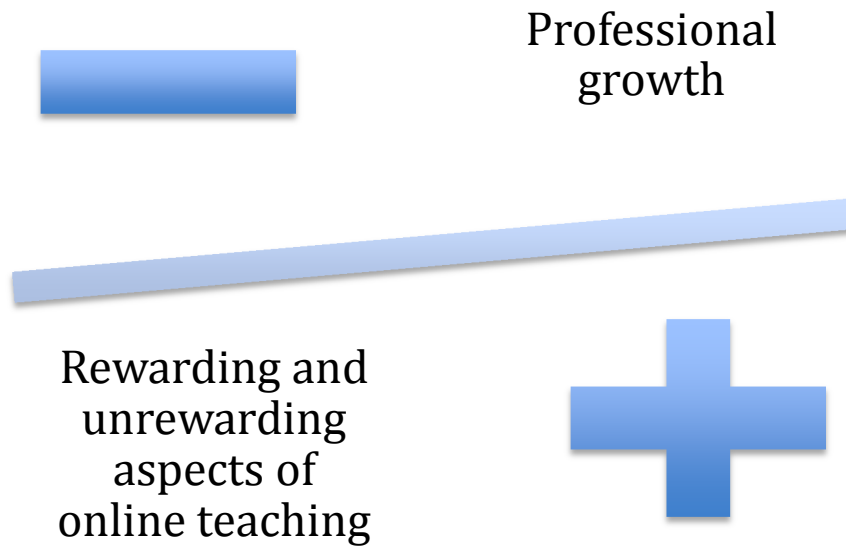


Figure 3. Sense of Change: Constraining and growth enhancing factors.

Each of these paradoxical dimensions—faculty members’ sense of agency, faculty members’ concerns about relatedness, and change—paint a bigger picture of what the online teaching experiences means for faculty members. Along with this bigger picture, campus leaders and researchers need to be alert to the smaller pictures painted by each of the individual faculty members as they described their different perspectives about online teaching. Although this study did not address the question of how the personality, background and disciplinary affiliation of individual faculty members’ shapes their account of the online teaching experience and its impact on their work, it is important to be aware of how these individual differences may shape faculty members’ sensitivity to and experience of each of these paradoxes.

Narrative of faculty growth. In some ways, findings about the paradoxical dimensions of online teaching are not surprising, given that paradoxes are an inherent part of human existence. Lewis (2000) explained, “Philosophers from the ancient Greeks to Existentialists have

viewed human existence as paradoxical--grounded in tensions between life and death, good and evil, self and other” (p. 761). These paradoxes, or tensions and contradictions, present opportunities for growth and change that occur as people figure out how to make sense of them (Lewis, 2000).

It is people’s capacity to successfully work through tensions that is the foundation of O’Meara and colleagues’ (2008) narrative of faculty professional growth, which runs counter to the narrative of constraint. In outlining the narrative of faculty professional growth, O’Meara and her colleagues (2008) explained that the constraints served as valuable points of contrast from which to identify areas of faculty work that might serve as opportunities for professional growth.

In this way, the co-existing narratives of constraint and faculty professional growth (O’Meara et al., 2008) illustrate how “paradox is a double-edged sword” (Lewis, 2000, p. 763). Lewis (2000) argued, “Tensions might serve as a ‘trigger for change’...Yet, tensions simultaneously inhibit change...first reactions are defensive, clinging to past understandings” (p. 763). These initial reactions to tensions are somewhat illustrative of the narrative of constraint, which highlights faculty’s resistance to change, or constrained resources with which to cope with change. O’Meara and her colleagues (2008) acknowledged the challenges and barriers that characterized the narrative of constraint, but urged future researchers to consider how to infuse a narrative of faculty professional growth into their work.

Indeed, this study was conducted in response to O’Meara and her colleagues’ (2008) challenge to shift the conversation about faculty work away from its constraints to conversations that focus on its potential for fostering faculty professional growth. Based on the results of this study, I propose a supplement to O’Meara and her colleagues’ (2008) narrative of professional growth: researchers and campus leaders need to examine and embrace the paradoxes and gray

areas in online teaching. In order to use this supplemental narrative, campus leaders must go beyond simply identifying paradoxes. Merely identifying paradoxes, Lewis (2000) argued, “does not necessarily foster understanding” (p. 760) of them, or the inconsistencies they illuminate. To gain more insight into faculty’s perceptions of how online teaching impacts their work, the paradoxes must be closely analyzed to unearth their complexities, and to uncover the potential the tensions that make up the paradoxes hold for professional growth.

