ADMINISTRATOR PERCEPTIONS ON THE MONITORING

OF TEACHING AND TEACHING MISBEHAVIOR IN

ONLINE HIGHER EDUCATION COURSES

By

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Abstract: The evaluation of teaching quality is a concern for leaders in higher education. Faculty supervisors must make recommendations for hiring, promoting, and rendering tenure decisions for faculty members. In addition, they must deal with problem faculty and decide how to address faculty misbehavior. Oversight and management of faculty teaching typically falls to that of the academic department head. This position is most commonly filled by academics with little management experience or training. Online teaching adds an additional technical element that further complicates the activity. Administrators in the position to monitor faculty teaching may have online teaching experience, but the monitoring of faculty is met with sizeable challenges including the professors' right to academic freedom and the protections of tenure. This qualitative case study explores administrator perceptions of the strengths and challenges of current systems of monitoring online faculty teaching and teaching misbehaviors in an American public university where the majority of courses are delivered traditionally or in-person. The study surveyed nine university staff, including faculty supervisors and online support administrators, about their perceptions of the differences and similarities for monitoring teaching and teaching misbehaviors in online and in-person courses. The results showed there was no real difference in practice or policy for the monitoring of online teaching. The author argues that there is a special need for monitoring in online higher education teaching specifically because the "public nature" component of college teaching is removed in online classes. A theoretical framework is presented that describes this "public nature" and the lack of third party perspective in online classes that previously served as a deterrent for misbehavior and facilitated detection from peer students, faculty, staff, and administrators.

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INTRODUCTION

In the 1990s, when online learning first started appearing in college curriculum, it was generally proffered by enthusiast faculty who developed and delivered their own courses. Often, these courses were not part of a larger online program or system. Throughout the intervening years, online course quality instruments appeared as rubrics or best-practices matrices that reflected this single-person operation. Although training efforts were available to teach faculty how to deliver online courses, few quality measures existed to assess or inform online course facilitation.

In the fall of 2017, there were over 6.5 million postsecondary students taking at least one course online (U.S. Department of Education, 2019). An increasing number of these online courses are developed by one faculty member and facilitated by another (Ragan & Schroeder, 2014). Yet, only recently has there been any developed instruments that assess quality in the online teaching space (Online Learning Consortium, 2016).

There are differences in practices at colleges and universities based on their funding models and the percentage of online courses and programs they offer. For instance, a private, wholly online university will conduct their operations much differently than a public university with online offerings representing only a small percentage of their courses. It is the latter category that this study explores.

Statement of the Problem

The evaluation of teaching quality is a concern for leaders in higher education. At the ground level, supervisors must make recommendations for hiring, promoting, and rendering tenure decisions for faculty members. In addition, they must deal with problem faculty and decide how to address faculty misbehavior. This activity requires evidence that is not entirely subjective.

Oversight and management of faculty teaching typically falls to that of the academic department head (Gmelch & Miskin, 2004). This position is structurally problematic in that it is most commonly filled by academics, untrained and inexperienced in the ways of management, who average six-years or less in their positions (Gmelch, 2015). Should the department head introduce any disciplinary action, there is often resistance and backlash built in to the organization.

Add to this difficult situation a technical teaching arena that is unfamiliar to the typical department head and what started as a challenging job becomes nearly insurmountable. According to Tobin et al. (2015),

> . . .even when department chairs have taught online themselves, there is often a gap between their own teaching practices and the institutional processes in place for evaluating those practices. Further, institutions will find varying levels of administrative familiarity with online teaching methods from department to department. (p. 2)

In the higher reaches of institutional leadership where policies are set regarding the evaluation of faculty, the majority of today's administrators have little to no online teaching experience (Tobin et al., 2015). Most institutions lack any special verbiage devoted to online education; rather they choose to treat the two modalities of online and in-person instruction as one in the same (Tobin et al., 2015).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this case study was to explore administrator perceptions of the strengths and challenges of current systems of monitoring online faculty teaching and teaching misbehaviors in an American public university where the majority of courses are delivered traditionally or in-person. The

research was bound by time, examining perceptions and characteristics of the programs and systems during the summer and fall semesters of 2020.

Research Question

In what ways do higher education academic administrators perceive differences, and adjust their administrative oversight, in monitoring teaching and teaching misbehavior in online courses versus in-person courses?

Epistemology

This study was approached from a constructionist paradigm. The goal of an emergent approach such as those grounded in constructionism is to convey meaning and understanding (Manning & Stage, 2003). This was accomplished by working through interpretations and categories that emerge from the data through inductive analysis (Manning & Stage, 2003). The constructionist worldview holds that meaning is not created, but rather it is constructed using existing things or ideas (Crotty, 1998).

The constructionist epistemology comes in two varieties: constructionism and constructivism. Unlike constructionism which is focused on the collective experience, constructivism is concerned with the individual mind and its ability to create meaning (Crotty, 1998). Because this research study was concerned with an organizational context and culture, the constructionism paradigm was followed.

Theoretical Framework

Though the term does not have a completely agreed upon definition, a theoretical framework was defined by Merriam and Tisdell (2015) as "the underlying structure" or the "scaffolding" of a qualitative study (p. 85). This was further defined by Anfara and Mertz (2015) as "any empirical or quasi-empirical theory of social and/or psychological processes, at a variety of levels . . .that can be applied to the understanding of phenomena" (p. xv). As such, theoretical frameworks feature concepts or theories that support and inform a research study (Maxwell, 2013).

Anfara and Mertz (2015) suggested theoretical frameworks can provide structure to inform the research method construction as well as a "lens" that supports data analysis and synthesis. In their opinion, theoretical frameworks support qualitative research in the following ways: improve the study's organization and focus, improve (or obfuscate) meaning and understanding, specify vernacular and situate the study within other scholarly research, and reveal the study's strengths and weaknesses. Theoretical frameworks also describe concepts that help in the coding of data.

This study relied on Braxton and Bayer's (1999) and Braxton et al.'s (2011) theory of the 'functional self-policing structure of college teaching' as a theoretical framework through which the study was constructed and analyzed. This theory purports that, as professionals, faculty are provided with autonomy, academic freedom, and universalism; faculty are thereby left to police themselves. This self-policing system is effective because students witness, first-hand, most types of teaching misbehaviors. This witnessing, in effect, is a deterrent to teaching misbehavior as well as a reporting vehicle as teaching misbehaviors are most often reported by students or student witnesses.

This theoretical framework was selected *a priori* to help inform the study's design, including methods, data collection, and data analysis. A more in-depth review of Braxton and Bayer's (1999) and Braxton et al.'s (2011) theory can be found in chapter three. Chapters four and five provide further analysis of the theory and its use as a lens in the study.

Methods and Procedures

This study used a case study research method. The goal of case study research is not to determine an explanation or cause, but to develop an understanding of the case (Stake, 2006). In this way, I sought to understand the current situation in the detection of faculty misbehavior in online, higher education teaching.

This qualitative, case study includes interviews, document collection, and observation-related field-notes as research methods. I chose an institution, other than my employer, based on convenience and with the rationale that it was of appropriate model, size, and had the desired ratio of online-to-

traditional courses. The institution is a semi-rural, research-oriented, land-grant university with six colleges containing more than 50 academic departments.

Participant Selection and Data Collection Measures

Initially, six academic administrators including department heads and assistant deans were selected and solicited to participate in the study. Selection was based on the number and percentage of online courses in their respective departments. Additional respect was given to the years of faculty evaluation experience for each administrator.

After interviewing several department heads, it became obvious that online support unit personnel were integral to the faculty monitoring activity. Three online support unit leaders were solicited and agreed to participate. Two were leaders of their respective department's online support unit, the remaining participant was from the campus online support unit. All participants were interviewed based on a research guide and solicited for supporting institutional documents related to their experiences.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was initiated during the interview process and included taking notes and highlighting certain information in the moment. After each interview, I produced an interview summary and added additional observations or reflections. During the course of the study, I uploaded transcripts and documents into the qualitative data analysis program MAXQDA, a program that helps organize, track, and assign weight for individual data artifacts.

Data analysis followed the recommendations of Creswell's and Poth's (2018) Data Analysis Spiral. Phases in the Data Analysis Spiral include managing and organizing the data, reading and memoing emergent ideas, coding and organizing ideas into themes, developing interpretations, representing the data, and formulating an interpretation (Creswell & Poth, 2018). An inductive coding approach was employed where I absorbed ideas and concepts that emerged from the data. This was an iterative process that took multiple sessions of "combing" through the data.

The findings are presented in the form of a case study report with a description and analysis of the academic administrators' approach to addressing the important concern of detecting faculty misbehavior. Significant themes, key issues, and interpretations are presented and discussed along with individual examples. Following the example of Stake (1995), I present my understanding of the case, any assertions I have formed, and report "whether my initial naturalistic generalizations, conclusions arrived at through personal experience or offered as vicarious experiences for the reader, have been changed conceptually or challenged" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 246).

Significance of the Study

The scarcity of research in the field of higher education online teaching misbehavior, as well as the importance and impact of the problem, indicates strong rationale for conducting the study. The findings of the study contribute to the areas of research and practice in the following ways.

Research

The study contributes to the dearth of research in this area by 1) focusing on the misbehavior in online facilitation in public higher education institutions, 2) filling a void in the literature regarding the current practices and administrator perceptions regarding the detection of such behavior, and 3) exploring these areas, increasing the holistic understanding of issues related to the detection of faculty misbehavior in higher education online teaching.

Theory

This study presents a theory that visually represents issues with managing and supervising online higher education teaching faculty. A first step in exploring this theory was determining if the type of institutions involved were altering their monitoring or detection apparatus to accommodate the online learning environment. Data from this study display information about department heads and online support unit personnel at a medium-sized, land-grant research university, specifically that they approached online teaching oversight much the same way as that of in-person classes and relied on students as their primary means of detecting faculty misbehavior. Findings from my research contribute to this nascent theory and provide a foundation on which future studies may build to

further explore the supervision of online faculty and the monitoring and detection of faculty misbehavior.

Practice

The findings of this study contribute to the practice of administering online faculty in higher education. There is little research on the topic and few tools available for support of this difficult task. The findings of my dissertation explored the strengths and weaknesses of current systems at a particular institution. This study provides some small view of the then-current practices and allow practitioners to consider the hurdles and obstacles involved at this institution and, perhaps, their own.

<div align="center">Definitions</div>

- Academic Department: a department within the university related to a specific academic discipline or disciplines such as liberal arts, science and mathematics, fine arts, business, and education.

- Asynchronous-Online Course: An academic course where students and faculty access the course at different times.

- College: a collection of academic departments within the university that are related to a specific discipline or disciplines.

- Department Head or Chair: the primary administrator for an academic department. In some environments, this person may also be referred to as a School Head or by other comparable titles.

- Faculty Misbehavior: faculty impropriety that likely requires administrative action.

- Online Course Development: the creation of the learning design and content for an online course.

- Online Course Facilitation or Teaching: the delivery of the developed online course.

- Online Course: an academic course that is delivered 100% online.

- Synchronous-Online Course: An academic course where students and faculty meet at the same time, often with a shared video experience.

- University: an institution that offers undergraduate and graduate degree programs.

Chapter Summary

This chapter introduced the topic of detecting misbehavior in online faculty at American public higher education institutions. A statement of the problem was presented along with a purpose of the dissertation study. Then the research question was presented regarding the perceptions of differences and responses in monitoring teaching and teaching misbehavior for online faculty at a public university. The significance of the study in the areas of research and practice were discussed, and a brief overview of the epistemology and research methodology was provided. Through a comprehensive review of the literature, the next chapter continues to explore the issue of online faculty misbehavior and the detection of such conduct at higher education institutions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

To discuss American higher education institutions and, in particular, the expectations of those who teach within them, I must first understand some of the nomenclature and attributes of these institutions. In particular, I need to better understand the terms "private" and "public" higher education, "university" and "college," "tenure," "non-tenure," and "adjunct" faculty, and the concepts of "academic freedom," and "corporatization", and the typical hierarchy and organization of American universities.

The United States higher education landscape consists of over 4,300 institutions providing educational services for nearly 20 million students (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2018). These institutions are categorized into doctoral research universities, master's colleges and universities, baccalaureate colleges, specialized institutions, and community colleges (American Council on Education, 2007).

Doctoral research universities offer undergraduate and graduate programs including the doctoral degree. Master's or comprehensive colleges and universities offer undergraduate and graduate programs through the master's degree level. Baccalaureate colleges, sometimes known as liberal arts colleges, offer undergraduate or bachelor's degrees. Community colleges offer associate degree programs as well as professional certificates.

Other college designations include tribal colleges and specialty colleges. Tribal colleges represent about one percent of the institutions in the United States (American Council on Education, 2007). They are Native American controlled and located on tribal land. Specialty institutions, by contrast, are more abundant than Master's institutions or baccalaureate colleges. These include teachers' colleges, theological seminaries, and schools of medicine, law, engineering, business, art, and music (American Council on Education, 2007).

The words *university* and *college* are often used interchangeably to describe institutions of higher education; in this dissertation, however, they will be used to describe different constructs. A *university* is an institution that offers undergraduate and graduate degree programs. The term *college* in this study will be used to describe a collection of academic departments within the university that are related to a specific discipline or disciplines such as liberal arts, science and mathematics, fine arts, business, and education.

American higher education institutions are funded in different ways. *Public* or "state" institutions are partially funded through state government-supplied subsidies, allowing reduced tuition for state or district residents. *Private* institutions rely on their funding primarily from tuition and fees. However, private institutions are also eligible to receive tax credits, student loans, and grants from state and federal governments. Both public and private institutions may have endowments as resources although, historically, private institutions have more heavily relied on this financial resource.

Land grant institutions represent a segment of public institutions including public, tribal, and historically black colleges and universities. These institutions were originally funded through a "grant" of federally controlled lands donated to an institution to promote "agriculture, military tactics, and the mechanic arts as well as classical studies so members of the working classes could obtain a liberal, practical education" (APLU, Land-Grant University FAQ section, n.p.). There are 112 land grant universities in the United States.

This study focused on a public, land grant, graduate degree-granting university and, in particular, the faculty role in online teaching in a doctoral research institution. To understand further how this type of institution functioned as a context for online teaching, and associated expectations and practices, this literature review begins with a discussion of the academic organizational structure of the American public university. Next, the position of the department head is examined with respect to the management, supervision, and oversight of faculty teaching. This is followed with an inspection of the unique challenges associated with managing faculty as employees, such as tenure and academic freedom. After which, a review of institutional tools designed to support faculty management is presented including policies and procedures, as well as the topic of ethics, and ethics statements, and guidelines. The literature review closes with an overview and discussion of online learning in higher education and the challenges this adds to an already complicated system of administration.

University Administration and Organization

Higher education faculty who teach online are a rapidly growing segment of a larger faculty group that is key to accomplishing the mission of the university (Jaschik & Lederman, 2019). University organizational structures are somewhat unique as compared to other industries and it is important to understand how faculty, including those teaching online courses, are positioned within those structures, particularly when considering power and authority.

Public universities have a key authority structure including a governing board and a president or chancellor. In most states, regents or trustees are appointed to the governing board by the state governor, sometimes with the help of a panel of advisors; less frequently, they are elected by voters or representative groups such as alumni (American Council on Education, 2007). Though some board members may be more capable than the university president in the areas of finance, construction, personnel, and management, they may lack an understanding of academia and meet too infrequently to gain that understanding during their tenure (Bok, 2013).

The formal leader of the university is the university *president* or *chancellor*. This position is ultimately responsible for the operation of the university and for seeing that the edicts of the board are carried out properly. She or he also supports the university mission by coordinating various stakeholders including faculty, students, staff, and the community.

In addition, today's university presidents are responsible for fund raising, an increasingly significant and time-consuming role. For this reason, university presidents may be selected for their political or business ties, rather than their experience in academia (Nelson, 2014). The university president is typically appointed by the board and, in some cases, university presidents serve as the chairman of the board after their appointment.

The next echelon of the American public university administrative organization is comprised of academic and administrative senior officers. This includes the academic vice president, also known as the provost or vice-chancellor, as well as other vice presidents who oversee various university operations such as finance, planning, and student affairs (see Figure 1). This study concerns the academic administration, and focuses on the academic affairs division of the American public university.

