AN EXAMINATION OF REPORTED MOTIVATION AND TIME ALLOCATION ACROSS FIVE TEACHING TASKS AMONGST ONLINE AND ONSITE UNIVERSITY LEVEL SOCIAL SCIENCE FACULTY

by

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Abstract

The objective of this examination was to determine if there were significant differences in reported levels of motivation across five teaching tasks, as well as time allocated to each teaching task, among online and onsite university-level social science faculty. One hundred thirty-six social science faculty members were allocated into two groups that reported teaching in either online or onsite settings. Each participant completed the WTMST measuring various types of motivation across various types of teaching tasks. A measure of estimated time spent on each of the five teaching tasks was also obtained. The two groups showed several similarities in amount of motivation across teaching tasks and types of motivation with greater motivation for teaching, class preparation and evaluation of students than administrative and complementary tasks and greater motivation for teaching than class preparation. Both groups showed greater identified regulation than intrinsic motivation and greater intrinsic motivation and identified and external regulation than introjected regulation and amotivation. However, the onsite group reported greater motivation for teaching and class preparation than evaluation of students that was not shown for the online group and the onsite group reporting greater external regulation than intrinsic motivation and greater introjected regulation than amotivation that was not shown for the online group. The onsite group reported more time teaching than evaluation of students while the opposite finding was shown for the online group. The onsite group reported more time on class preparation than the other tasks except teaching while the online group reported less time, or no difference in time, spent on class preparation compared to other tasks. Reported time estimates and motivation scores were shown to be positively correlated across teaching tasks. The patterns of motivation scores across teaching tasks and types of motivation are described

relative to self-determination theory. Differences within groups in motivation scores, and reported allocation of time, across teaching tasks, and corresponding positive correlation between motivation scores and reported time estimates suggests a relationship between the distribution of required duties of faculty and their motivational experiences. The findings are discussed relative to potential future qualitative and quantitative research of college faculty motivation and time allocated to various tasks, and relative to benefits to college level faculty, administrators and faculty services, and to students, toward facilitating quality of the academic experience.

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work to Christ and the quantum energy field and unified field of energy as my understanding of God. I would also like to dedicate this work to my mother and father, since their installation in me of a work ethic, respect of my elders, passion and discipline will never be forgotten.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

Motivation is defined as "the hypothetical construct used to describe the internal and/or external forces that produce the direction, intensity, and persistence of behavior" (Vallerand & Thill, 1993, p. 755). Perspectives of motivation were particular to unconscious process (e.g., Freud, 1923), whereas others have focused on aspects of nurture (Skinner, 1953). According to Vallerand (2012) we, as humans, respond in different ways to all facets of what is presented to us from the outside world as well as our own internal processes. Some have found that humans are inherently determined to obtain a sense of self-actualization through real life experience and being able to learn from these experiences through determination as well as finding meaning through experience (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Although there have been many studies examining various aspects of motivation in teachers and/or students over the years (De Cooman, et al., 2007; Faye & Sharpe, 2008; Lubin & Ge, 2012; Ofoegbu, 2004; Saeed & Muneer, 2012; Scott, Cox & Dinham, 1999), no studies to date have focused on university level social science faculty and how these faculty are motivated to complete specific types of tasks, with the time allocated to each. More importantly, no studies have examined faculty at onsite institutions and those who teach online along these lines. Looking at these two groups is important because the social and educational parameters are structured so differently, and online education has grown in recent years (Bart, 2014). The evolution from a traditional classroom educational structure to an electronic educational structure is significant (R. Smith, Clark, & Blomeyer, 2005). Online learning environments typically comprise similar basic constructs of learning and academics as onsite environments; however, online environments typically consist of the use of internet technology as a learning platform and may be asynchronous allowing for

flexibility in student and faculty location of learning and related scheduling (Cavanaugh, Gillan, Kromrey, Hess & Blomeyer, 2004).