Prior researchers (e.g. Glass, 2012; Hoffman, 2013) have examined the potential for online teaching to serve as an opportunity for professional growth. For example, Glass (2012) did a qualitative study about how faculty learned to teach digitally mediated classes. He found that online teaching does not just change the medium through which faculty members teach, but also how faculty members think about and practice teaching. Based on his interviews with sixteen faculty members, Glass (2012) concluded that faculty members’ accounts about how they learned to teach online prompted larger conversations surrounding how faculty go about their learning. Glass (2012) encouraged future researchers to continue to explore how online teaching supports faculty members’ professional growth and learning and their capacity to steer the direction of their work in personally and professionally meaningful ways. This study builds on Glass’s (2012) findings by exposing, embracing and analyzing the paradoxes and tensions that emerge during the professional growth process.

Embracing the paradoxes of online teaching has potential to provide campus leaders with a helpful strategy to use to manage the widespread changes that new technologies are spurring on campus (Gappa et al., 2007; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006, 2007). Turning back to the organizational studies literature, there is a call for managers to uncover paradoxes, rather than keep them hidden (Chen, 2002; Lewis, 2000). Indeed, making “significant advances in

management and organization theory will require a way to address paradoxes inherent in human beings and their social organizations” (Chen, 2002, p. 182). Ironically, when managers cover up paradoxes in an effort to move organizations forward, they will only hold organizations back (Lewis, 2000).

Using paradoxes and gray areas as tools to construct nuanced descriptions of the complexity and tensions that surface when faculty teach online will help campus leaders move forward in supporting faculty who teach online. Given that technology, and the growth of online education in particular, continues to alter the landscape of higher education (Gappa et al., 2007; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006, 2007), the better able campus leaders are to manage these complexities, the more positioned they will be to help faculty members adjust to the new demands of their work, and perhaps the better positioned faculty will be for professional growth.

Areas For Future Research

Findings from this study suggest several areas for further research. Researchers interested in expanding this line of inquiry can do so in several ways: (a) further exploration of the implications of online teaching on key elements of work based on variations in demographic variables, teaching experience, and career phase; (b) research that explores how to structure professional development for online teaching for part-time instructors; (c) research that explores the impact of teaching blended courses on key aspect of faculty members’ work lives.

First, there is a need for further research that examines differences in online teaching across gender, appointment type, discipline, career phase, and number of online classes taught. Much of the research about online teaching has lumped together the experiences of all faculty members who teach online and overlooked differences across gender, appointment type and other potentially important factors (Shea, 2007). Findings from this study shed some light on

these differences, but more research is needed to gain greater insight into how and why these variables affect faculty members' attitudes toward online teaching and their willingness to teach online. Here are some examples of questions for future researchers to address regarding these variables. Why is it that some male faculty members might be more pessimistic about online teaching than their female colleagues? If male faculty members tend to view online teaching more negatively than female faculty members, how will campus leaders motivate male faculty members to teach online? If future researchers could uncover more about why these variations occur, then it might be easier for them to devise strategies to respond and better support faculty,

Second, there is a need for more research about how to provide professional development for part-time instructors who teach online. Universities are hiring increasing numbers of part-time instructors, and many of them teach online (Chapman, 2011). Part-time instructors are a vital part of an institution's ability to offer online courses, and also shape the quality of online courses (Chapman, 2011; Shea, 2007). Part-time instructors frequently do not have the same level of access to professional development opportunities as their colleagues (Kezar & Sam, 2010; Sorcinelli & Austin, 2006). Yet, if part-time instructors do not have access to professional development for online teaching, might it be harder for them to learn how to teach online or to feel supported when they do it? At the same time, if the part-time instructors who teach online have full-time jobs, it may be quite difficult for them to make time for professional development opportunities if they are offered. Future researchers might explore different ways to design professional development opportunities for part-time faculty who teach online. For example, are online professional development programs a viable means of meeting the needs of part-time faculty? Would it be feasible for universities to pay part-time faculty to attend these professional development programs, given the financial constraints facing many of today's schools? These

questions about how to support part-time instructors who teach online touch on a lot of complex issues that are occurring in the academy today.