The provost is the chief academic officer in the university and is charged with the institution's educational mission. This position is responsible for setting academic policies, academic personnel and budgetary decisions, the management and supervision of academic administration and operations, and curriculum development and oversight. In addition, the provost assists with the evaluation and advisement of faculty members. Provosts are typically appointed by the president and often emerge from faculty ranks with previous experience as faculty, department head, and dean (Bray, 2019).

Typically, each college in a university is led by an academic dean. The deans oversee the operation and management of the college of their discipline performing both academic and administrative roles, with the exception of the graduate college which manages all graduate

Figure 1

The University Administrative Organization

The Board of Trustees

Assistants to the President
- Legal Counsel
- Federal Relations
- Editorial Assistant
- Administrative Assistant

The President of the University

Vice President Business
- Building & Grounds
- Campus Security
- Real Estate Management
- Suburban Campus
- University Engineer

Accounting
- Controller
- Auditing
- Budget Supervision
- Bursar
- Data Processing
- Veteran's Affairs

Auxiliary Services
- Bookstore
- Housing & Food Services
- Purchasing

Vice President Development
- Fund Raising
- Business and Industry Council
- Associates Program
- National Council

Vice President University Relations
- Alumni Records & Mailing Control Center
- Alumni Relations
- Information Services
- University Publications
- University Relations

Vice President University Administration
- Administrative
- Computer Services
- Admissions
- Educational Resources
- Library
- Occupational Information Center
- Office Services
- Personnel
- Registrars

Vice President Academic Affairs
- Academic Computer Services
- Basic Colleges
  ◦ Business Admin.*
  ◦ Education*
  ◦ Engineering
  ◦ Liberal Arts
  ◦ Nursing*
  ◦ Pharmacy*
  ◦ Bureau of Business & Economic Research
  ◦ Center for Reading Improvement
  ◦ Continuing Education*
- Graduate Division
  ◦ Arts & Sciences †
  ◦ Business Admin.†
  ◦ Education †
  ◦ Pharmaceutical Sciences †
  ◦ Marine Science Institute
  ◦ Medical School
  ◦ Rehabilitation Institute Research
  ◦ University College †
  ◦ Urban Affairs Office

Vice President Student Affairs
- Athletics
- Chapel
- Counseling & Testing
- Deans of Men, Women, & Freshmen
- Financial Aid
- Health Services
- Student Activities
- Student Center

Vice President University Planning
- Institutional Research
- University Planning

This diagram illustrates the administrative organization of a large university. The structure of most colleges is similar, but with a less diversified administration.

* Administrators usually have the title of Dean.
† Administrators usually have the title of Graduate Dean.

Note: From "Administrative Structure in Higher Education Institutions," by the American Council on Education, 2007, *A Brief Guide to U.S. Higher Education*, p. 9. Copyright © 2007 by the American Council on Education. Reprinted with permission.

functions in each discipline. Deans, or their administrative equivalents, are generally responsible

for the following functions in their college: curriculum and educational programs; faculty

selection, promotion and development; student affairs; budgeting; facilities management; and

public relations (Del Favero, 2019). In addition academic deans serve as the liaison between the

university's upper administration and the college faculty.

Deans are appointed by the provost and typically come from senior faculty ranks, often

having served as an assistant dean prior to their nomination. Less often, they come from senior

administrators. Because the position is particularly challenging and stressful, deans typically

serve for only five to seven years (Del Favero, 2019).

The Role of the Department Head

Department heads, also called department chairs, are organizationally situated between the college dean and the faculty. Typically, department heads matriculate from departmental faculty, moving from a co-equal peer to a managerial position. They are most often elected by their faculty colleagues with or without approval from the dean; less frequently, they are appointed to the position by a dean or a senior administrator (Carroll & Wolferton, 2004).

Department heads are responsible for a myriad of duties including faculty supervision, faculty recruitment, evaluation, professional development, and the oversight of research and publications (Gmelch & Miskin, 2004). In addition, department heads provide departmental leadership, develop departmental goals, manage resources, and represent the department and its faculty to the administration (Gmelch & Miskin, 2004). All of this must be accomplished while keeping current within their own academic discipline.

A complicating factor for the department head is the transient nature of the position. Department heads typically serve for about six years (Gmelch, 2015). After their tenure, about 20 percent move into a higher administrative office; 65 percent return to their former faculty position where they remain until retirement (Gmelch, 2015). For this reason, department heads do not see themselves as controllers, but rather servant leaders and temporary custodians (Crookston, 2012).

Additionally, the department head is often highly unqualified as a manager and as a supervisor. In business, a similar supervisory position would typically require some supervisory experience and skills that support the management of a department. These include experience and expertise in human resources, project management, and financial and budgetary skills. This is generally not the case with higher education department heads.

According to Cipriano and Riccardi (2013), only 3.3 percent of department heads receive formal leadership training related to their appointment, and less than 10 percent have formal management training. Thomas and Schuh (2004) asserted most department heads are not in their position long enough to become an "expert" at the position. To meet Ericcson et al's. (1993) ten

thousand hours of practice required to develop expertise, they would have to serve for at least eight years.

This lack of expertise and training make it particularly difficult for department heads when dealing with problematic faculty. Department heads are already in a temporal mindset, not wanting to make waves or rock the boat (Carroll & Wolferton, 2004). In addition, institutional politics and culture do not support those that implement corrective actions for problem faculty, and in many cases, department heads are vilified for standing up to faculty (Crookston, 2012).

In light of the unique employee characteristics and aspects of faculty, the department head has a rather daunting task when it comes to the management and supervision of their subordinate faculty. This situation gets even more challenging when there is evidence of faculty misbehavior. The next section discusses the institutional policies that assist the department head with supervision and problem faculty.

Faculty as Employees

Faculty represent the largest portion of the higher education workforce and their supervision is the primary focus of this study. Faculty, as a group, have a great deal of influence on the operation and success of the institution. Often, this influence is brought to bear through a faculty senate. This organization contributes policy and operational decision making in what is known as "shared governance". Because of the considerable power of the faculty body, institutional policy efforts may succeed or fail depending on the will of the faculty, assuming they coalesce around the same direction.

Faculty have their own hierarchy in public universities. Typical titles by rank include instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, professor, and professor emeritus. This list describes the full-time, "tenure track" faculty who wish to attain tenure through promotion (the topic of tenure is discussed further below). Other non-tenure track faculty positions include adjunct faculty, lecturer, clinical faculty, and other related titles. Senior faculty are usually

involved in university promotion and tenure reviews for junior faculty as well as serving on committees that govern department, college, and university policy.

University faculty have three primary functions: research, service, and teaching (American Council on Education, 2007). Research is a major function of faculty life, with a higher emphasis at research universities. Faculty promotion and tenure reviews are directly affected by peer rating of faculty research as well as the number of articles published (Miller & Seldin, 2014). However, various faculty employed by non-research universities are pressured to perform original research in their field of study and publish the findings in peer-reviewed journals and, at some universities not classified as research institutions, faculty promotion can still depend in part on research productivity.

Faculty at public universities are also expected to perform university and community service activities. This includes campus committee work, public or community service, student advising, professional society activities, business and student consultation, and supervision of graduate faculty and honors programs (Miller & Seldin, 2014). This service work often represents an important factor when evaluating faculty for promotion and tenure, though it may not be weighted as highly as research or teaching performance.

In numerous American higher education contexts, teaching is considered the most important aspect of faculty performance (Miller & Seldin, 2014). American public university faculty are required to teach anywhere from six to fifteen credit hours per semester depending on their research load and other assigned duties (Harris, 2015). But the hours dedicated to classroom facilitation or any alternative mode of interaction is only one part of the scholarship of teaching. The often unseen work of faculty includes the research and study required to become knowledgeable about a field of study, the planning and pedagogical understanding that must accompany any teaching effort, and the vision, passion, and dedication that transforms the learning process for students.

When exploring the concept of faculty-as-employee in a management or organizational context, several elements unique to faculty are present. These elements include faculty tenure, non-tenure and adjunct faculty, academic freedom, and the countering concept of higher education corporatization. Each of these topics will be explored further below.

Tenure

Tenure is a unique factor for faculty-as-employees. Designed to protect scholars from political persecution (Metzger, 1973), tenure in higher education is defined as "'permanent' or 'continuous' employment until retirement", as an "expectation of annual contracts until retirement" or as a "contractual right to continuing appointment" (Chait, 2009, p. 43). According to the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) (2018a), "At its best, the tenure system is a big tent, designed to unite a diverse faculty within a system of common professional values, standards, rights, and responsibilities" (p. 1).

Tenure often insulates faculty members from political and academic adversaries by ensuring academic freedom, or the right to speak about unpopular topics that are integral to their subject matter without retribution (AAUP, 2018a). In addition, tenure provides some job security in lieu of higher pay that can be found outside of academia. However, various opponents of tenure – including prominent voices from inside academia – feel that tenure provides too much security (Harvey & Immerwahr, 1995), protects the incompetent (Immewahr, 1999) insulates "deadwood" (Kennedy, 1997, p. 131), and puts faculty out of reach of accountability (Chait, 2009).

Some research supports this assertion. In state universities, tenured faculty members with habitually inadequate performance almost never received poor scores on evaluations (0.4%) and none were dismissed for such behavior (Licata, 1999; Licata & Morreale, 1997). This would suggest tenured faculty are without reproach.

Non-Tenure Track Faculty and Adjuncts

Contrary to popular opinion, most college faculty do not have tenure. In a recent study, the American Association of University Professors found non-tenure faculty comprised 73% of all faculty positions in the United States and more than one-half of that number is represented by part-time faculty (AAUP, 2018a).

Non-tenure track faculty are growing in proportion to the rest of the faculty. Between 2008 and 2012, tenure track faculty increased by one percent, while non-tenured, full-time faculty grew eleven percent, and part-time, non-tenured faculty expanded by eighteen percent (AAUP, 2018a). In addition to their numbers, non-tenure track faculty bring unique issues for faculty oversight, including the appointment process, disparate practices in teaching evaluations, as well as lack of institutional resources and support.

Contingent faculty receive little scrutiny when being hired. Selected from local candidates, department heads quickly review contingent faculty's curricula vitae and any available student evaluations (AAUP, 2015a). By contrast, tenure track faculty are often found via national searches and rigorously evaluated with a review of their scholarly works, their teaching practices, and a host of other attributes (AAUP, 2015a).

Unlike tenured faculty, non-tenure track faculty are rarely reviewed or evaluated formally. Faculty evaluations are often neglected by the appointing dean or department head unless there is a problem or complaint (AAUP, 2015a). Even though current accreditation standards recommend evaluations for all faculty, non-tenure track faculty are largely excluded (Kezar et al., 2014) with only 63 percent of higher education institutions evaluating adjunct faculty on a scheduled basis (Langen, 2011).

According to Jolley et al. (2014), contingent, part-time adjunct faculty feel invisible, unimportant, and irrelevant. Adjuncts express a lack of institutional and department assessment for their work. Their feedback includes narratives like, "I've never really been evaluated" or "I have taught well over 200 classes here and [student evaluation] is the only way I have ever been

evaluated." and "I think that nobody is paying attention . . . Class is over and nobody cares" (Jolley et al., 2014, p. 227).

When non-tenure track faculty actually do get evaluated, student evaluation is typically the only instrument employed. A 2011 study showed 87 percent of department heads used student evaluation tools for adjunct faculty review while the next method, classroom observation, was used less than 60 percent of the time (Langen, 2011). Besides student evaluation, there is no uniform convention for adjunct faculty evaluation (Langen, 2011).

This over-reliance on student evaluation has negative consequences in teaching and learning. Fredrickson (2015) stated,

> When professors know that students' assessments may be the only evaluation they receive and thus are the most significant factor in whether they will be hired for another semester, they have little incentive to grade critically and instead may grade to please, resulting in grade inflation and permissiveness of students' wrong-headed ideas or disruptive behavior. (para. 27)

In addition, student evaluation instruments often contain language specific to full-time, in-person faculty with questions that focus on things like "office hours" and "access to faculty outside of class time" (Jolley et al., 2014, p. 228). This may skew student evaluations, making it more difficult for administrators to effectively evaluate part-time faculty.

Academic Freedom

Though it previously existed in some fashion, in 1915 the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) helped refine and promote the idea of academic freedom as a professional principle that addresses faculty rights and responsibilities. The concept has a primary underlying tenant of tenure and focuses on three main principles: research, teaching, and extracurricular speech (AAUP, 2015b). The AAUP's original document declared academic freedom an important political and societal tenant to be free to research and publish as one

wishes, without the restraint or influence of the university administration, other faculty, or politicians under pressure from public opinion (AAUP, 2015c).

Similarly, the freedom for faculty to discuss their subject in the classroom is protected in this manner. As long as it is related to the subject matter at hand, faculty may speak about topics that may be controversial or objectionable to those in power, including the public's general opinions. Finally, faculty are free to speak outside the classroom without institutional censorship or discipline; however, they must do so with respect and accuracy as their words reflect on their profession and their institution (AAUP, 2015e).

These principles regarding Academic Freedom have been updated multiple times (AAUP, 2015b; AAUP, 2015e) and are endorsed by over 250 scholarly and education groups (AAUP, Tenure section, n.d.). As a foundation for academic freedom, the AAUP (2015c) posited the value of an independent professorate to society and the public interest:

> If education is the cornerstone of the structure of society and if progress in scientific knowledge is essential to civilization, few things can be more important than to enhance the dignity of the scholar's profession, with a view to attracting into its ranks men of the highest ability, of sound learning, and of strong and independent character (p. 6).

Academic freedom can have a significant effect on the dynamic between faculty and their superiors. In their original declaration, the AAUP (2015d) discussed the rather self-regulating responsibilities of faculty teaching, stating it is up to the faculty "to determine the appropriate curriculum and procedures of student instruction" (p. 119) and that "[t]he faculty has primary responsibility for such fundamental areas as curriculum, subject matter, and methods of instruction" (p. 122). This leaves a great deal of latitude for the faculty to interpret their actual responsibilities.

Though the courts are becoming less inclined to second guess an institution's actions (Brown & Kurkland, 1990), supervisors and administrators are hesitant to discipline or dismiss a faculty member due to fear of litigation, as well as public scrutiny and exposure. For an aggrieved

faculty member, any discipline or dismissal can be challenged in court as retaliation for unrelated acts (Brown & Kurkland, 1990). For instance, a faculty member who may have publicly criticized the institution, administrators, or colleagues can bring a lawsuit stating their disciplinary action was retaliation for said criticism.

The Corporatization of Higher Education

Though academic freedom provides legal protection for faculty, it is diametrically opposed by the academy's general trend toward business-like practices. This movement began in earnest in the early 2000s when demands for accountability in higher education were driven by concerns for the effectiveness of educational practices, the quality of student learning, as well as increasing costs for the student (Thompson, 2014). At the same time, higher education institutions were having to address a new knowledge-based economy and a technologically-connected global marketplace (Thompson, 2014). Hall (2015) suggested this emphasis on accountability was exacerbated by "a breakdown in mutual trust between the government and higher education" (p. 17).

To address these demands for accountability, higher education administrators have been pressured to implement business-like practices to evaluate and improve the "quality" of student learning activities. These practices have several different names such as academic capitalism, managerialism, new public management, performativity, or corporatization. This wave of education commodification, spurred by "the belief that education should be managed in the same way as any other public service or economic enterprise" (Hall, 2015, p. 17), has strongly affected faculty oversight.

Quality indicators and assessments place administrators such as deans and department heads in a tight spot between legislators and institutional leaders, and their own faculty. Faculty members themselves may turn out to be quite anti-intellectual when presented with performance data that might question their professional authority (Wolff, 2004). And in response,

administrators craft policies that reflect conflict avoidance rather than sound management principles (Wolff, 2004).

Some faculty members question the premise that is inherent in these quality assessments. They declare that faculty members have the right to decide on their own what to teach and how to teach it. They resist these management initiatives typically using a combination of academic freedom and tenure.

Institutional Policies and Practices Related to Faculty and Teaching

Institutions have policies and practices that provide a regulatory structure built to ensure quality teaching and also to reduce lawsuits. The institution's faculty handbook is often the primary means of communicating these rules and expectations for faculty. Though there is no one resource that globally compares and contrasts faculty handbooks and institutional rules, the AAUP provides a widely-used resource for academic administrators on which to model their policies. In excess of 250 institutions endorse the AAUP documents including their original "1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure" (2015c), and other derivative documents and interpretations including, "Recommended Institutional Regulations on Academic Freedom and Tenure" (2018b), and their "Statement on Professional Ethics" (2015e).