Knowing how much time faculty spend on teaching tasks may lead to further investigation that clarifies why required time allocated to complete various tasks may vary. For instance, coming to an awareness of the temporal dimensions in which teachers must address electronic correspondence can help universities in setting up parameters for the online platform that may further develop a balanced caseload and students getting the most out of their experience (Mandernach, Hudson & Wise, 2013). Previous research has examined time spent on teaching tasks, (Ariel & Dunlosky, 2013; Bentley & Kyvik, 2013; Boone, Belschak, Den Hartog & Pijnenburg, 2014; Liddle, Westergren & Duke, 1997; Froger, Sacher, Gaudouen, Isingrini & Taconnat, 2011; Northcraft, Schmidt & Ashford, 2011; Phillips, Gormley, & Lowenstein, 2009; Rapp, Bachrach & Rapp, 2013; Sagendorf, 2008; Stark, Lowther & Austin, 1985; Spear-Swerling & Zibulsky, 2014; Yashar & Lamy, 2013) and the specific tasks measured in the present study were derived from the Work Task Motivational Scale for Teachers (Fernet, Senécal, Guay, Marsh & Dowson, 2008).

The amount of time that university level social science faculty spend on tasks as illustrated in the Work Task Motivational Scale for Teachers has not yet been examined, nor the relationship between time allocation to various teaching tasks and measures of motivation related to those tasks, although research has shown direct relationships between motivation and time spent on given tasks (MacDonald & Christiansen, 2002; Sheridan, 2006; Van de Vord & Pogue, 2012). Although teachers generally state that they are optimistic about electronic learning platforms, they also report apprehension that such courses would require greater temporal allocation compared to onsite classrooms (MacDonald & Christiansen, 2002; Sheridan, 2006; Van de Vord

& Pogue, 2012). Van de Vord and Pogue (2012) have concluded that the electronic platform of education does cause faculty to allocate more time to tasks both in the course room as well as outside of it. Sword (2012) explains teachers have reported difficulty in adjusting to the electronic platform in terms of the quantity of correspondence and interaction with students in the electronic course room compared to the onsite platform.

More specifically, the gap in the literature examining motivation among university faculty includes examination of different measures of motivation, motivation toward specific work tasks, time allocated to different work tasks, and whether these elements vary within online and onsite academic settings. With electronic education consistently on the rise, the need for teachers who choose to teach online will also continue to grow and understanding faculty satisfaction with online teaching is critical in developing successful online programs (Grode-Hanks, 2016). Additionally, the proper allocation of time to certain tasks when teaching in the electronic format has become problematic, especially for professors who are more accustomed to the traditional platform, and as a result, greater training is needed for these professors to get them acclimated to the growing new format (Whalen, 2009). One study shows that faculty members tend to shy away from teaching blended courses because they need more time to master the instruction's complexity, to plan and organize, adjust to the role, and learn and adopt the new technologies (Ocak, 2011). G. Smith, Brashen, Minor, and Anthony (2015) for instance, showed that well over half of participants reported being burdened with the extra time required in the online platform. The biggest stressors included time constraints, technical issues, and large class sizes. Gonzalez (2009) states that teachers may tend to compartmentalize onsite and online learning, instead of integrating them to amplify or personalize learning. With so many potential issues with adding online and blended/hybrid classes to a course load, teachers must receive additional

training and support, including technical skills, pedagogical awareness, and time management practices, (Gonzalez, 2009; Ocak, 2011; Whalen, 2009).

Background of the Study

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), self-determination contends that individuals are not exclusively motivated by merely one type of motivation, and they are motivated for different reasons and in different levels of substance. This study used a quantitative survey design to examine five types of perceived motivation, and reported time allocation, across five teaching tasks using the Work Task Motivational Scale for Teachers and examined these measures amongst online and onsite university level social science faculty.