Third, there is a need for further research on how teaching blended courses impacts key elements of faculty members' work lives. For example, do faculty who teach blended courses have an easier time managing their schedules because there is more structure built into blended courses? Do faculty who teach blended courses have an easier time forming relationships with their students since they meet their students face-to-face? If findings from these future studies suggest that faculty who teach blended courses experience larger amounts of the key elements of work that are associated with increased satisfaction, commitment, and productivity (Gappa et al., 2007), then perhaps campus leaders should advocate for more blended course offerings.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Table 3. Interview Protocol

Herzberg (1968, 1974) Hygiene-Motivators	What challenges do you experience when you teach online?
Herzberg (1968, 1974) Hygiene-Motivators	What rewards do you experience when you teach online?
Flexibility/Balance (Gappa et al., 2007)	In what way does online teaching impact the flexibility of your work?
	In what way does online teaching allow you to manage your time better?
Academic Freedom/Autonomy (Gappa et al., 2007)	In what way does online teaching impact your sense of academic freedom?
	In what way does online teaching impact your sense of autonomy in your work?
	In what way does online teaching impact your sense of your ability to control and manage your work?
Agency (O'Meara et al., 2008)	In what way does online teaching impact your sense of efficacy as an instructor?
Professional relationships (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008)	In what way does online teaching impact your ability to build satisfying relationships with colleagues?
Professional growth (Gappa et al., 2007; O'Meara et al., 2008)	In what way does online teaching impact your ability to participate in opportunities for professional growth?

Background Information

Express appreciation for the faculty member's time, thank him/her for meeting, and review consent form. Offer faculty member a brief description of the study and give the faculty member copy of the consent form; collect the consent form that the faculty member signs. Go over the consent form and make sure that he/she gives permission to participation and digital recording. Briefly summarize the study and express appreciation for participating. Ensure confidentiality. Introduce the study verbally and thank them for agreeing to participate.

Interview Questions

The way I'd like to do this is just to have a conversation. To start, I am going to give you an overview of what's going to happen. This interview is divided into 5 parts. First, I'm going to ask you some pretty straightforward questions about your background in online teaching. Then, I'll ask to talk about how you learned to teach online. Then, I'll ask about your experiences with online teaching. Next, I'll ask you about the impact of online teaching on your work. Finally, I'll ask you to think a bit about what online teaching might look like in the future for you. DO you have any questions before we get started?

Teaching & Professional background

This first set of questions is intended for me to learn a little bit about your professional background and online teaching experience.

- How many years' total have you been teaching at the college level?
- How long have you been teaching online?
- What courses do you teach online?
- How many students are in each of your online courses?
- What is the total number of times have you taught online?
- Have you taught the same courses you teach online face to face?
- Tell me about the work you do at your university
- Please give me some background on your experiences teaching at the college level.

Learning To Teach Online

This set of questions is intended for me to hear about how you learned to teach online.

- What circumstances led you to start teaching online?
- What did you expect when you started?
- How did your early experiences compare with your expectations?
- How did you learn to teach online? (training, books, trial & error)?
- How satisfied were you with the resources available to prepare you to teach online?
- Who/what are your support systems in learning to teach online?

Describing your online teaching experience

In this set of questions, I will ask you to describe your online teaching experience more specifically.

- Please tell me 3 or 4 descriptive words that sum up what your online teaching experience has been like.
 - Please say a bit more about why you chose each of those words
- What are the frustrations and challenges you encounter in online teaching?
 - How do you handle these challenges and frustrations?
 - Can you give me a few examples?

What are the benefits and satisfactions you derive from online teaching?

Can you give me a few examples?

General impact of online teaching on your work

This set of questions is intended to address the impact of online teaching on your work.