The AAUP 1940 Statement (2015c) lays out rules and procedures for the termination of faculty "for cause." The "Recommended Institutional Regulations on Academic Freedom and Tenure" (2018b) builds on this by describing the rights of faculty to be presented with the terms and conditions of their appointment and, broadly, the different reasons for dismissal (e.g., financial exigency, discontinuance of a program, faculty disabilities, to name a few). This document also sets the ground rules for faculty reprimand, suspension, and dismissal procedures.

Only in the AAUP "Statement on Professional Ethics" (2015e) do any details emerge about specific faculty conduct. As teachers, faculty are to "respect students as individuals," "foster honest academic conduct," "ensure that their evaluations of students reflect each student's true merit," while striving to "avoid any exploitation, harassment, or discriminatory treatment of

students" (p. 145). As colleagues, "[p]rofessors do not discriminate against or harass colleagues," and "[t]hey respect and defend the free inquiry of associates, even when it leads to findings and conclusions that differ from their own" (p. 145).

In addition to these guidelines, administrators must consider their accreditation body's rules and guidelines when setting policies for faculty behavior and quality assurance. For a four-year institution to be accredited in the United States, it must adhere to the standards set by one of six regional accrediting bodies. These include the Higher Learning Commission (HLC), the Middle States Commission on Higher Education (MSCHE), the New England Commission of Higher Education (NECHE), the Northwest Commission on Colleges and Universities (NWCCU), the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges (SACSCOC), or the Western Association of Schools and Colleges Senior College and University Commission (WSCUC).

Though accreditation standards leave it to the individual institution to come up with specific language, all of the regional accrediting bodies require evidence of quality or effective teaching, as well as regular and uniform faculty evaluations. Most require evidence of diversity and inclusion. Some have standards for faculty availability and participation, the fair evaluation of student work, ethical behavior, and conflicts of interest.

Individual programs can be accredited as well. The Council for Higher Education Accreditation (2019) recognizes 49 different programmatic accrediting organizations. Most of these are in health related fields. Others include trades, business, technology, and sciences.

An example of a programmatic standard that may be used for institutional policy is the American Psychological Association's "Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct" (2017). This document provides language for general policies on discrimination, competence, conflicts of interest, exploitation, sexual and other harassment, confidentiality, and solicitation. For teaching specifically, the APA provides recommendations for syllabi information including the accurate description of content, student evaluation expectations, and the nature of

course experiences; student feedback and assessment; and sexual relationships with students or subordinates.

Though not an accrediting body, the Modern Language Association also provides guidance with their own "Statement of Professional Ethics" (2004). Though the statement is only a few pages long, it has positions on exploitation and discrimination against protected classes, sexual harassment, prejudicial or derogatory language, capricious or arbitrary professional decisions, and the misuse of confidential information. In addition, the statement provides guidance for teaching specifically, including recommendations for course syllabi and student evaluation standards, office hours, student privacy and confidentiality, as well as exploitation of undergraduate and graduate students for personal gain.

In exploring the institutional policies and rules for higher education faculty, I find that they are often based on another organization's or association's "codes of ethics" or "ethical principles." Ethics motivate and inform the actions of faculty administrators in a foundational way. The topic of ethics and norms, as it applies to higher education faculty administration, will be discussed further below.

Ethics and Norms for Higher Education Faculty

According to Howard and Korver (2008), the term ethics or ethical "refers to behavior considered right or wrong according to our own beliefs – no matter the culture or society" (p. 8). Merriam-Webster (n.d.) denotes several descriptions of ethics including "a set of moral principles," "the principles of conduct governing an individual or a group," and "a branch of philosophy dealing with what is morally right or wrong" (Definition of Ethic). Ethics is not about what people think, but rather what they are supposed to think and do (Speight, 2016).

Higher education is frequently called on in specific ways to demonstrate ethical principles. Cahn (2001) stated, "Faculty autonomy does not imply the absence of responsibility. Teaching, scholarship, and service all have an ethical dimension" (p. 9). In a similar fashion, Speight (2016) posited, "ethics is one of the pillars of any university community where higher

education requires teaching and high standards of behavior and is assuredly one of the criteria for evaluating the quality of higher education" (p. 3).

These rules of conduct or principles inform a normative structure that is annotated into a code book intended to communicate them to new and existing members. This code book, whether published as a faculty code of ethics or woven directly into the faculty handbook, is written for professionals as a guide or incentive to do the right thing (Speight, 2016). An effective code of conduct, "establishes the ethical expectations for students, faculty members, and staff members, as well as administrators and sets forth the mechanisms for enforcement and consequences of noncompliance" (Speight, 2016, p. 32).

Though numerous scholars expound the virtues of ethics in higher education settings, faculty are rarely trained in matters of ethical behavior. Keenan and Keenan (2015) found higher education to be somewhat hypocritical in the teaching of ethics stating, "Professors and deans recognize the need to teach professional ethics in all the other professions, but they show no real interest in professional ethics for their own profession" (p. 4). This extends toward research as well; ethics in higher education is a neglected area of research and receives little attention (Keenan & Keenan, 2015; Osipian, 2012; Robison & Moulton, 2005).

Ethics guidelines are based on norms. According to Braxton and Bayer (1999), "Norms constitute a central phenomenon in the study of academic life as well as in the day-to-day life of college and university faculty members" (p. 3). Norms serve as guidance for these roles, and when faculty transgress beyond the expected behavior or norm, there is a correlation of moral outrage and the level of importance assigned to the behavior (Braxton & Bayer, 1999).

Braxton and Bayer (1999), and more recently Braxton et al. (2011), provided a foundational description of two levels of norms found in faculty teaching behaviors. These include inviolable norms and admonitory norms. Peer faculty and administrators believe that inviolable norms, when transgressed, warrant severe sanctions; by contrast, admonitory norms

receive much less condemnation than inviolable norms and tend to have unpredictable responses

from peer faculty and the administration (Braxton et al., 2011).

Inviolable Norms

Inviolable norms are considered inviolable because of the degree of moral outrage or

anger any violation of these norms elicit and the severity of the sanctions believed to fit

transgressions of such norms. Braxton et al. (2011) identified seven inviolable norms for higher

education faculty: condescending negativism, inattentive planning, moral turpitude, particularistic

grading, personal disregard, uncommunicated course details, and uncooperative cynicism. Each

of these inviolable norms will be discussed briefly below.

Condescending Negativism

Condescending negativism is a pattern of behaving in a condescending or demeaning way

to students and colleagues. This includes condescending, negative, and tyrannical behavior both

within and outside of the teaching environment. Examples of condescending negativism include

condescending remarks to students or advisees, criticism of students in front of others, and

impatience with slow learners.

Inattentive Planning

Inattentive planning is the failure to uphold professional obligations. These obligations

include the preparation and timely presentation of a syllabus that shows the course schedule and

grade expectations. Another example would be the failure to coordinate with the campus

bookstore or publishing concerns to provide textbook or other materials for class prior to the

beginning of the class.

Moral Turpitude

The moral turpitude norm denotes depraved or unprincipled acts by committed by faculty

members. These include all manner of sexual infractions including sexual relationships with

students or advisees, sexual comments to students, and sexual harassment. Conducting class

while intoxicated is another example of moral turpitude.

Particularistic Grading

This type of grading confers uneven or preferential treatment of students when awarding grades. Examples of particularistic grading include grading bias for social, personal, or other nonacademic characteristics of students, the uneven application of late and incomplete work to students, and the offering of extra credit work to select students to improve their grade after the term is complete. Reading student evaluations prior to issuing grades and not allowing students to express opinions different from the instructor's opinion are further examples of violating the particularistic grading norm.

Personal Disregard

Personal disregard is a blatant disrespect for the needs and sensitivities of students. Violations of this norm may be exhibited by coming to class unprepared, repeating previous lessons verbatim, ignoring students in class, and discouraging class discussion. Other behaviors include absenteeism and dismissing class early, and lowering class standards to be popular with students.

Uncommunicated Course Details

This inviolable norm is related to the inattentive planning norm and includes the failure to communicate important information for students. Violations of this norm include moving the class location or class time without informing student participants. Other examples include the failure to communicate class policies regarding important topics such as attendance or make-up examinations.

Uncooperative Cynicism

Uncooperative cynicism is a "refusal to participate in departmental matters as a part of the role of teaching" (Braxton & Bayer, 1999, p. 38). Examples of uncooperative cynicism include faculty members who refuse to advise departmental majors, faculty members who refuse to participate in departmental curricular planning, and faculty members who have a cynical

attitude toward the role of teaching. Another example of this norm is demonstrated by setting standards so high that most of the students receive failing grades in the class.

The Self-Policing Structure of College and University Faculty

Braxton and Bayer (1999) believe these norms and their respective sanctions, serve to curb misbehaviors in faculty, thus providing a functional self-policing structure that allow academia to act independently of outside controls. This theory, which I titled, "functional self-policing structure of college teaching" is used as a theoretical framework for this study. It was used a priori to help inform the study's design, methods, data collection, and to be used as a lens for data analysis.

Braxton and Bayer (1999) based this self-policing model on social control theory. Social control theory states that while it is natural to follow one's own preferences and that conformity is an abnormal act (Durkheim, 1897), social norms typically serve to regulate human behavior (Frazier, 1976). In discussing these norms, Braxton and Bayer (1999) stated:

> College and university faculty enjoy considerable autonomy in defining and conducting their undergraduate college courses. Moreover, colleagues seldom observe, except for occasional assessments for tenure and promotion purposes, the classroom decorum of other faculty members. Nevertheless, college teaching is a highly public activity as students witness first-hand the teaching behaviors of academic professionals. Because teaching behaviors are highly visible to students, faculty may be reluctant to engage in proscribed behaviors. Moreover, the detection of teaching wrongdoing is aided by the high visibility of faculty teaching behaviors to students. (p. 120)

In their later work, Braxton et al. (2011) extended this concept to graduate teaching:

> Braxton and Bayer (1999) describe the public nature of college-level teaching. Although they were describing undergraduate teaching, graduate-level classroom teaching also has a public nature to it. Braxton and Bayer assert that the public nature of teaching as well as course rating instruments may function as mechanisms of detection of wrongdoing.

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Future research on graduate teaching and mentoring should focus on the role of these

possible mechanisms of detection. (p. 177)

Braxton and Bayer (1999) and Braxton et al. (2011) provide three reasons for the

functionality of the self-policing framework of higher education academia: the graduate school

socialization process, the public nature of the college classroom, and the use of student course

ratings. These last two as a method of detection and, as such, deter teaching misbehaviors.

Figure 2

The Functional Self-Policing Structure of College and University Faculty
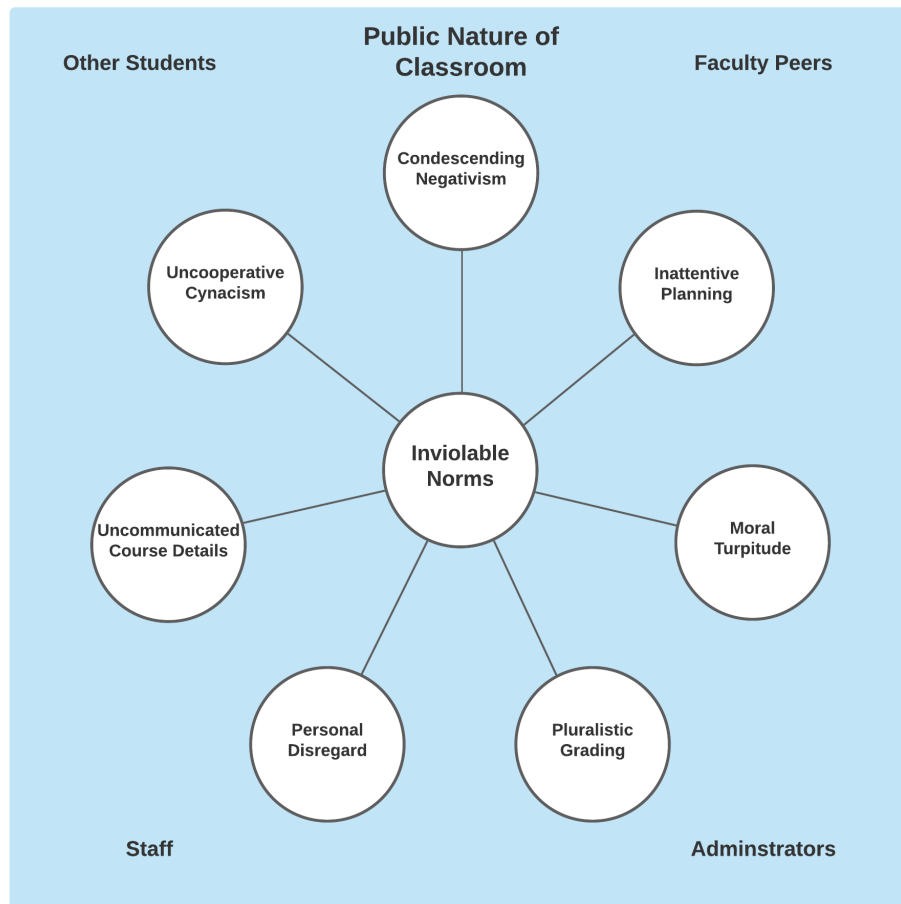
The public nature of the college classroom serves as a method of detection by providing the third-

party perspective that allows predominantly student peers, but to a lesser extent peer faculty,

staff, and administrators to witness teaching behavior. Student course ratings also support the detection of teaching misbehaviors by providing a vehicle for student reporting of personal and peer-witnessed teaching misbehavior.

Visibility and Classroom Characteristics

Some improprieties are more visible than others (Braxton & Bayer, 1999; Braxton et al., 2011). These include condescending negativism, inattentive planning, personal disregard, and uncommunicated course details. Advisement negligence is typically unobservable, but it is more likely to be reported as is moral turpitude and particularistic grading. In addition, Braxton and Bayer (1999) posited class size is inversely proportionate to the observability of inviolable and admonitory norms. Smaller classes are actually more likely to detect and deter faculty norm violations.

Most of the literature on ethics and norms in teaching tends to assume in-person teaching. However, in contemporary institutions, large numbers of faculty are teaching at least some online classes. Norm violations in class modality – such as online versus in-person modes of teaching – are not examined in any identifiable scholarly work. Braxton's and Bayer's first work, *Faculty Misconduct in Collegiate Teaching* predated the online course explosion in higher education; and their second work, *Professors Behaving Badly* (Braxton et al., 2011), focused exclusively on in-person graduate education. But few studies focus on the observability of these norms in an online environment. Said more simply, the practice of online education in higher education has far outpaced both research and policy on related teaching issues such as ethics in teaching. To consider the criticality of this issue, we must first turn to a consideration of online learning in higher education.

Online Learning in Higher Education

Online learning has become a substantial part of the higher education landscape in the United States. In 2016, approximately 6.3 million, or just over 31% of higher education students, were taking at least one online class (Seaman et al., 2018). About one-half of that number were

enrolled exclusively online; the other one-half were taking a combination of in-person and online courses (Seaman et al., 2018). This increase was due to sustained growth in higher education online offerings driven by student demand and the institutional quest for revenue-generating enrollment numbers.

In 2002, only nine percent of students were taking one or more courses online (Allen & Seaman, 2014). Since 2002, the growth of online courses was erratic but experienced an annual rate as high as a 36 percent, though online courses have experienced only single-digit growth in this decade (Allen & Seaman, 2014; Seaman et al., 2018). In-person enrollment growth has maintained pace with its online counterpart for some time, but in the past four years traditional enrollments have decreased slightly while online enrollment continues to trend upward (Seaman et al., 2018).

Public institutions witnessed the highest growth in distance education enrollments. According to Seaman et al. (2018), United States public institutions added over 780,000 online students between 2012 and 2016. This represents a 21 percent increase in just four years for students taking at least one online course at a public institution.

The majority of these students are local to the university. Seaman et al. (2018) estimated over 84 percent of public institution students taking exclusively distance courses reside in the same state as the institution; over 90 percent of these students are undergraduates (Seaman et al., 2018). Many of these students are taking online courses as a supplement to their in-person schedule (Lederman, 2018).

As one might expect, this explosion of online courses has not gone unnoticed. There are numerous opinions about online course quality, the amount of work it takes to participate in, create, or facilitate an online course, and how all of that is to be accomplished. To understand the evolution of teaching in online education and the oversight thereof, one must first understand the quest for online quality in higher education.