Self-determination theory has been utilized as the basis for previous studies regarding motivation (Ullrich-French, Cox & Bumpus, 2013; De Naeghel, Van Keer, Vansteenkiste & Rosseel, 2012; Trépanier, Fernet, & Austin, 2012) and will be the theoretical foundation for the present study. It has also been used as the basis of theory in time allocation to various work tasks (Boone et al., 2014; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Schriber & Gutek, 1987). Additionally, it has been used as the theoretical basis in research among teaching faculty (Assor & Kaplan, 2001; Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002; Cerasoli, Nicklin & Ford, 2014; Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Reeve, 2002; Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999; Reeve, Nix, & Hamm, 2003; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007; Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997). Finally, SDT was a basis for comprehending motivation among teachers across various work settings (Abdallah, 2008; Adams & Corbett, 2010; Allen & Seaman, 2009; Van Schaik, Barker & Beckstrand, 2003; Ko & Rossen, 2001; Lim, Kim, Chen, & Ryder, 2008; Maffett, 2007; Petrides & Nodine, 2005; Powell & Keen, 2006; Schoech & Helton, 2003; Van Schaik, Barker, & Beckstrand, 2003; Woodley, 2004; Zhao, Lei, Yan, Tan, & Lai, 2005; and

other work populations (Cheng, Tang & Cheng, 2012; Kidney, Cummings & Boehm, 2007; Sun, Tsai, Finger, Chen, & Yeh, 2008; Linardopoulos, 2010) and how motivation may be related to the quality of work product (Kraft, 2013). In Kraft's study, it was found that faculty's answers greatly differed depending on their personality, environment, and their perceptions of their environment. Her analysis systematically examined the influence of individual, school, and system characteristics on teachers' motivation, performance, and retention on a new teacher evaluation system.

According to Trépanier et al. (2012), various motivational constructs influence perceptions of job requirements and expectations of psychological distress. Fernet et.al. (2010) found that the more opportunities for success a teacher has been given by their school can be a predictor of different types of motivation as related to teacher performance. Fernet, Gagne´, and Austin, (2010) also concluded that if motivation fluctuates over the course of a year, it will have a direct correlation with resiliency and dedication. Fernet (2013) states, "motivation can be influenced by both negative and positive aspects of the work environment" (p.73), indicating that motivation and work are correlated. However, Fernet (2013) illustrates the need for further temporal investigation regarding work motivation by stating that "further studies are needed to better delineate the multiple roles of motivation from a temporal perspective" (p. 73), owing to the need for the present study. The exact mechanisms that department heads at a university use to influence their staff and teachers' motivation remains uncertain (Gagne´& Deci, 2005).

Although there have been many studies examining various aspects of motivation in teachers and/or students over the years (De Cooman et al., 2007; Faye & Sharpe, 2008; Lubin & Ge, 2012; Ofoegbu, 2004; Scott et al., 1999), there appears to be a gap in the literature focusing on university level social science faculty. Also, although there are several studies in the scientific

literature examining teachers' motivation, and time allocated to various tasks, in online education formats (Runyon, 2008; Schopieray, 2006; Wolf, 2012), there appears to be a lack of scientific literature examining these measures among teaching faculty who work in online and onsite environments, at the university level, and specific to social science programs. This can be credent to future studies examining turnover in either or both formats among social science faculty.

According to Alias, Noor, and Hassan (2014) and Swider and Zimmerman (2010), recidivism, attrition, and a revolving door of staff and employees, has become a problem for institutions and entities. Precursors such as one's perceptual awareness and worldview have a causational effect on one's feelings of contentment in their work (Hom, 2012). Since teachers' drop-out rates are globally high, school leaders are worried that high quality instructors are in short supply who can perform all necessary tasks that are required of them with efficiency (Cross & Hong, 2012).