- Some people who teach online feel that the experience has an impact on other parts of their work like their advising, research, work in the community, committee work-all the things faculty members do. Do you think that online teaching has affected any of your other work?
 - How so?
- Has online teaching had any impact on the flexibility of your work?
 - In what way?
 - Tell me about the pros and cons associated with the flexibility of online teaching.
- Has online teaching had any impact on your relationships with other people? (e.g. peers, colleagues, etc.)?
 - Who do you talk to most often about what is going on in your online teaching?
 - Who do you trust for help when something important is on your mind?
- Has online teaching had any impact on your sense of autonomy as a faculty member?
 - Were you asked to do this or did you volunteer?
 - Who decides if you will teach online and which online courses you will teach from one semester to the next?
 - How free are you to make independent choices about the courses you teach online?
 - How much choice do you have in what your class looks like?
 - How much choice do you have about how you teach?
 - Are there any particular guidelines you are expected to follow?
 - Who has access to your course? How do you feel about that?
- Does your online teaching experience have any relevance to your professional growth?
- When you need support, where do you find it?

Looking forward.

This set of questions is intended to address how you envision online teaching affecting the rest of your career.

- As you look ahead in your career, do you see yourself continuing to teach online?
- What do you expect in terms of how online teaching will impact your career?
- I'd like to hear what advice you have for other people who teach online.
- What would you tell others based on your experience?
- As you look back on things we've talked about, are there other insights you'd like to share?
- Do you have any questions for me?

Appendix B: Research Participation Information and Consent Form

June 2014

CONSENT FORM TO PARTICIPATE IN INTERVIEWS AND AUDIOTAPING

Dear

I am a fourth year doctoral student in Michigan State University's College of Education higher education administration program. I am conducting a dissertation data study to learn about the experiences of mid-career faculty who teach online. The interview I am asking you to do is part of an effort to better understand how online teaching affects various aspects of your work life.

The interviews will last approximately 60 minutes.

I want to clearly state that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You can refuse to answer any question as well as stop participating in the study at any time. If at any point during the study you wish to discontinue, the information collected will not be used in the analysis and results of this project.

Every effort will be made to protect the confidentiality of the information provided in this questionnaire to the maximum extent allowable by law. All materials will be kept in a secure and locked location. Pseudonyms will be used to disguise personal identifiers in any written reports, publications, and presentations.

You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by participating in the interview.

If you have questions about your participation in this research project, you may contact Dr. Ann Austin (aaustin@msu.edu) or Jessica Mansbach (mansbach@msu.edu) at Michigan State University. If you have any concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact, anonymously, Michigan State University's Human Research Protection Program at: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, email: irb@msu.edu, or regular mail: 207 Olds Hall, MSU, East Lansing, MI 48824. Thank you for taking the time to participate in this study.

Sincerely,

Jessica Mansbach

Signature of Participant

Date

Date

Appendix C: Description of Participants

Table 4. Description of Participants

Group A	University	Years Teaching (face to face)	Years Teaching (online)	Discipline
Lee Yang (NT)	Hill University	8	1.5	religion
Rick Lowley (T)	St. Augustine's College	9	1	computer science
Matt Jackson (T)	Valley University	9	3	agriculture
Monica Ralpho (T)	St. Augustine's College	10	10	speech-language-hearing
Marton Filip (NT)	Valley University	11	10	physics
Peter Davis (NT)	Hill University	12	10	communication
Gina Violey (T)	St. Augustine's College	12	4	psychology
Group B				g
Janice Green(NTT)	Hill University	14	3	Geggeography
Scott Donahue (T)	Valley University	15	7	communication
Walter Expey (NTT)	Hill University	16	7	me film/media arts
Doug Tommo (T)	Hill University	16	8	history

Table 4 (cont'd)

Jack Smith (T)	Hill University	20	999	journalism
Kim Pops (T)	Hill University	20	3	17photography
Group C				
Monique Martin (T)	Hill University	22	17	journalism
Ramona Quatt (NTT)	Valley University	23	4	advertising
Adrian Finchley (T)	Valley University	25	10	hospitality
Todd Lombard (T)	Valley University	27	3	computer science
Rachel Jones (NTT)	Hill University	28	22	photography
Harry Limubs (T)	St. Augustine 's College	31	6	physics

NTT=Nontenure track
T=tenured

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