Faculty and Online Learning

Higher education administrators are accountable to a diverse population of stakeholders. Their mission is to provide efficient operations with positive student outcomes. Promotion and tenure evaluation practices are designed to assess faculty merit and worth. Merit relates to the quality of the professor; and worth is measured in the gains the professor provides to the institution (Braskamp et al., 1984). The supervision and evaluation of teaching is highly personal and requires administrative teams to define effective and appropriate teaching in such a way that it is fair for the entire organization. Because of the complexity of the higher education context, this is no small feat.

Online teaching complicates these issues substantially. For example, quality assessments created in the early days of online education focused solely on course design with the principle assumption that the course designer also was the person delivering the course (Ragan & Schroeder, 2014). However, the substantial growth of online offerings has increased the instances of online courses being designed by one party and taught by another (Allen & Seaman, 2016). Further, administrators, including department heads, who are charged with performing online faculty evaluations often have no experience with online pedagogy or technology, and are unfamiliar with transferring their methods of course observation to online course offerings (Tobin et al., 2015).

Along with observations, student evaluations are used as an indicator of faculty performance. Student evaluations are often used as the primary indicator of teaching quality or job performance (Berk, 2006; Flaherty, 2015). Although they are considered a poor instrument for the evaluation of faculty for promotion and tenure (Berk, 2006), they are a useful resource in detecting faculty misbehavior.

Traditional student evaluations generally enjoy an 80-percent participant rate. Online participation rates are much lower. A recent American Association of University Professors

(AAUP) study of 9,000 faculty showed that when student evaluations were distributed online, return rates plummeted to 20 to 40 percent regardless of the mode of facilitation (Flaherty, 2015).

Misbehavior in the Online Environment

There is scant literature focused on misbehavior in online education; what little there is focuses almost exclusively on students. Wankel's and Wankel's (2012) book, *Misbehavior Online in Higher Education*, reported numerous examples of student misbehavior including plagiarism, identity theft, cyberstalking, cyberbullying, and cheating in online course settings. When faculty misbehavior is presented, the research is often focused on unethical practices in faculty member research and publication methods rather than teaching.

One study regarding online faculty misbehavior defined faculty misbehavior as an action on the part of the professor that interferes with learning (Crandall et al., 2012). This includes indolent behavior (e.g., lack of attendance, tardiness, lack of engagement, and poor communication regarding course details), offensiveness (e.g., cruelty, humiliation, and favoritism), and incompetence (e.g., lack of teaching skills, an uncaring attitude, and extremely difficult tests). Although this study is focused on online faculty misbehavior, it simply contrasts the student perception of the faculty's behavior with the student's expectations, in essence putting students in the roles of experts on good online teaching. The literature provides no discussion of detection of misbehaviors for faculty in the online environment; rather, the recommendations of the Crandal et al. (2012) study focus on addressing student perceptions by setting clear expectations and altering the class structure to minimize student discomfort.

A recent University of Kentucky study (Vallade & Kaufmann, 2018) focused specifically on faculty misbehavior in the online classroom. The researchers focused on student perceptions rather than from that of a faculty supervisor. Their purpose was to "examine what students in an online course identify as instructor misbehaviors" (p. 367). These misbehaviors, though categorized somewhat differently, line up with some regularity with Braxton et al.'s (2011) inviolable norms.

As noted previously, the pace of the implementation of online teaching has far outpaced the associated research and, at many institutions, the policies for faculty oversight and evaluation. Although years of research and practice anchor faculty evaluation and define faculty misbehavior in the face-to-face classroom, the modality of online teaching is still relatively new to higher education. Thus, online instructors continue to teach without the benefit of training in ethics of online teaching and little oversight of their interactions with students.

Likewise, online students are less likely to observe the mistreatment of their classmates or to report misbehaviors in their class experience. Although there are interactive elements in the online classroom, such as discussion boards and synchronous meetings, online courses are primarily conducted in an isolated faculty-to-student conduit. Informal communication among online students is substantially reduced compared to in-person student communication.

Faculty peers are also less likely to observe misbehavior in the online classroom. This may be due to the policies (or lack thereof) for faculty observation in online courses, or faculty are unfamiliar with online teaching, or the lack of experience or expertise in knowing how to determine if there are problems in the online course. Also, faculty peers have a limited view of faculty-to-student interactions compared to the in-person equivalent, having less informal interactions with students and no ability to "walk by" the peer's classroom.

Finally, administrators, usually the department head, are ultimately responsible for the detection and discipline of misbehaving faculty. Department heads face the same problems as faculty colleagues in detecting misbehavior online. However, when there is a failure to detect faculty misbehavior, the department head runs the risk of promoting, granting tenure, or continuing the employment of bad actors that are exploiting the system.

American higher education is likely to continue the use of online teaching as a part of a quality education. As with traditional, in-person education, prospective and current students will likely to continue to demand that online courses function with attention to quality. Just as lack of laws and oversight contributed to the Wild West that is so much a part America's history, the

online experience resembles a bit of the Wild West in college teaching. To grow online education into a vehicle that serves both instructors and students well, we must find new ways of observing and reporting misbehavior in the online classroom.

Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the literature pertinent to this study on faculty misbehavior in online higher education. The next chapter, Chapter 3, presents a research design to study the current state of supervision in an online teaching environment within a public university. Chapter 4 describes the study as performed and reports the results of the study. Chapter 5 will present a discussion of these results as well as suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The previous chapters of this dissertation describe the current situation regarding the monitoring of teaching and teaching misbehavior in online courses at American universities. They highlight the growth of online teaching and how this trend compounds the already difficult problem of reviewing faculty college teaching performance. The increasing focus on the quality of teaching in higher education, combined with a significant lack of studies in this area, supports a need for this study. The purpose of this study was to explore the perceptions of American university administrators regarding the monitoring of faculty teaching and teaching misbehavior in online higher education courses. This chapter includes a discussion of the study's methods and procedures, the researcher's epistemology, theoretical perspective, and theoretical framework, the research site, research participants, data collection and analysis procedures, as well as comments on the trustworthiness of the study.

Statement of the Problem

The evaluation of teaching quality is a concern for leaders in higher education. At the ground level, supervisors must make recommendations for hiring, promoting, and rendering tenure decisions for faculty members. In addition, they must deal with problem faculty and decide how to address faculty misbehavior. This activity requires evidence that is not entirely subjective.

Oversight and management of faculty teaching typically falls to that of the academic department head (Gmelch & Miskin, 2004). This position is structurally problematic in that it is most commonly filled by academics, untrained and inexperienced in the ways of management, who average six-years or less in their positions (Gmelch, 2015). Should the department head introduce any disciplinary action, there is often resistance and backlash built in to the organization.

Add to this difficult situation a technical teaching arena that is unfamiliar to the typical department head and what started as a challenging job becomes nearly insurmountable. According to Tobin et al. (2015),

> . . .even when department chairs have taught online themselves, there is often a gap between their own teaching practices and the institutional processes in place for evaluating those practices. Further, institutions will find varying levels of administrative familiarity with online teaching methods from department to department." (p. 2)

In the higher reaches of institutional leadership where policies are set regarding the evaluation of faculty, the majority of today's administrators have little to no online teaching experience. (Tobin et al., 2015). Most institutions lack any special verbiage devoted to online education, rather choosing to treat the two modalities as one in the same (Tobin et al., 2015).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this case study was to explore administrators' perceptions of the strengths and challenges of current systems of monitoring online faculty teaching and teaching misbehaviors in an American public university where the majority of courses are delivered traditionally or in-person. The research was bound by time, examining perceptions and characteristics of the programs and systems during the summer and fall semesters of 2020.

Research Question

In what ways do higher education academic administrators perceive differences, and adjust their administrative oversight, in monitoring teaching and teaching misbehavior in online courses versus in-person courses?

Overview of the Design of the Study

This study sought to understand the types of behaviors involved in identifying and monitoring faculty misbehavior in an online learning environment. As indicated in Chapter Two, there is a dearth of existing research in this area. Because research in this general area is sparse and none are specifically focused on online teaching from a faculty supervision perspective, an inductive, qualitative study was warranted.

Qualitative research, according to Creswell and Poth (2018), "is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (p. 4). The management of faculty represents a shared social contract, and the detection and discipline of faculty (or lack thereof) may represent a human "problem." The exploration of the existence and extent of this problem is supported by the qualitative approach which "seeks to establish the meaning of a phenomenon from the views of the participants" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 17).

Qualitative research is interpretive and relies on the researcher as the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. As such, I bring my own biases and preexisting opinions to this endeavor. To address this, I employed reflexivity practices recommended by Creswell and Poth (2018) and Stake (1995) to maintain a balanced and open approach as the research unfolded.

Researcher's Statement

Online quality has been an important focus in higher education for nearly 20 years (Seaman et al., 2018). In late 2007, when I joined my institution's online learning unit, I was involved in building tools designed to ensure that every course was examined and held to an online quality-standards rubric. Numerous people were involved in this practice including

instructional designers and faculty members. I, therefore, assumed our online offerings were of the highest quality.

But over the years, I began to hear reports of inferior quality; where students emailed the faculty with questions but were never answered; where tests and major assignments were never graded; where students could only communicate with their instructor via cellphone text messages. These anecdotes gave me pause and caused me to reconsider my faith in our quality assurance practices. Our focus was strictly on the development of the online course. Though we provided some online facilitation training for our faculty, we left it to faculty supervisors to oversee the supervision and quality assurance of the online course facilitation process.

In more recent years, I began studying online quality in higher education. This led me down a research path that revealed a variety of different rubrics and best practices for online course development, online facilitation, and online organizational structures in higher education. In studying all of this, I found the art of faculty evaluation for online courses to be a relatively new field (Tobin, 2015) and the same could be said for online course-facilitation rubrics.

Thankfully, my qualitative research professor helped me identify the field of study that correlates with my human problem. She boiled it down to one word: *trouble*. Despite the fact that some quality issues like the lack of communication or attention to student work could be due to the institution's failure to adequately train the faculty, one element of the faculty issue deals with an uncomfortable area: lack of ethics, commitment, and performance. This one word, trouble, changed my focus from the field of teaching effectiveness, which may equate to *knowledge* about teaching, to that of faculty teaching *behavior*.

Following my new area of interest, I studied the managerial structure for faculty members, the methods and sources of evidence used for faculty evaluation, as well as the rules and norms that govern faculty behavior; however, I did not find much in the way of literature for faculty misbehavior that specifically applied to online teaching. It was my intent to begin an inquiry into this arena. I expect this dissertation to contribute to the research in the supervision of

faculty and the detection of faculty misbehavior, as well as to provide a path forward that emphasizes areas for future study.

Epistemology and Theoretical Perspective

This study was approached from a constructionist paradigm. The goal of an emergent approach such as constructionism is to convey meaning and understanding (Manning & Stage, 2003). This was accomplished by working through interpretations and categories that emerge from the data through inductive analysis (Manning & Stage, 2003).

The constructionist worldview holds that meaning is not created, but rather it is constructed using existing things or ideas (Crotty, 1998). To state it more specifically, "the view that all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent on human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context" (Crotty, 1998, p. 42).

Contrary to constructionism, the positivist worldview believes that experimental or correlation studies are superior for explaining things; this may be true for explaining propositional knowledge and law, but "when the aims are understanding, extension of experience, and increase in conviction in that which is known," an episodic and subjective approach such as constructionism is more appropriate (Stake, 1978, p. 6). Constructionism holds that individuals are unable to separate culture from the understanding of a situation (Crotty, 1998). This will be true of the department heads' experience within their departmental culture, as well as the university culture, writ large.

Social constructivism, also known as interpretivism, is another world view or paradigm that, aside from a shared root-word, holds many of the same theoretical underpinnings as constructionism. For instance, social constructivists believe "realities are constructions in the mind" (Guba & Lincoln, 1990, p. 39), and that meaning and understanding are the end goals for social constructivist research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, the difference between the paradigms lies in the research focus.

Constructionism is focused on the collective experience, whereas constructivism is concerned with the individual mind and its ability to create meaning (Crotty, 1998). Because this research study was concerned with an organizational context and culture, the constructionism paradigm was followed.

Theoretical Framework

Though the term does not have a completely agreed upon definition, a theoretical framework was defined by Merriam and Tisdell (2015) as "the underlying structure, the scaffolding or frame" of a qualitative study (p. 85). This was further defined by Anfara and Mertz (2015) as "any empirical or quasi-empirical theory of social and/or psychological processes, at a variety of levels . . .that can be applied to the understanding of phenomena (p. xv). As such, theoretical frameworks feature concepts or theories that support and inform a research study (Maxwell, 2013).

Anfara and Mertz (2015) suggested theoretical frameworks can provide structure to inform the research method construction as well as a "lens" that supports data analysis and synthesis. In their opinion, theoretical frameworks support qualitative research in the following ways: improve the study's organization and focus, improve (or obfuscate) meaning and understanding, specify vernacular and situate the study within other scholarly research, and reveal the study's strengths and weaknesses. Theoretical frameworks also describe concepts that help in the coding of data.

A theoretical framework was used *a priori* to guide and inform this study. *Faculty Misconduct in Collegiate Teaching* (Braxton & Bayer, 1999) explored and defined "admonitory" and "inviolable" norms that serve to indicate when a higher education faculty member misbehaves. These norms are categorized based on the moral outrage provoked, the severity of the response, and sanctions delivered. It is not in the norms themselves in which this study's theoretical underpinnings were found, but rather the authors' explanation of why the norms seem to function in the absence of outside regulators.

After describing their norm echelons, Braxton and Bayer (1999) provided an explanation as to how and why these moral boundaries serve as effective barriers in higher education teaching. They maintain that, as a professional class, faculty are allowed a great deal of professional autonomy and academic freedom in their performance; however, these norms remain effective.

Braxton and Bayer (1999) offered three reasons for this effectiveness: the graduate school socialization process, the public nature of the college classroom, and student course ratings. The graduate school socialization process serves to establish these norms and provides cultural queues that influence future faculty. The other two, the public nature of the college classroom and student course ratings, act as methods of detection and, as such, deter teaching misbehaviors. Though there are three components to Braxton and Bayer's (1999) theory, the boundaries of this case study include the time period of actual instruction and the time following. Graduate school socialization is thus, outside of the boundaries for this study.

Research Strategy

I chose to use the case study method as a research strategy for this study. According to Creswell and Poth (2018), "Case study research is defined as a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information" (p. 96). Similarly, Stake (1995) suggested, "[c]ase study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (p. xi).

The goal of case study research is not to determine an explanation or cause, but to develop an understanding of the case (Stake, 2006). Because many contributing factors are at play in the supervision of online faculty, it is enough to recognize the "many coexisting happenings" rather than seek to understand them all (Stake, 1995, p. 39). In this way, I sought to understand the current situation in the detection of faculty misbehavior in online, higher education teaching.

Setting the boundaries of the case and determining what is and what is not included in the substance of what will be studied is a foundational first act for case study research. In this phase, the researcher identifies a specific case that will be analyzed and defines its features and contexts. What will be studied lies within these boundaries; and though the outside features help define the context, these will not be subjected to study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This study was bound by a single institutional environment with a focus on the administrators responsible for, and the policies and processes as they apply to, faculty management and the monitoring of teaching and misbehavior in online courses. These boundaries are defined and described further in the Research Sites and Participants sections.

Case studies are relegated into two categories of intent: *intrinsic* and *instrumental*. Intrinsic case studies are used to highlight unique cases, or those that are special or unusual in and of themselves (Stake, 1995). Example intrinsic case studies might include the Penn State Sandusky scandal or the Three Mile Island incident. Conversely, instrumental cases do not represent unique situations. Instrumental case studies are used to illustrate a specific issue, problem, or concern. Ideally, these are selected in a purposeful, or maximal, sampling method that highlights different perspectives on the activity; however, accessible or ordinary sampling methods are also acceptable for instrumental case study (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2017). This case study is one of instrumental intent and therefore an accessible or convenience sampling method was deployed.

Methods and Procedures

The following methods and procedures were submitted to and approved by the Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board. This includes descriptions of the research site, participants, data collection and data analysis procedures, as well as comments on qualitative research and the trustworthiness of this type of research.

Research Site

Data for this study were collected remotely from a semi-rural, research-oriented, land-grant university with six colleges and more than 50 academic departments. I will refer to this institution as "Midwest State University." The campus is located in a town of about 50,000 residents and is approximately 50 miles from the nearest metropolitan area. More than 25,000 students attend the institution.