Further, there has been research examining allocation of time to tasks, allocation of time to various teaching tasks and/or allocation of time related to teaching in general, (Ariel & Dunlosky, 2013; Bentley & Kyvik, 2013; Boone et al., 2014; Froger et al., 2011; Liddle et al., 1997; Northcraft et al., 2011; Phillips et al., 2009; Rapp et al., 2013; Sagendorf, 2008; Stark et al., 1985; Spear-Swerling & Zibulsky, 2014; Yashar & Lamy, 2013). For instance, according to Allen and Seaman (2013) and Parker (2010), teaching online was viewed by most teachers as more time consuming than onsite teaching. However, they didn't find out why this is the case. Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2014) work found that a variety of variables contribute to instructors dropping out of teaching. Some of these variables included not feeling encouraged by their superiors, lack of comradery with co-workers, and perceived time constraints. Olson (2010)

found that those in authoritative positions in organizations are very aware of the importance of having motivated employees.

The gap in the literature examining motivation among university level social science faculty was addressed by examining different measures of motivation toward specific teaching tasks, time allocated to the teaching tasks, and the relationship between motivation and reported time allocated to teaching tasks in online and onsite academic settings. The findings of the present study might be applicable to individuals within the university system in terms of helping to inform construction of a foundation for the implementation of a solid infrastructural online entity (Portugal, 2013). To maximize educational quality and effectiveness, educational administrators could ameliorate their ability to facilitate staffing needs by developing an approach that considers the motivational characteristics of adjunct faculty who choose to teach online (Tipple, 2010). Findings suggest that most sociology faculty do not engage in their profession because of rewards outside of themselves, but, instead, perceive their motivation more as a calling based on values within themselves (Brown, et al., 2016). In addition to extensive technology as one of the major components of the online classroom, many universities that offer online courses require an in-depth weekly instructor feedback system (Wolf, 2012). In contrast, the onsite classroom instructor may be required to provide feedback on only a monthly basis or when grades are distributed (Donovan, Mader, & Shinsky, 2006). The online constant communication sets the tone, the persona, and collegiality in lieu of seeing the student in the traditional classroom (Donovan et al., 2006). Related strategies include the expertise, flexibility, and passion for sharing real-world perspectives that college faculty may view as motivation factors (Tipple, 2010). Beyond motivation as applied to instructor-student interaction, one noted challenge for university administrators is the ability to integrate adjunct online college undergraduate faculty

into the educational community, due to the physical separation between the instructor and the institution (Tipple, 2010).

Understanding the motivation of the college instructor will assist university administrators in developing, hiring, and retaining qualified individuals who are willing to work as faculty (Schroeder, 2008). Also, motivational factors may be related to whether one intends to teach beyond a short-term appointment (Tipple, 2010). The problem facing educational institutions includes many factors encompassing the need to understand what motivates an instructor to teach online courses (Schroeder, 2008). Because there is minimal theoretical or empirical research about the most effective and efficient ways to motivate online faculty, many university administrators assume that the motivating factors of traditional classroom faculty are the same as those of online faculty (Runyon, 2008; Schopieray, 2006; Schroeder, 2008; Shiffman, 2009). Providing university administrators who are involved in staffing educators with the motivational factors of online faculty may assist in a better understanding of the reasons an individual chooses to teach online (Tipple, 2010).

Previous Research Guiding the Present Study

The present study was guided by research examining various factors associated with motivation and time allocated to various tasks. For example, Ullrich-French's (2013) study involved an examination of physical activity and sports transition from high school to university level as it relates to motivation, De Naeghel et al. (2012) studied reading motivation in elementary school students, and Trépanier et al. (2012) study focused on principals of elementary and high school administrators and transitional leadership.

Furthermore, regarding research guiding the present examination of time allocated to work tasks, Boone et al. (2014) study focused on time allocation to work tasks in governmental job

settings, and motivation in government, elementary school and teaching faculty. According to Boone et al. (2014), an entity's human resource department influences staff members and how much temporal allocation employees devote to specific tasks as well as how many times they take time off work. They also found that human resource departments at agencies have both beneficial and detrimental effects on employees.

Boone et al. (2014) describes bundles as ways in which human resource management operate. One bundle is described as assisting staff with augmenting their expertise and skills. Another bundle is described as helping staff with personal problems and promoting camaraderie with other staff members and job placement in alignment with staff talents. The third bundle is described as the trajectory an entity expects employees to take in terms of organizational goals. According to Boone et al. (2014) staff members are likely to intellectually process these bundles in different ways that will likely alter their behavioral process in addition to affecting the time that staff would spent on different long and short-term tasks and how they approach these tasks.

For example, employees who were found to think that their employer was utilizing the bundle that helped foster and augment personal professional skills allocated more time to peripheral type tasks not directly related to their job, which meant that employees spent more time in long-term type tasks. Finally, it was found that different ways of looking at the bundles described by staff members was correlated to feeling negative towards their job as well as missing work. According to Boone et al. (2004), professional environments looked at in a negative light by employees because of business practices, may result in staff being unfulfilled and, thus may lead staff to miss work.

Cerasoli et al. (2014) study focused on what teachers could do to motivate students. Regarding research that guides the present study of motivation among online and onsite teaching

settings, Lim et al. (2008) study examined student's achievement, motivation and satisfaction, across online and onsite environments and Petrides and Nodine's (2005) study examined motivation of online teachers of community colleges. As related to online teaching, Allen and Seaman (2006) examined whether teachers expend additional behavioral output and allocation of time in online platforms versus what is shown in onsite platforms and contended that the temporal dimensions allocated to the online platform exceeded that of the onsite platform. However, in a follow-up study, Allen and Seaman (2013) discovered that the percentage increase of teachers who perceive online teaching taking more time and effort than onsite platforms was negligible. Since the 1950's, temporal allocation in the workplace was considered independent of other responsibilities of instructors outside of the workplace (Moen, Kelly & Lam 2013); this is no longer the case however, especially within the online learning environment. G. Smith et al. (2015) showed that over 65% of participants reported online education to be very stressful. The biggest stressors included time constraints, technical issues, and large class sizes.

Additionally, there are a vast number of motivation measures of various activities that exist in the research literature, ranging from measures rating internet use (Van Deursen & Van Dijk, 2013), video game playing (Dindar & Akbulut, 2014), sexting (Drouin & Tobin, 2014), avatar creation (Lin & Wang, 2014), tipping (Whaley, Douglas, & O'Neill, 2014), student learning (Kimmel, Gaylor, Grubbs, & Hayes, 2012), partying (LaBrie, Hummer, Kenney, Lac, & Pedersen, 2012), political talk-show viewing (Mattheiß et al., 2013), tourist motivations to taste local food (Kim & Eves, 2012), adoption (Zhang & Lee, 2011), gambling, souvenir purchase (Wilkins, 2011), infidelity (Barta & Kiene, 2005) and eating (Jackson, Cooper, Mintz, & Albino, 2003). The present study used the Work Task Motivational Scale for Teachers (WTMST) that was designed to measure teacher motivation across five different types of motivation and across

five teaching related work tasks. There are also very few measures that examine temporal dimensions of organizational culture and work tasks (Moen et al., 2013; Rajagopal & Rha, 2009; Schriber & Gutek, 1987), and no published literature utilizing these measures with university level social science faculty in tandem with the variables of measurement in the WTMST.

Boone et al. (2014) conclude that evaluators of current performance management initiatives must pay careful attention to how different design decisions influence teacher expectancy and value, and ultimately translate into motivation and behavioral change. Researchers should also consider how these reactions are influenced by organizational conditions in schools. In turn, as they implement new systems, policymakers will need to be prepared to revise initiatives as they gain additional knowledge regarding how educators respond to administrative parameters.