At the time of the study, online learning represented approximately 17% of the university's total credit hour production. A brief inspection of the school's online student data server revealed the number of credit hours taken in each modality (online and in-person) for the 2018-2019 school year for each of the nearly 60 academic departments. The top ten results, sorted by credit hour production and percentage of online credit hours can be seen below.

Table 1

Target Institution Departments Ranked by Percentage of Online Credit Hours

Rank	Department	College	% Online	Online Credit Hrs
1	Agricultural Education*	Agricultural Science	46%	3711
2	Management*	Business	41%	13860
3	Chemical Engineering	Engineering	39%	2662
4	Music*	Arts and Science	35%	4029
5	Finance*	Business	34%	3654
6	Geology	Arts and Science	34%	2346
7	Education Leadership*	Education	32%	5341
8	Sociology	Arts and Science	29%	3045
9	Industrial Engineering	Engineering	28%	2120
10	Management Information Systems*	Business	27%	4022

*In both Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 2

Target Institution Departments Ranked by Number of Online Credit Hours

Rank	Department	College	% Online	Online Credit Hrs
1	Management*	Business	41%	13860
2	Education Leadership*	Education	32%	5341
3	History	Arts and Science	27%	5220
4	Music*	Arts and Science	35%	4029
5	Management Information Systems*	Business	27%	4022
6	Agricultural Education*	Arts and Science	46%	3711
7	Finance*	Business	34%	3654
8	Engineering Technology	Engineering	24%	3612
9	Marketing	Business	19%	3256
10	Psychology	Arts and Science	14%	3091

* In both Table 1 and Table 2

I solicited data from six of the fourteen departments in these two tables. This balances the need for rich, thick data of diverse contexts while keeping the total data manageable with respect to time and effort. I sought to include departments that show up in both tables (in red). These include the Agricultural Education, Education Leadership, Finance, Management, Management Information Systems, and Music departments.

Because sampling for this study was based on access or convenience, I attempted to solicit data beginning with these six departments but, when time and access were inhibited, the department was skipped and replaced with another department from the two tables. The remaining departments are as follows: Geology, History, Chemical Engineering, Engineering Technology, Sociology, Psychology, Marketing, and Industrial Engineering. In considering additional departments, an effort was made to include departments from as many colleges as possible.

Research Participants

In each department (or equivalent academic structure), the department head (or equivalent position) was asked to participate in an interviews, answer written follow-up

questions, and provide documents for the study. Only those who had served long enough to have faculty evaluation experience of at least one year were selected. My goal was a total of nine participants. This would be enough to provide rich data, but still a manageable number for data analysis. As mentioned in Chapter Two, the department head is generally the front-line person responsible for the management of faculty in that department, including faculty evaluations and, if necessary, discipline and dismissal.

As indicated in the previous section, these departments were selected based on the number of online credit hours which ranged from 14 to 46 percent of their department's course offerings totaling over 13,000 credit hours. The participants' demographics and other participant details emerged through the interview process and were not considered in the choice of participants.

Participant Recruiting and Data Collection

Participant recruiting was initiated with each individual via an email (see Appendix A) that described the study and requested their participation. Email addresses were easily found on the institution's departmental website. In the email, I requested an interview as well as access to any documents that represent departmental policies or procedures for faculty evaluation, faculty misbehavior, or faculty dismissal to be delivered after the interview.

I reached out three times over two sequential weeks. If the potential participant did not respond, I reached out via telephone (department phone numbers are publically available on the institution's website). If the potential participant still did not respond, or if they indicated an unwillingness to participate, or they were unable to participate for any reason, or if they had no experience with faculty evaluation, I moved on to the next potential participant.

Initially, five academic administrators including department heads and assistant deans agreed to participate in the study and were interviewed. After interviewing several department heads, it became obvious that online support unit personnel were integral to the faculty monitoring activity. Three online support unit leaders were solicited and agreed to participate.

Two were leaders of their respective college or department online support unit, the remaining participant was from the campus online support unit.

Interviews. The term *interviewing*, often refers to structured interviews that feature closed ended questions with a limited set of responses. (Yin, 2011). Qualitative studies, however, typically feature *qualitative interviews*. These interviews, while still adhering to a strong advance plan (Stake, 1995), are less scripted and follow a conversational mode that provide a better understanding of the participant's perspective and complex social world (Yin, 2011).

Unlike scripted interviews, "[q]ualitative case study seldom proceeds as a survey with the same questions asked of each respondent; rather, each interviewee is expected to have had unique experiences, special stories to tell" (Stake, 1995, p. 65). Stake (1995) recommended the researcher bring a brief list of questions related to the issue. These open-ended questions seek to elicit descriptions of episodes, linkages, and explanations (Stake, 1995) that seem key to answering the research question; the purpose is to provide "aggregate perceptions or knowledge over multiple respondents" (Stake, 1995, p. 65).

Similarly, Rubin and Rubin (2011) suggest a responsive interviewing style.

Responsive interviewing accepts and adjusts to the personalities of both conversational partners. The model assumes that what people have experienced is true for them and that by sharing these experiences, the researcher can enter the interviewee's world. The researcher's role is to gather narratives, descriptions, and interpretations from an array of conversational partners and put them together in a reasoned way that re-creates a culture or describes a process or set of events in a way that participants would recognize as real.

(p. 7)

Rubin and Rubin's (2011) style compliments Stake's (1995) philosophy and allows the researcher to remain flexible, to adapt and follow the participant's story for a better understanding of their world. A responsive, qualitative interview style was employed for this study. An interview

protocol based on Creswell and Poth's (2018) Sample Interview Protocol or Guide (p. 167) was also used as a general guide for the interview (see Appendix B).

Prior to the interview, participants signed a consent form that describes the purpose of the study and the procedures that will be used. It also communicated the following: the participant's right to voluntarily withdraw from the study at any time, the protection of the confidentiality for the participants, known risks associated with participation in the study, and the expected benefits to accrue to the participants in the study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Participants were given my email address and phone number to ask any questions they might have about the study.

All interviews were held via an online meeting software (i.e., Zoom) rather than in person at the university site. Each interview was scheduled for an hour, but in practice they varied in length based on the participant's responses. Interviews were audio recorded and field notes were also taken by the researcher. After the interview follow-up questions were emailed along with a request for a "member check" to verify accuracy and to offer an opportunity for corrections to the record or for additional data to be contributed.

Brinkman and Kvale (2015) described qualitative interviews as such, "The qualitative research interview attempts to understand the world from the subjects' point of view, to unfold the meaning of their experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations" (p. 1). Through this interview protocol, I believe an increased understanding of the department head's situation as it relates to detecting online faculty misbehavior was achieved.

Documents. Policy and procedure documents related to faculty conduct, oversight, evaluation, and discipline were sought directly from the institution's website as well as solicited from participants during the interview process. Participants were asked to submit these documents following the interview process. These documents include any institutional or departmental policies, guidelines, procedures, manuals, or personal notes (including formats, forms, etc.) regarding the evaluation, monitoring, and management of faculty. Participants were asked for documents that specifically apply to online or blended teaching modalities, as well as

their in-person counterparts. Additional questions were sought regarding the use-in-practice of these documents, as well as the participants' reflections regarding that use.

Data Analysis

Data analysis followed the recommendations of Creswell and Poth's (2018) Data Analysis Spiral. In this process, "the researcher engages in the process of moving in analytic circles rather than using a fixed linear approach . . . [w]ithin each spiral, the researcher uses analytic strategies for the goal of generating specific analytic outcomes" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 185). Phases in the Data Analysis Spiral include managing and organizing the data, reading and memoing emergent ideas, coding and organizing these codes into themes, developing interpretations, representing the data, and formulating an interpretation (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 186).

Organizing Data

Data analysis was initiated during the interview process. This include field notes and highlighting certain information in the moment. After each interview, I produced an interview summary and added any additional observations or reflections. During this process, an organizational schema started to take shape. Next, interview recordings were transferred to a password-protected computer where they were then transcribed. This allowed for another opportunity to reflect and add notes as the researcher typically listened to each passage multiple times for clarity.

Transcripts were then edited for clarity and according to participant feedback. Next, transcriptions were altered to have original names and all other identifying information changed or removed. Then all of the recordings on the computer, as well as the original recording device, were deleted for data security.

Data were uploaded into a qualitative data management and analysis software program called MAXQDA. With this software, I created a hierarchical coding system, attached and tracked memos, and ranked the relevance of particular passages or segments. Ultimately, I am

responsible for the coding and analysis, but the software made organization, recollection, and evaluation much easier.

Coding and Interpreting Data

According to Creswell and Poth (2018), case study analysis "consists of making a detailed description of the case and its setting" (p. 206). An inductive coding approach was employed where I allowed myself to be open to ideas and concepts that emerged from the data. This was an iterative process that took multiple sessions of "combing" through the data.

I began this phase by re-reading each generified transcript as well as reviewing and coding all document-based data. Creswell and Poth (2018) described this phase as one where "researchers build detailed descriptions, apply codes, develop themes or dimensions, and provide an interpretation in light of their own views or views of perspectives in the literature" (p. 189). Subsequent "combing" sessions recognized and emphasized the most prevalent codes.

Some code categories collapsed and condensed; in other cases, subcodes were created for a more detailed description. Stake (1995) called this activity *categorical aggregation*. The idea is to look at the data "over again and again, reflecting, triangulating, being skeptical about first impressions and simple meanings", then isolate the most critical evidence that supports our assertions "challenging ourselves as to the adequacy of these data for that assertion" (p. 78).

Along with categorical aggregation, Stake (1995) also recommended *direct interpretation*, which is where a single instance or inference has significant meaning to the researcher and the case. I continued to code the data looking for themes and classifying them accordingly. Ultimately, this process produced 267 codes that were condensed into six themes. These themes served to create a narrative and develop the findings that are found in chapters four and five.

Representing and Discussing Findings

The findings are presented in the form of a case report with a description and analysis of the administrators' approach to addressing the important concern of detecting faculty misbehavior

including the significant themes, key issues, and interpretations representing the collective experiences and perceptions of the participants. Findings are presented and discussed along with individual examples and excerpts from interview transcripts. Following the example of Stake (1995), I present my understanding of the case, my findings, and a discussion about whether my initial notions have been challenged or changed conceptually (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Trustworthiness of the Qualitative Data

Trustworthiness helps ensure that our work as researchers is understood and recognized as familiar by fellow researchers as well as practitioners, legislators, and the general public (Nowell et al., 2017). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested using the following four tests to evaluate the trustworthiness of a research project: truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. These will be discussed briefly with regard to this study.

The first test, *truth value*, asks "How can one establish confidence in the 'truth' of the findings of a particular inquiry for the subjects (respondents, [participants]) . . . and the context in which the inquiry was carried out?" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 290). This is a test of internal validity and is sometimes referred to as "credibility" (Nowell et al., 2017). In constructionism there is no "one truth"; therefore, isomorphism is considered the "method of choice" for a qualitative study based on this epistemology (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This means the findings of the study "are credible to the constructors of the original multiple realities" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 296).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested several methods to ensure credibility. These include prolonged engagement, persistent observation, and triangulation. The activity of observing misbehavior in the online classroom, is asynchronous and may span days or weeks. For this reason, it is largely impractical if not impossible to observe effectively. However, triangulation using peer debriefing, multiple sources of data, and member checking is quite possible. Peer debriefing includes "exposing oneself to a disinterested peer" for the peer to "play devil's advocate" and to probe researcher bias, as well as the meaning and interpretations of the study

(Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 308). This study incorporated written follow-up questions to clarify participant's interview comments as a form of member checking as a means of triangulation.

The next test of trustworthiness, *applicability*, appears to be in direct conflict with the first test, credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Similar to generalizability, applicability is an empirical matter that depends on the degree of similarity between contexts. In the case of a qualitative study, the researcher knows only about the 'sending' context (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 297). For this reason, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested that researchers provide "sufficient descriptive data to make such similarity judgments possible" to ensure this test is fulfilled (p. 298). An effort was made to ensure this type of descriptive data were collected and made available in the report of this study. In addition to details about the participant, descriptive data included details about the department including staff and faculty compliment, number and type of programs, as well as the number of classes, class sizes, and the total number of students.

Consistency, also referred to as dependability, is the third check on trustworthiness. Consistency in a qualitative study requires firm support for "inquiry decisions and methodological shifts" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 324). *A priori* constructs and researcher bias are managed with careful accounting of all data and showing all reasonable leads are followed through detailed documentation of said leads and follow-up measures. These steps were followed to ensure the study's dependability.

Neutrality is the fourth test of trustworthiness. Neutrality, sometimes referred to as "objectivity," exists when the "inquiry is value free" or when the study and, particularly for qualitative inquiry, the methodology "maintains an adequate distance between the observer and observed" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 300). The resolution for maintaining neutrality in a qualitative study is to ensure the methods used "render the study beyond contamination by human foibles" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 293). By using the case study method in strict fashion as laid out by Stake (1995), and allowing the data to "speak for itself" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 300), ensured this study's methodology was as foible free as possible.

Summary

This chapter presented the methods and procedures for this qualitative case study. The purpose of this case study was to explore administrators' perceptions of the strengths and challenges of current systems of monitoring online faculty teaching and teaching misbehaviors in an American public university where the majority of courses are delivered traditionally or in-person. Data were collected at a Midwestern, semi-rural, research-oriented, land-grant university with a student population of around 25,000.

I employed convenience sampling as is acceptable and appropriate for an instrumental case study (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2011). Department heads, assistant deans, and online support leaders from six of the over fifty university departments were selected based on the percentage and number of online credit hours for their departments in the 2018-2019 school year. These administrators were contacted and interviewed regarding their experiences with monitoring online faculty teaching and teaching misbehaviors. In the interviews, participants were asked to share documents including official university policies as well as guidelines, procedures, manuals, or personal notes/processes regarding the evaluation, monitoring, and management of in-person, online, or blended faculty.

Once the data were collected, they were transcribed, uploaded into MAXQDA, organized, coded, and refined into themes. The following chapters in this dissertation will present the data and themes of this study along with a presentation, analysis, and discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA AND THEMES

This study was a qualitative, inductive study designed to explore administrators' perceptions of the strengths and challenges of current systems of monitoring online faculty teaching misbehaviors in an American public university where the majority of courses are delivered traditionally or in-person. The study consisted of nine interviews with faculty administrators including four department heads, an assistant dean, and three online support unit leaders, all from the same public, land-grant research university. Participants also provided relevant, supporting documentation when applicable.

Data was collected from September, 2020 to December, 2020. This was a tumultuous time in the world due to the COVID-19 pandemic, and higher education was no exception. Many substantial changes were implemented at this institution during this semester. For instance, a large number of courses were moved online, and a great many of them were synchronous online courses. Participants were asked the research question with an understanding of this context and answered it with past and present perspectives.

Participants

There were two types of participants: 1) department faculty supervisors including department heads and one assistant dean, and 2) online support unit leaders including those

embedded in a department and the main-campus online support unit. The department

administrators' time-in-service varied from two-years to 19-years.

The type of personnel supervised by the department administrators was heavily weighted

toward tenure track faculty. Adjuncts comprised the next largest group and non-tenure track

faculty were in the minority. Grad student teaching varied from moderate to none.

Table 3

Participant Experience and Number and Type of Faculty Supervised

	Position	Time in Current Position	Dept Head Experience	Supervision of Faculty			
				Tenure Track	Non-Tenure Track	Adjunct	Student
1.	Dept Head	7y	7y	15	0	8	10
2.	Dept Head	11y	14y	11	3	2	0
3.	Dept Head	2y	2y	14	2	6	0
4.	Dept Head	2.5y	2.5y	14	4	7	4
5.	Dept Head	19y	19y	12	3	7-8	8
6.	Assoc Dean	5y	21y	-	-	-	-
7.	College Online Mgr	4y	-	-	-	-	-
8.	College Online Dir	16y	-	-	-	-	-
9.	Campus Online Dir	9y	5y 4m	-	-	-	-

Research Site

The site was a large Research 1 (R1) land-grant university with 11 colleges housing 58

departments. At the time, the faculty population was just over 1,100 with about one-half in

tenured positions, one-quarter who were tenure-track, and twelve percent who were adjuncts. The

campus had nearly 1,000 graduate teaching assistants.