A goal of the study was to examine motivation performing five teaching tasks among a sample population of university level social science faculty, to illustrate the potential implications for positive social change, and to determine if further studies examining teacher motivation across settings would be warranted. The study adds to research using the WTMST by correlating measures of temporal allocation to various tasks with measures of motivation. If we know what motivates social science instructors to engage in specific teaching tasks and why, as well as what amount of time they dedicate to these tasks, it will give us information on how to improve university or departmental policy in how to better educate students. As educators, we also need to understand how and why to motivate our faculty if we are seeing poor performance. Regarding social change, the research examining time allocation and motivation as related to work product suggests the findings of the present study may help to inform researchers, university level academic administrators, and teachers, as to possible methods to facilitate quality

teaching via developing a better understanding of teacher motivation, and time spent, in performance of various work tasks.

Statement of the Problem

Bart (2014) reported the number of faculty teaching online had increased by 75%. Research has indicated that several factors can impact teacher performance such as motivation (Bekele, 2010) and work time requirements (Bentley & Kyvik, 2013), but examination of such factors with online faculty is lacking. A determination of the correlations, or lack thereof, between factors related to how instructors find purpose and meaning in teaching and the quality of that teaching is lacking (Perlman, 2013). Two factors examined in the present study were motivation and time allocation across five teaching tasks. Regarding motivation, research has shown both intrinsic rewards and external rewards and must be examined in relation to college job satisfaction (Taris & Schreurs, 2009; Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Furthermore, according to Boezeman and Ellemers (2009) who described job satisfaction relative to autonomy, for job satisfaction to result from autonomy, it is important that autonomy is experienced while performing the job activities or actual duties of the job (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2009). Frustration and dissatisfaction result from the perception of little control over one's work situation (Zurmehly, 2008). With respect to motivation at the college level, Levin, Kater, and Wagoner (2006) discusses how the shifting focus in higher education, which he labels new managerialism, will likely erode faculty autonomy due to “the demands of government for greater productivity and efficiency" (p. 26-27).

Such changes in emphasis in higher education would likely be reflected in changes in allocation of time across various tasks. According to Skolits and Graybeal (2007), institutions expect faculty and staff to utilize data to make decisions regarding program and learning

outcomes and planning. However, faculty and staff cited "two frequently encountered barriers: the lack of time and lack of resources" (Skolits & Graybeal, 2007, p. 318). These researchers suggested that more institutional support in data collection would address the major barrier, that of lack of time (Lyons, 2012).

Studies specific to teacher motivation do exist (Khushwinder, 2013; Gultekin & Acar, 2014; Remijan, 2014; Eyal & Roth, 2011), however, an examination of motivation among college/university faculty comparing online and onsite settings, presents an area of research that has not yet been conducted. There has also been research examining allocation of time to various teaching tasks, (Ariel & Dunlosky, 2013; Bentley & Kyvik, 2013; Boone et al., 2014; Froger et al., 2011; Liddle., et al 1997; Northcraft et al., 2011; Phillips et al., 2009; Rapp et al., 2013; Sagendorf, 2008; Stark et al., 1985; Westergren, et al., 2014; Yashar & Lamy, 2013), however, it seems a lack of research is present looking at how much time is given to various teaching tasks, and as related to measures of motivation corresponding to those tasks. For instance, Bentley and Kyvik (2013) found that the older a participant was, the less amount of time they allocated to work, but interestingly, the eldest of respondents reported the most time spent on task. In addition, they found that gender was shown to be a poor predictor of temporal allocation to time doing research in faculty who taught full-time. More specifically, the gap in the literature examining motivation among university faculty in the present study includes examination of different measures of motivation, motivation toward specific work tasks, time allocated to different work tasks, and whether these elements vary within online and onsite academic settings.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to examine five types of perceived motivation across five teaching tasks using the WTMST, and reported time allocation for each of the teaching tasks, and to examine if there are statistically significant differences in these measures among faculty who teach at online and onsite college/university settings. Just as is the case for students' motivation to learn, teachers have different motivations for teaching in either platform and have elements of what motivates them about it and others of what discourages them about it (Fernet, Gagné & Austin, 2010). Thus, it seems logical to examine factors such as teacher motivation and allocation of time to various tasks. The present study also examined the correlation between reported level of motivation and reported time allocated across five teaching tasks among social sciences faculty. Information regarding teacher motivation for various teaching tasks, time spent on tasks, and the relationship between the two measures may be informative for various professionals in each educational setting, such as teaching faculty, university administrators, course/program designers, employee assistance programs, and so on, to better address the needs of college level faculty and the needs of students, toward developing an increasingly improved academic product.