Themes

As a result of data analysis using qualitative data analysis software, MAXQDA 2020, 267

codes were derived from an inductive coding process. Codes were grouped and categorized using

a hierarchical coding schema and then refined into themes and sub-themes. This chapter will

present six themes that resulted from data analysis: direct complaints, student evaluation, classroom observation, comparing methods, preventative measures, and online course revenue.

Theme 1: Direct Complaints

All participants reported unprompted, direct student complaints as the primary vector for reporting faculty misbehavior. Students were encouraged to address concerns with their instructors first. Whether students fail to address the issue with instructors or it is not resolved, students reach out directly to the department head, online administrator, or their advisor. A department head said:

Well, either in the face to face or the online, it really does require someone to lodge a complaint . . . Ninety-nine percent of the time it's a student who's concerned about the faculty member. Then they might reach out to their adviser sometimes and then the advisor comes to me or sometimes they come to me [the department head] directly. That's most of the most cases. That's pretty much the process of how it goes from A to B.

Direct student complaints are received by a variety of administrators, usually via phone or email to the department head, college or institution online support units, advisors, faculty leads, teaching and graduate assistants, and faculty peers, or via the student complaint link on the online support unit website. Occasionally, complaints are received by deans, the provost, and the university president, but this complaint vector was perceived as being much less frequent. Less often, complaints originated from student peers, parents, and self-reporting faculty.

Difficulty Figuring Out Who to Tell

Students, taking either in-person or online courses, may have a difficult time determining who to tell when they wish to directly report misbehavior. About complaints involving in-person courses, one online support unit leader said,

Their classes aren't even in their college buildings most of the time. We have two hundred buildings on this campus so we have to do a little detective work, frankly, to find your department. Oftentimes, it might be you'd never be in the building or your

department head is. Some students don't even know which college they're in. So they

have to do a little work to figure that out.

The leader went on to say that, though online students may be "a little bit better in the digital

environment . . . it is not that different" for online students.

Some departments have fundamental or "cornerstone" courses that convey the

departmental chain of command and inform students how to go about reporting faculty

misbehavior. However, when students take a fundamental course that is outside of their major,

they are typically unaware of this reporting structure. When asked how these students would

know how to go about delivering a complaint, one department head declared, "They wouldn't."

Online Courses Add Another Layer of Support for Direct Complaints

Every participant spoke of the campus or college-based online support units. These

support units provide extra resources for receiving student complaints, as well as an anonymous

complaint system for online courses. Students may find out about these resources via syllabus

verbiage or optional syllabus attachments. Though there are only a few colleges with imbedded

support units, the ones that do exist provide increased oversight and resources for students and

faculty.

Student Complaints as a Way of Getting Out of Student-Led Problems

Nearly every participant decried the process of weeding out student-at-fault complaints,

or student complaints designed to get out of situations that they themselves created. Examples of

this type of complaint would be a student failing to do the work on an assignment or missing an

exam and then complaining that they were somehow mistreated. Students in the described

scenarios contended for accommodations such as allowing credit for a late assignment or extra

credits.

Theme 2: Student Evaluations

After direct complaints, all participants reported student evaluations as the next most

significant source for the detection of faculty misbehavior. The university faculty handbook touts

student evaluations as the predominant and primary documented source for assessing the quality of teaching. One online leader said:

It's an online form. Every student gets that and so that it's anonymous. So there is certainly an opportunity for students in what I call a safe way to complain. It's also at the very end [of the class] and so, that's not so great.

Another online leader stated:

Well, even if it is anonymous, the student may or may not feel comfortable because it's coming from the professor . . . The student may not feel comfortable fully describing their challenges or their feelings, especially if it's about the instructor.

The institution's standard student evaluation is split into two parts: the Likert scale, fill-in-the-bubble questions at the first, and then the comments section. According to one department head, the comments section is "usually where you're going to find students sharing comments [and] concerns of this nature" meaning reports of faculty misbehavior.

Department heads typically review all student evaluations, but in the four colleges with an online support unit, there was a review there as well. According to the online unit leaders, this typically comes before the department head. Any misbehavior detected by the online support unit will be flagged for the department head.

Student Evaluation Response Rate

Most participants described the response rate for online student evaluations as "decreased" when compared to the paper, in-class student evaluation surveys. One participant said, "We did find that when we went from a paper evaluation system to an online system, our response rates dropped with that." Another said:

. . .as opposed to the old days where you had a packet of material or forms and passed them out to students and collected them that day. The online approach, one of the great concerns and realities of having the online students, it's easier for them not to fill out the form than it was before.

All participants agreed there was a large decrease in student participation when the evaluation surveys were moved to the online format. Whether the course was taught online or in-person, all student evaluation surveys are collected online now regardless of teaching mode.

Student evaluation response rates can be influenced by how much emphasis the instructor places on it. One department head stated, "Since it's moved online, we've had instructors encourage via incentives, for example, some extra credit points if we hit 90 a percent response." According to this department head, faculty are encouraged to improve their response rate by the colleges, some of which have a target goal of 80%. "That has been an edict from our dean's office that we must get at least a certain percentage of student evaluations or we'll get into trouble – we'll get a visit by the dean's office." However, the same department head described faculty as wishing to receive formative and summative feedback for their teaching, "because they're building their teaching portfolios and . . . because they're interested in receiving feedback as well."

Theme 3: Classroom Observation

Classroom observation provides another view into the in-person classroom, both for evaluating the classroom teaching interactions and determining attendance. According to one department head, he could walk down the hall of a building and tell whether a class is absent or if they are leaving early. "[Could] I can I tell whether good stuff is going on in a class? Not really. But if they're not there and they should be there, I'll know that. If they're leaving early, regularly, I'm probably going to notice."

Current and former department heads reported in-person classroom observation as much more common and often not optional. Classroom observation is a part of the regular evaluative assessments that are conducted in face-to-face classrooms. One participant mentioned particular committees that are dedicated to graduate student instructors and another dedicated to assistant professors. However, online observation is more difficult. You can't just "walk down the hall" or

"sit" in an asynchronous class. No department head mentioned online observation as a source for detecting misbehavior.

The campus online support unit offers voluntary online observation and consultation with perhaps "five to ten" faculty per semester. One online support leader said:

> Typically what we'll do is we'll go in and look at their [online course], look at how things are laid out, review their syllabus really just like we would normally do with any traditional class. And we meet with the faculty member to talk about what's going to happen that week or weeks that we're going to observe. And then we go in and we look at what we watch, what's going on.

Online support unit personnel wrap up these observation sessions with a three-questions that they administer while the instructor is out of the room. "We ask, 'What does the instructor do to help you learn? What does the instructor do that hinders your learning? And what do you wish they would do?'" Although this additional student interfacing does provide more opportunities to receive student complaints, it does not provide a view into the classroom to detect attendance infractions.

Observation in Synchronous Online Courses

In response to the pandemic, the university experienced a great increase in synchronous online courses. In synchronous online courses, much of the interactions are witnessed by teaching assistants as well as other students. In addition, synchronous classes are usually recorded, but no one indicated these recordings were reviewed. Though synchronous courses allow for a much more traditional classroom observation, observation was not a reported as a typical vector for the detection of misbehavior.

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Theme 4: Comparing Methods

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Aside from the extra layer of support offered by the online support units, the participants offered no real differences as to how misbehavior was detected in either teaching mode. This is reflected in participants' views on practice as well as policy: "I don't know that there's any

difference in the policies between the two regarding this matter." Another participant said, "There are some things that's put into a separate bucket. But in terms of the teaching evaluations and the course administration and all that, both are treated similarly."

Some expressed that treating online courses the same the way they administered in-person courses was done on purpose:

> We may have initially treated online, say 15 years ago or 10 years ago, we may not have paid as much attention to it then – and that was probably true of me as a department head as well. But now it's integrated into our existence. And so we have to maintain the same level of quality and same kind of guidance and not differentiate between the two at all.

The assistant dean suggested that, because the majority of their students were also taking in-person courses on campus, that they were able to visit the department head on campus and report in a fashion similar to their in-person counterpart:

> Unlike some programs that may have an online program where their students are literally from anywhere in the world taking the course, I would say more often the online courses we have there are students who are on campus here and find it more convenient to take an online course. And so they could just as easily come and visit with me in my office as any other student.

Theme 5: Preventative Measures

Though they were not asked to describe the ways in which they seek to prevent faculty misbehavior, many participants volunteered the information. These topics included departmental culture, hiring practices, the use of senior faculty rather than adjuncts, human resources training, and online facilitation training. The following section will describe each of these.

Departmental Culture

This common theme included cultural norms and expectations – both spoken and unspoken – that prescribe "how faculty are to conduct themselves" and "how their interactions

with students are to be." One way this culture is expressed is through the promotion and tenure process.

One department head noted, for guidance on classroom behavior rules, faculty rely on three things: policies of the university, common sense, and "our expectations, internally, for classroom performance and classroom excellence." He went on to explain:

In our promotion and tenure document, we have some fancy words that talks about the importance of an instructional performance and things of that nature, so it doesn't give a laundry list of 'do this, do this, do this, do this.' I think it's more of the, for better or for worse, the unspoken culture that we have in our department.

Another said,

We have the assumption that people will do the right thing and they will lead courses in a manner that they are actually teaching the content and the students are understanding it . . . . They're treating students fairly and appropriately . . . we don't have strict policy guidelines on 'Well, these are the things you can do in a classroom and these are the things you can't do in a classroom.' We are all professionals and we sort of understand, 'I really shouldn't go to class and swear at my students and I shouldn't do things like treat some of them better than others' and maybe we ought to have that written down somewhere, but I don't think that we actually do.

Hiring

Several department heads expounded on the thoroughness and thoughtfulness of their hiring practices. This included vetting faculty with an eye toward the scholarship and importance of teaching. When asked, "How do you detect faculty misbehavior in the in-person environment? What are your flags?" one department head replied, "We hire good people." They went on to say:

Our department is very steeped in the [culture of] teaching. We have a teacher education program within the department and several of the faculty had come through a program similar to this where, not only are they in the role of teaching, but they are teaching

scholars. I guess with that I would say that we most definitely encourage scholarship of teaching. So we want people inquiring into their own teaching. I've heard some people describe research[ing] your own teaching is [like] inspecting your belly button; well, we think they need to be inspected. You know that you need to be constantly thinking about what you're doing so that there is an expectation here within our department. And more broadly, I think our academic programs' administration also honors and appreciates and rewards scholarship of teaching. So that fits in with how we monitor and pay attention to what's happening with our faculty and their development teaching.

However, when pressed, multiple department heads admitted that adjuncts hiring practices were much abbreviated and less rigorous. Whereas full-time or tenure track faculty will be vetted with a rigorous hiring process, often including a teaching philosophy statement and the delivery of a seminar to the hiring committee, adjuncts have a much lower bar. One department head said the adjunct hiring process differs significantly:

Actually, we don't have to go through all the hoops of getting approved for the position and working through upper administration . . . it doesn't have to go through all the formal processes. In fact, we can ask for a waiver and target a person for a particular job, such as teaching a single class for a semester. So [it is] very different . . . [One particular class] draws sometimes more students than we can handle in a given semester and so we'll hire adjuncts even close to the start of a semester.

Senior Faculty and Adjuncts

Some colleges intentionally place senior faculty in online teaching positions. One department head stated, "I've purposely tried to keep a balance in how we manage this. The faculty that teach online classes, not in every case, but typically are the more senior ones because they have the time to spend doing something extra versus trying to get tenure."

Senior faculty are also used to supervise online adjuncts. About recently hired, online adjuncts, another department head said:

They are under the direct supervision of one of our senior faculty members who designed that class, and part of his role is to not only teach a section of it, but also to provide the direct supervision. So [they have] regular meetings with those faculty and [are] also checking for consistency and grading and that kind of thing. He and I communicate regularly and if there are any time issues come up, or have come up in the past, he'll bring those to me and we'll talk about approaches to resolve the issue.

One department head said he does not put adjuncts into online classes at all:

. . . because a lot of our adjuncts are going to be maybe not as experienced or, because they're not here all the time, they may not have access or have the time to take advantage of what the [college online support unit] offers because they're doing it on top of their real job.

Another department head said tenure track professors were teaching their online classes:

So we had a limited amount of [online] adjunct teaching. I think the primary reason there was the lack of knowledge about how well they're going to do in the class. We don't want to have any of our online classes hit any of these seven items you talked about here. The department head was referring to the seven inviolable norms that were defined for them earlier.

HR Training

One department head regarded the university's annual human resources faculty training as a preventative measure stating, "It's the policies and procedures that we all take training on in terms of – there's the inappropriate behavior, right, moral turpitude – and that probably falls more into the federal procedures or institutional procedures." He referred to the inviolable norm, *moral turpitude*, which was defined for him at the beginning of the interview.

Online Training

Campus and college online support units provide optional training for those teaching online. The campus online support unit lead said, "We don't require faculty to have any training

before they teach an online class. There are some departments that are starting to do that, but it's still pretty slow to do." One department head commented, "Everyone is encouraged to do online training via the [college online support unit] and [campus online support unit]." However, it is required for faculty in that department to work through their college online support unit to develop a new course. In summary, training is required for online course development, but not for online course facilitation.

Early Detection Methods

Several methods were described that aim to help the detection of misbehavior earlier in the process. These included syllabus attachments, mid-course evaluations, and setting expectations via online teaching agreements.

Syllabus Verbiage and Supplements.

The standard academic affairs-supplied syllabus attachment template is five pages long with a 9-point font. Here students are directed to their advisors if they are not satisfied with talking to their instructor for "academic-related services." Online support units also offer to review syllabi as part of their optional consulting.

Mid-Course Evaluations.

One college online support unit "encourages" faculty to participate in mid-course student evaluations. This is a mid-semester survey for feedback on how the course is going. This was part of the voluntary course observation offering. These formative evaluations are encouraged but, according to one online leader, they are not frequently employed, nor are they typically shared with the online unit.

Setting Online Course Expectations.

Online support units provided – and one college required signatures agreeing to – set expectations for online courses. These guidelines included instructor presence recommendations for teaching an online class, as well as response times for student communication and the grading

of assessments. Excerpts from one college's online course development and teaching agreement

is shown below.

Figure 3

Excerpts from a College Online Course Development and Teaching Agreement

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General Expectations
- Every online course must include at least some activities that require interaction between students in the course.
- Students should have interactions with the course instructor; and while interaction with graduate assistants is expected, the graduate assistant is not the course instructor.
- The instructor agrees to respond to the student's messages and inquiries (phone, email, or discussion board) within 24 hours during the business week, and 48 hours on weekends and holidays, which should be published in the course syllabus. If there is a rare occasion when a 24 or 48 hour response is not possible, instructors should notify students ahead of time if at all possible.

Instructor Training
- Instructors agree to complete an online training provided by the [college online support unit] each year regarding best practices in online teaching.

Course Syllabus
- Instructors should utilize the [college online support unit] syllabus template in developing a syllabus for the course.
- Students should be advised (either by syllabus or short, introductory course video) what is expected of them and what they should be able to expect from the instructor.

Grading Feedback
- Instructors should advise students how long it will take to receive grading feedback and then provide feedback within the expected parameters. Feedback should generally be provided on assignments within one week of the due date. Feedback must be provided in a manner that is timely enough that students have adequate opportunity to review before the next exam or assignment and to make drop decisions before class drop dates.

Instructor Presence and Engagement
- Students need to perceive that the faculty member is present and engaged. One or more of the following activities should be incorporated in each course:
    - Provide a discussion board or social platform in which the instructor monitors postings and responds regularly.
    - Provide chat sessions.
    - Supplement pre-recorded multimedia content with a new introduction/syllabus video and/or with weekly update videos (3-5 minutes).
    - Record live and in-class interactions and post to the online class.
    - Break lessons or lectures into short (5-10 minutes) multimedia modules, and follow each module with an activity (e.g., short quiz, working a problem,

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responding to a question) that enables students to assimilate and/or practice with the material to which they were just exposed.

- Incorporate pictures, motion or animation in multimedia for content emphasis. (See Spears Greenwood Center for Online Excellence Production staff for assistance.)

The [college online support unit] will periodically review classes for quality and compliance. If there is significant evidence of non-compliance and particularly, if there are excessive complaints from students or consistently poor course evaluations, the department head will be asked to discuss the issues with the instructor. If the instructor does/not feel that he/she can comply or if the complaints continue or poor evaluations continue, the course may be removed from online offerings or assigned to a different instructor.

Theme 6: Online Course Revenue

Though not asked specifically about online course funding, several participants expressed concern and opinions regarding the revenue structure of online courses and the way faculty were paid on top of their annual salary for teaching online. Online revenue provides outsized income for colleges, departments, and faculty. According to participants, this has several effects on the administration of these courses.

Decisions Driven by Online Course Revenue

Online course funding was a theme that surfaced regularly in the interviews. At this institution, online revenue is handled differently than that of regular, in-person course revenue. When online courses were first offered the colleges received most if not all of the income from online courses. This money is perceived as a driver for making decisions about online courses and faculty. Regarding money in online learning, one online learning leader said:

A lot of decisions on campus – I know that it shocks people – are driven by money and the way we do our funding, the way we deal with online classes and the way the money is split drives a lot of decisions. And so up until now, colleges get half of the tuition they generate in online. You don't get that for in-person classes. So [online classes are] a money maker.

Some participants believed the money involved in online courses leads to lower standards for online courses and faculty. One participant exclaimed, "When you treat online like this extra

business operation, then they have a tendency not to have the same academic standards, because it's about making money; whereas we see our campus [in-person] courses and programs differently." This participant indicated that things were getting better in this regard, but slowly.

Some explained how this income was being used in a responsible manner to support online learning. Examples of this would be funding their college online support unit, or providing content development software for that unit as well as online faculty. As one participant said,

> We have, as a department, [not been] quite so blatant as maybe other departments have here in the [school] about using it for personal gain or for departmental gain. We've done it as a strategic way of supporting our goals, our land grant goals . . . For me as a department head, I've purposely tried to keep a balance in how we manage this.

However, the additional financial revenue from online courses may be ending. Another department head said,

> [I]nitially the tuition didn't go through central administration. Central administration then figured it out gradually and has been sucking away more and more of it to the point that in the post covid world . . . I foresee us getting no revenue from that.

From this, it would seem the university is taking more and more of the online revenue and treating online courses more like their counterparts.

Faculty Overload Pay

Many colleges pay faculty "overload" pay for teaching online courses. This is a dollar amount per student-credit-hour that faculty receive in addition to their annual salary that supports their in-person, regular course load. One participant noted, "Teaching here is one way that people can supplement their income as they're paid per person, per student." Only one of the study's participants said their college did not pay faculty this way.

Because online overload pay is lucrative and optional, it can be used as a cudgel for faculty. One department head gave this example, "If there's a violation for an online course,

there's the possibility that the faculty member is taken out of the online learning [courses]. So that is a financial hit for the faculty member" as they will no longer receive their overload pay.

Chapter Summary

The results of this study revealed six overarching themes and fifteen sub-themes. Refined from 267 codes, the themes represented the viewpoints of administrators most involved with detecting and administering faculty that teach online.

The highest frequency of complaints regarding faculty misbehavior come directly from students and are submitted either to department heads directly or through a variety of administrators, peers, or via the university website. However, it can be difficult for students to determine to whom to submit their complaint, as students are not always informed of which department they are in or who to contact should they wish to file a complaint.

The next-most-used vector for receiving complaints about faculty misbehavior is the student course evaluation. However, in recent years, low response rates from moving the instrument online have an effect on their effectiveness. Faculty can improve the rate by emphasizing the evaluations and offering incentives. This practice is encouraged by the departments.

By contrast, classroom observation is not often used for the detection of faculty misbehavior. Department heads may "walk down the hallway" and notice if a class is in session, but they do not do this in online classes. The online support unit offers an observation for online courses, but this is voluntary and only happens in about 8 to 10 courses per year.

With the exception of there being another vector for fielding complaints, the campus or departmental online support unit, there was no noted difference in the way faculty misbehavior was detected between online and in-person modes. This was reflected in practices, procedures, and policy. Some implied this was done on purpose to "maintain the same level of quality" for online classes.

Participants volunteered multiple methods they use to prevent misbehavior including promoting departmental norms and expectations, careful hiring, using experienced faculty for online courses, and training specific to online learning or human resource-type training. Other methods provide early detection and prevent later misbehaviors. These include methods that inform students about the reporting process, mid-course student evaluations, and documented online course expectations.

Finally, the revenue or income from online courses was brought up frequently. Participants believed the "extra" income influenced the way departmental decisions were made about online courses. This was also true about faculty, as they are paid an "overload" stipend outside of their regular pay.

The next chapter will present and discuss the findings of this study in addition to implications for research, theory, and practice and opportunities for future research.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

Dear John,

Thank you for letting me know about your research; however, I am not interested in

participating in your study. To be perfectly honest, I have never observed any faculty

misbehavior in our [department] online classes since I have been department head (over

3.5 years). However, there has been plenty of student misbehavior! Given my

experience, I do not understand the purpose of your research topic. Also, the [college] is

very strict on approving faculty who teach online. Only the best faculty are allowed to do

this and if a faculty member does not do a good job in teaching online, they are removed.

We only want the best in this area based on my observations.

I wish you the best with your research!

Sincerely,

[Department Head Name], PhD (used with permission)

The above response to my study participation request reflects a recurring attitude toward online

learning and faculty evaluation in general; paraphrased as: "We only hire competent faculty, and

they are left to supervise themselves!" In other words, there is no need for detecting faculty

misbehavior because of our high standards and rigorous hiring practices.

Except in reality, faculty misbehavior does happen – and it can happen even when departmental hiring standards are high and the departmental culture emphasizes discipline, high moral standards, and student-centered teaching. Therefore, observing and actively detecting misbehavior is a good and necessary thing not only to root out bad actors, but also to keep the honest faculty honest. This is true in every teaching mode, in online teaching as well as in-person teaching; however, online teaching presents unique challenges for monitoring and detection of teaching misbehavior.

Limitations

The previous chapters in this dissertation covered this study's purpose, discussed the current literature in this field, presented data collection and analysis methods, and presented the data and the themes that emerged. This chapter will summarize the findings of the study and present conclusions based on these findings. Implications for theory and research will follow along with recommendations for policy and practice. Prior to a discussion of the findings, some of the study's limitations should be discussed. These limitations are presented below:

Sparse literature

A problem encountered when framing this study and formulating the methodology was the lack of literature surrounding the topic, "teaching misbehaviors in online higher education" and the administrative management thereof. Though online education has arguably been a staple in American universities for more than 15 years, much of the studies that explore the teaching mode have focused on design, development, and learning outcomes. Though a parallel field of study exists that explores student perceptions for online faculty misbehavior, there is no competing substance for the definition, detection, and sanctioning of faculty misbehavior in online education. This student-perception-facing field also tends to link reactions to the academics of student learning and pedagogy rather than administrative practice.

COVID-19 pandemic

A considerable limitation associated with data collection for this study was the COVID-19 pandemic. This affected the study's data collection and context in several ways.

Zoom Interviews

All interviews were held via an online meeting software (i.e., Zoom) rather than in person at the university site. This may have had several effects to interview integrity such as the absence or lowering of non-verbal communication, fewer interpersonal interactions such as niceties and small talk and overall, a shorter time spent together, and effects on the participant's comfort level.

A Large Increase in Synchronous-Online Courses at the Target Institution

This study was conceived and planned just before the COVID-19 pandemic began. Interviews for the study were conducted at a time when colleges and universities were scrambling to accommodate and maintain business operations in the face of public pressure and governmental regulations. The study's questions were formulated based on the target institution's policies and practices in place before the pandemic. On analysis, it was determined that the institution's online course synchronous offerings had dramatically increased. This affected the responses of the participants and, consequently, the findings and conclusions of the study.

Survey Instrument Defining Misbehavior

This study's definition and organization of faculty misbehavior is based on Braxton and Bayer's (1999) Faculty Misconduct in Collegiate Teaching and further explored in Braxton et al's (2011) *Professors Behaving Badly*. These studies use the College Teaching Behaviors Inventory© (CBTI) instrument to determine which college teaching behaviors are considered inappropriate and to what degree. Though there are other instruments with which to evaluate faculty misbehavior (e.g., Kearney et al., 1991), the CBTI seemed more appropriate for use in this study as it was previously deployed in an administrative and peer-facing context as opposed to student-perception of faculty misbehaviors.

According to Braxton and Bayer (1999), the CBTI was first deployed in 1989. Not only was society greatly different in the 1980's, in particular societal views on education and faculty behavior, but the Internet's foundational elements (HTML and the World Wide Web) had not yet been invented. Therefore, the instrument used to frame faculty misbehavior in this study is 1) somewhat dated from a societal perspective, and 2) has no inclusion of or consideration for online teaching behaviors.

Research Faculty Show Less Disdain for Some Types of Misbehavior

Returning to Braxton and Bayer (1999), their study showed a "systematic tendency" to find the violation of certain norms less egregious than their institutional counterparts, teaching universities and community colleges. This includes the following norms: condescending negativism, inattentive planning, personal disregard, uncommunicated course details, uncooperative cynicism, advisement negligence, inadequate communication, inconvenience avoidance, instructional narrowness, insufficient syllabus, and undermining colleagues.

It has been suggested that this lack of response to transgressed norms might be because those in research institutions do not value to the role of college teaching as much as their other institutions (Braxton et al., 1992). Research institutions typically place more emphasis on research than teaching (Bradforth et al., 2015; Leslie, 2015; Light et al., 2009; Robert & Carlsen, 2017; Wright, 2005), and they maintain ambiguous goals and responsibilities with regard to teaching and "lack or reject opportunities to gather direct evidence on teaching standards or approaches" (Wright, 2005, p. 333).

Study's Target Departments Heavily Weighted Toward Business

Though the study's participants were selected based on their previous online course offering statistics, the non-online unit administrators who volunteered were spread across four colleges with the college of business being the largest represented. One of the online unit administrators was also from the college of business.

Braxton and Bayer (1999) did not find business to be different from the other, differentiated academic disciplines; however, they also did not include it is an exclusive class in their study. The authors did say that biology, and by extension, "hard/life disciplines", were more likely to react to authoritarian classroom behavior and moral turpitude and tend to deliver more formal sanctions than the other disciplines featured in their study (i.e., mathematics, history, and psychology).

The following sections including the summary of findings, conclusions, implications for theory and research, and proposals for policy and practice are presented within the context of the above limitations.

Summary of Findings

The summary of findings is organized around the study's research question: In what ways do higher education academic administrators perceive differences, and adjust their administrative oversight, in monitoring teaching and teaching misbehavior in online courses versus in-person courses?

With regard to monitoring faculty teaching, department heads in this study treated online classes largely the same as in-person: They relied on students to detect and report any infraction. With few exceptions that will be discussed later, there was no accommodation or differentiation specific to the detection of *online* faculty misbehavior.

It was very clear from the participants' comments that students were relied on to report nearly all faculty misbehavior incidents. Student feedback and reporting were collected in two different ways: (1) direct complaints and (2) end-of-course student evaluation of faculty effectiveness instruments. Both of these variants present challenges for online students.

Direct Complaints

Like their in-person counterparts, online courses present similar challenges for figuring out how to report and to whom. Rather than the building where a class is taking place, an online

course may have an obscure prefix that does not correspond to the department. This would require a student to do some extra research to determine the reporting structure.

Student Evaluations

In alignment with recent research (Asare & Daniel, 2017; Flaherty, 2015), every participant described poor response rates for student surveys of instructor effectiveness as compared to an in-class, paper survey. As the primary vehicle for faculty evaluation (Langen, 2011), poor response rates provide a much smaller view into the online classroom experience. When students opt out of the survey, fewer reports of faculty activity are received, and acts of misbehavior may go unreported.

One minor difference in detecting faculty misbehavior in online courses was found in classroom observation practices. Though in-person classroom observation for faculty evaluation has been criticized as ingenuine as faculty know they are being observed and therefore might be judged on performance rather than teaching skill (Seldin, 1999), the responses from department heads in the study reported some use of classroom observation and classroom "visits" as a means to monitor faculty behavior in face-to-face classes. These observations are used to get to know the delivery style of the faculty and as a way to keep tabs on the class meeting times and class length. Participants did not report using observations of this type for online courses.

Another difference in the detection of online faculty misbehavior was found as an additional reporting avenue for online students. Campus and department online support units offered reporting assistance via email, telephone, or via a form found on the online support unit website. The reporting avenue was communicated to students via a syllabus attachment or through the online support unit website.

Documents and Institutional Resources

Department head and assistant dean participants said the same documents were being used to describe proper faculty teaching behavior. These included promotion and tenure documents, departmental teaching policies, and the institution's faculty handbook. Only in the

submitted departmental teaching policy documents was there language that specified behavior for online courses. These teaching policy documents recognized the "extra effort" required for online teaching, reminded instructors that the course, though it may be designed differently, should contain the same general content and student outcomes, and it described some repercussions for not meeting departmental standards when teaching online.

Though faculty administrators declared the two teaching modes were treated the same, departmental and campus online support unit documents provided language for online teaching that deviates from traditional, in-person teaching. These included standards for instructor presence and engagement, timely feedback, as well as repercussions for not meeting these standards. Some departments included a requirement for facilitation training.

The Functional Self-policing Structure of College Teaching

This study was conceived and built around Braxton and Bayer's (1999) and Braxton et al's (2011) research of inviolable norms and their definition of faculty misbehavior. I chose to explore their ideas and how they might apply to teaching in an online environment. Conclusions from this study's findings will be viewed from their original theory, which is summarized below.

In reading about Braxton and Bayer's (1999) study, I came to dwell on a singular passage titled the "Public Nature of College Teaching" (Braxton & Bayer, 1999, p. 121). This section described the functional self-policing structure of college teaching, and the authors proposed the reason this self-policing system remains functional is due to the "public nature" of the college teaching activity.

In this passage, Braxton and Bayer (1999) declared, "College and university faculty enjoy considerable autonomy in defining and conducting their undergraduate college courses" (p. 121) and that student third party-perspective is a key component of a functional self-policing structure of college and university faculty.

> [C]ollege teaching is a highly public activity as students witness first-hand the teaching
> behaviors of academic professionals. Because teaching behaviors are highly visible to

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students, faculty may be reluctant to engage in proscribed behaviors. Moreover, the

detection of teaching wrongdoing is aided by the high visibility of faculty teaching

behaviors to students. (p. 121)

However, they qualify this by stating only certain inviolable norms are likely to be "highly

visible." These include condescending negativism, inattentive planning, personal disregard, and

uncommunicated course details.

The second piece of Braxton and Bayer's 'functional self-policing structure of college

teaching' (my name for their theory) has to do with class size and the inverse relationship to the

detection of faculty misbehavior:

Accordingly, the typical class size in an academic department plays a role in both the

deterrence and the detection of transgressions of those inviolable and admonitory

normative configurations observable at the class level. Because the observability of

misconduct is inversely related to group size (Horowitz, 1990), we contend that faculty

avoidance of such inviolable and admonitory normative orientations is more likely in

small classes. We also posit that the detection of teaching misconduct reflective of these

inviolable and admonitory norms is also more probable in small classes (pp. 121-122).

It is through this theoretical lens that the findings will be viewed and analyzed in the conclusion

section that follows.

Conclusions Derived from Findings

Four conclusions are derived from the pattern of findings described in this paper:

1. Because students are relied on to report the majority of faculty misbehavior and, in online

    asynchronous classes, they are unable to observe the mistreatment of fellow student

    peers, this creates a blind spot for academic administrators when compared to in-person

    or synchronous-online courses. "Public" perspective is removed in online-asynchronous

    courses and it is lessened to a certain degree in synchronous online courses. This

    obfuscation lessens the likelihood of "flagging" teaching misbehavior and, without

detection, the misbehavior is likely to persist. This public perception does not only include acts of misbehavior witnessed in the classroom environment but, because the outside-of-class socialization for peer students is practically eliminated, the likelihood of conversations revealing misbehavior also decreases.

2. Of the four departments participating in this study, only one had a defined code of conduct for online teaching. The institution did not provide this level of conduct prescription and rather deferred to the colleges in a federalist manner. For departments without these resources, a lack of any quantifiable code of conduct, ethics, or norms for online teaching makes it more difficult for administrators to identify when misbehavior is occuring in online courses; thus, the sanctions levels would be varied. As Braxton and Bayer (1999) said regarding the need for formalized, coded behaviors,

> Without such content, institutional administrators may treat cases of teaching impropriety in individual instances on an ad hoc basis and make decisions that might be ambiguous . . . In such events, faculty are essentially abrogating their authority as professionals in negotiating the definition of proper teaching behavior and associated appropriate procedures for sanctions. (p. 180)

3. Administrators in this study relied on rigorous hiring practices and vetting to lessen the likelihood of misbehavior, but these hiring practices only applied to full-time and tenured faculty recruitment; adjuncts and graduate student teachers were subjected to much less scrutiny. But once hired, administrators treat the fully vetted and those less-vetted mostly the same. In some exceptions, junior faculty and adjuncts are mentored by senior faculty, and one department only let senior faculty teach online. This hiring practice provides a foundation for administrators to extend their trust to those teaching in their department(s) and eschews the responsibility for direct oversight or monitoring.

4. There was a reluctance of administrators and staff at this institution to impose more assertive, supervisory rules and procedures. Preventative measures seem to be used in

place of direct observation or surveillance. Participants indicated a good deal of student-centered teaching culture and preparation, but department heads did not believe there was a need for more rigorous oversight. Staff described oversight for online teaching as "less controlled," "less dictated," and "more loose" when compared to what they experienced at other, non-research institutions. There was some speculation from participants as to whether the financial incentives were the cause of such reluctance; however, this remained unclear.

Discussion

There are cultural and mission-specific pieces that are problematic with the advent of online teaching. Though online support participants offered some wishful thinking and preferences for improved online patrolling in public universities, some practical solutions that address the issue of detecting faculty misbehavior can be found in online private institutions.

While presenting at an online developer's conference, I had the opportunity to speak with a dean from one of the highest attended, private online universities in the United States, and I asked him how his institution addressed the detection of faculty misbehavior. He replied with three practices that are quite different from that of the study's target institution:

1. **Split the department head into two positions.** One administrator is in charge of academics, this includes programs, research, and other strictly academic functions. The other administrator is responsible for faculty supervision. This includes course observation, dealing with student complaints, and the like.

2. **Monitor online usage and communication.** The faculty supervisor position is also responsible for monitoring the learning management system to include examining when instructors and students log in and alerting when it has been over a certain length of time. Also, monitoring student communications including messaging and email. This also includes a timing element that checks the response time of faculty.

3. **Secretly audit online classes.** This institution employs "secret shoppers" who audit online classes. This presents an environment where an instructor would never know if a student is actually someone monitoring his or her class. It maintains the illusion of a constant state of observation.

Although these practices were anecdotally very effective at that private institution, implementing them into a public research institution might be difficult. The faculty-to-administration power dynamic is quite different between public and private institutions. Public research faculty enjoy expanded rights due to shared governance, academic freedom, and tenure and these differences could cause some friction when seeking to implement these surveillance methods.

Active oversight of faculty is very much a part of the corporate practices that are emerging in higher education, but they are in conflict with much of the historical workings and intent of the system. In addition to academic freedom, the professional status of faculty is at stake. If you liken it to the corporate world, one would probably not suggest to secretly or even actively/openly monitor the performance of a vice president at a company as his or her status means there is a track record of performance that allowed him or her to reach this level in the company. Faculty are high-level professionals in this context.

There is some research that supports this assertion. Although many higher education institutions are confronted with pressure to "demonstrate accountability using formal quantitative measures" (Sauder & Espeland, 2009), the faculty at these institutions are leery of any surveillance measures. Gonzales et al, (2014) stated:

> . . . this sense of surveillance added to the pressure faculty felt. In short, surveillance is the sense that one must constantly watch oneself and the sense that others are watching, or perhaps more precisely, evaluating. Surveillance, we argue, leads to the conceptualization of universities and scholars as market participants and competitors . . . For instance, faculty described the constant sense that they were being monitored, often

with measures that they did not fully understand or that they did not fully agree with. The comments also suggest how surveillance by others led to a sense of self-doubt and self-surveillance. (pp. 1108-1109)

Some liken this surveillance to a "panopticon" similar to a prison where one is placed in a cell in the middle of a complex that can be viewed from all sides (Hyslop-Margison & Rochester, 2016). Hyslop-Margison and Rochester (2016) note this panopticon "distorts academic identity by reshaping what it means to be an educator in higher education and simultaneously denying the discourse of academic freedom" (p. 105), and blame a neo-liberal ideology that "creates a distortion in focus that sustains hegemonic values through surveillance mechanisms" that "create academic professionals who no longer scrutinize the mechanisms of educational bureaucracy through the exercise of academic freedom" (pp. 105-106). And finally, this panopticon of surveillance is claimed to be a political tactic that threatens the democratic role of universities with ideological manipulation:

> The multitude of assessment mechanisms centralize administrative control over faculty and increasingly shift the role of university professors from autonomous intellectuals to institutional conformists, thereby granting politicians, university presidents and governing boards complete control over academic policies and university culture. (p. 107)

Though this might sound like a highly reactive and dramatic response for something like monitoring faculty log in times and student communication responses, administrators who are responsible for implementation of these surveillance measures indicated that it does not seem to be too far from actual faculty responses.

Implications for Theory

The theoretical framework used to inform this study was based on Braxton and Bayer's (1999) and Braxton et al.'s (2011) theory of "The Self-Policing Structure of College Teaching." As my research was specifically about online learning, I immediately thought of how this relates

to the "public nature" of the online classroom and asked, if class size is inversely proportional to the likelihood of wrongdoing (Horowitz, 1990), then how does that apply to the online classroom – specifically the online-asynchronous learning environment? I find this this self-policing mechanism, when applied to an online-asynchronous classroom environment, no longer maintains a public nature; rather, the student primarily has contact directly with the faculty and occasionally directly with peer students, but rarely simultaneously. Figure 4 is a depiction of the phenomenon.

Figure 4

The Self-Policing Structure of College Teaching in an Online Classroom
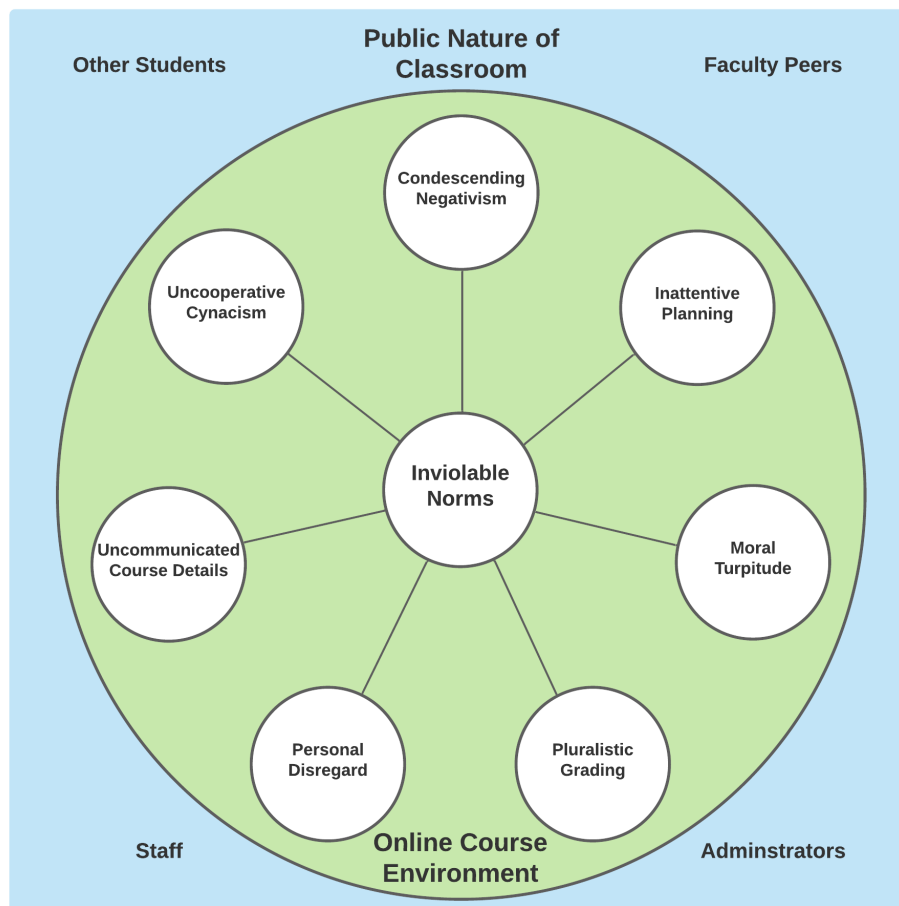
In this model, the public nature of the college classroom is occluded by the online-asynchronous environment. In a typical online-asynchronous environment, students cannot

witness faculty misbehavior as it applies to their peers in person, and students are less likely to spend time before and after class together; therefore, they would not have as many opportunities to share accounts of faculty misbehavior. Staff and administrators, though less likely to witness misbehavior in any classroom, are also kept away from witnessing individual student-to-teacher interactions.

This qualitative study was the first step in exploring the Self-Policing Structure of College Teaching in an Online-Asynchronous Classroom theory. The study was created with the notion that, if department heads treated the online-asynchronous classroom the same way as they did their in-person classes, without acknowledging or accommodating the substantial differences that this type of online course brings in the way of faculty supervision, the theory would – at least in this one instance – be validated and brought forward.

Implications for Policy and Practice

The following recommendations for policy are offered. Institutional leaders and administrators should consider implementing these recommendations at their own institutions.

1. Develop a uniform code of conduct for online teaching. Though there was evidence of this in practice at the study's target institution (see Figure 3), the practice was really only implemented in a single department. Uniform codes of conduct for teaching clear up ambiguity about what is considered misbehavior and help faculty, learners, and observers to identify and help prevent these activities.

2. Use an evaluation tool to assess and address the effectiveness and quality of institutional online learning. The Online Learning Consortium's Quality Scorecard for the Administration of Online Programs presents many suggestions for improving student communication of faculty behavior and setting expectations for faculty in the areas of online faculty teaching support, student support, as well as evaluation and assessment.

3. Encourage faculty to evaluate their own online teaching practices using an assessment tool. The Online Learning Consortium's (2016) Quality Course Teaching & Instructional

Practice Scorecard is a practical rubric-style checklist that helps ensure online learning courses are well facilitated. This instrument includes items relevant to online teaching behaviors including the instructor role, class discussion and engagement, building community, communication, and continuous course improvement.

Implications for Research

This study presents a theory that visually represents issues with managing and supervising online higher education faculty. A first step in exploring this theory was determining if the type of institutions involved were altering their monitoring or detection apparatus to accommodate the online learning environment. Data from this study display information about department heads and online support unit personnel at a medium-sized, land-grant research university, specifically that they approach online teaching oversight much the same way as their in-person courses and rely upon students as their primary means of detecting faculty misbehavior. Findings from my research contribute to this nascent theory and provide a foundation on which future studies may build to further explore the supervision of online faculty and the monitoring and detection of faculty misbehavior.

Recommendations for Further Research

Limitations should be addressed in future research to further explore the Self-Policing Structure of College Teaching in an Online-Asynchronous Classroom. Suggested research includes:

1. Future studies seeking to explore this theory might choose to limit their inquiry to asynchronous online courses exclusively or specifically address each teaching mode in turn. Students in online-asynchronous courses are more isolated than those taking synchronous online courses. Both of these modes are more isolated than in-person courses. Differentiating these modes in research studies would provide better understanding of the level of isolation and the particularities of detecting misbehavior in each mode.

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2. The current research should be extended to other departments as this study had a large portion of participants in the college of business. Though there was no relevant research found that indicated business faculty and administrators approach online education or the detection of teaching misbehavior differently, including more departments would make the study more generalizable.

3. Current research should also be extended to include other higher education institution types. These should include categories of the Carnegie Classification of institutions such as research universities II, Masters Colleges and Universities, Baccalaureate, and Associate's Colleges. Also, to include non-land-grant institutions. The purpose of including these instruction types is to determine the varying degree of reaction to and control of teaching misbehaviors in online courses.

4. This study was based on definitions of misbehavior derived from the College Teaching Based Inventory© developed by Braxton and Bayer (1999) during the 1980s. Future research scholars should attempt to update the instrument to reflect modern attitudes as to what defines faculty misbehavior. In addition, an instrument should be developed that defines misbehavior in online synchronous and asynchronous environments.

5. This study considered the monitoring of faculty from a faculty supervisor's perspective. Future studies could include the topic of increased monitoring of online teaching activity from the perspective of the faculty.

In addition, findings from this study emphasize the need for additional research in supervisory practices of public higher education faculty teaching online courses, as well as the shared supervisory relationship of online support units and department administrators. To this end, future research should examine practices found in stricter higher education environments such as private online institutions including increased administrative oversight, monitoring, and innovation in student communication.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described limitations presented in this study including the lack of literature, the challenge of research during a pandemic, and changes and challenges with the target institution. Findings were then summarized and conclusions were presented and discussed. Implications for theory, policy and practice, and research were presented. Finally, recommendations for further research were provided.

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APPENDIX A

PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT EMAIL TEMPLATE

Dear [*insert name*],

My name is John Gillmore and I am a Ph.D. candidate studying in the Higher Education and Student Affairs department at Oklahoma State University. I am writing to invite you to participate in my research study about detecting faculty misbehavior in higher education online teaching. You're eligible to be in this study because you are in an administrative position that oversees faculty in a department with significant online offerings. I obtained your contact information from the Oklahoma State University website.

If you decide to participate in this study, you will agree to 1) take part in a single, one-hour interview, 2) provide written answers to follow-up questions, and 3) agree to supply official and unofficial documents used to guide your faculty evaluation efforts. In addition, I would like to audio record your interview. After transcription, the recording will be destroyed and your personal identifying data will be anonymized.

Remember, this is completely voluntary. You can choose to be in the study or not. If you'd like to participate or have any questions about the study, please email or contact me at [*insert contact information*].

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

PROJECT: Department Chair Perceptions on the Detection of Faculty Misbehavior in Online Higher Education Courses: A Qualitative Study

DATE:

PLACE:

INTERVIEWER:

INTERVIEWEE:

POSITION OF INTERVIEWEE:

DESCRIPTION OF PROJECT: This study seeks to investigate current faculty supervisor practices, processes, and procedures regarding the evaluation, detection, and administration of faculty misbehavior in higher education online teaching.

QUESTIONS:

1. Briefly describe your position and time in service.
2. What kind and how many faculty do you currently supervise?
3. Describe your experience in evaluating online faculty.
4. What guidelines and official documents do you use to assist in this endeavor?
5. How does the current system work for detecting faculty misbehavior?

Thank the individual for participating in this interview. Assure him or her of confidentiality of responses and future interactions.

IRB APPROVAL

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date:	06/24/2020
Application Number:	IRB-20-302
Proposal Title:	Department Chair Perceptions on the Detection of Faculty Misbehavior in Online Higher Education Courses
Principal Investigator:	John GillmoreCo-Investigator(s):
Faculty Adviser:	Kerri KearneyProject Coordinator:
Research Assistant(s):	
Processed as:	Exempt
Exempt Category:	

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in 45CFR46.

This study meets criteria in the Revised Common Rule, as well as, one or more of the circumstances for which <u>continuing review is not required.</u> As Principal Investigator of thisresearch, you will be required to submit a status report to the IRB triennially.

The final versions of any recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are available for download from IRBManager. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:
1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be approved by the IRB. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes tothe title, PI, adviser, other research personnel, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. Thiscontinuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any unanticipated and/or adverse events to the IRB Office promptly.
4. Notify the IRB office when your research project is complete or when you are no longer affiliatedwith Oklahoma State University.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions aboutthe IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact the IRB Office at 405-744- 3377 or irb@okstate.edu.

Sincerely,

Oklahoma State University IRB

VITA

John Christopher Gillmore

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: Administrator Perceptions on the Monitoring of Teaching and Teaching Misbehavior in Online Higher Education Courses

Major Field: Educational Leadership and Policy Studies; Option: Higher Education

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in your major at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December, 2021.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Business Administration at University of Central Oklahoma, Edmond, Oklahoma in 2009.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science in Business Administration at University of Phoenix, Phoenix, Arizona in 2001.

Experience:

2021 - Present	University of Central Oklahoma, LX Studio, Sr. Learning Strategy and Design Consultant
2017 - 2021	University of Central Oklahoma, Institute for Learning Environment Design, Sr. Learning Innovation Architect
2016 - 2017	University of Central Oklahoma, Institute for Learning Environment Design, Research Fellow
2011 - 2017	University of Central Oklahoma, Center for Professional and Distance Education, Assistant Director of Instructional Technologies