The present study sought to expand self-determination theory. Self-determination theory was utilized as the basis for previous studies regarding motivation (De Naeghel et al., 2012), time allocation to various work task (Boone et al., 2014; Meyer et al., 2004; Schriber & Gutek, 1987) and in teaching faculty (Assor & Kaplan, 2001; Assor et al., 2002; Cerasoli et al 2014.; Deci et al., 1981; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Reeve, 2002; Reeve et al., 1999; Reeve et al., 2003; Roth et.al, 2007; Trépanier et al., 2012; Ullrich-French, 2013; Vallerand, Fortier & Guay,1997).

The measures of motivation addressed in the WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008) have been examined via self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT is essentially composed of two different poles of existence; those who are motivated from within, and those who are motivated externally (Parker et al., 2010). This theory posits that motivation is not a singular concept, but rather encompasses many facets of an individual's make up (Ryan & Deci, 2007). SDT also states that motivation cannot be universally defined, but rather is unique to each individual (Ryan & Deci, 2002, 2007). Additionally, the theory contends that based on the internal and external factors of a person's psychology, the internally driven individual has met the need to function on his or her own in childhood or adolescence (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1987, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2002). According to Fernet (2013), self-determination illustrates an essential difference regarding what motivation is, and what it encompasses. The distinction is made by Fernet (2013) suggesting that "people may invest themselves in an activity not only to varied degrees, they also do so for various reasons" (p. 72), is an important distinction. According to Deci and Ryan (2000) self-determination theory may be used to describe how one is moved to perform in different settings largely depends on the social environment that one finds themselves. Thus, it is concluded that one's environment will determine one's work output; both in terms of quality and quantity (Fernet, Gagné, & Austin, 2010).

According to Fernet (2013), staff members who are motivated by internal processes and perceptions are more apt to possess defense to dropping out, because they are less dependent on certain social contingencies. Incidents where teachers experience burn out and resign from the academe after a couple of years in teaching are very common (Estrella, 2013). School leaders and administrators ought to devise a scheme that will guide teachers through challenges of the teaching profession and, ultimately, boost their productivity and morale (Estrella, 2013).

It is important to note what specific tasks are undertaken by social science faculty when referring to teaching tasks in terms of operational definitions. According to Fernet et al. (2008), the WTMST provides teachers specific examples of activities for six work tasks. One work task, classroom management, refers to addressing disciplinary issues in onsite classrooms more common among elementary, middle school, and high school settings, and was not examined in the present study. In the present study, social sciences faculty were presented with the following modifications to examples of three of the teaching tasks. To more directly adhere the WTMST to the population being studied, in the evaluation of students' task, the example "giving remarks to the parents" was changed to "giving remarks to the students," class monitoring was removed as one of the work tasks (originally geared towards elementary school teachers), and the text "parents and principals" was changed to "students and administrators" to study disciplinary cases in the administrative tasks portion of the survey. Finally, extra class monitoring was removed from complementary tasks.

Fernet et al. (2005), states that based on the use of the WTMST, the findings show the motivational factors that a person possesses is directly linked with before and after type of effects on one's behavior and one's behavior related to particular tasks. He also found that self-determination theory can explain specific styles and types of motivation in some individuals and not in others, although he did not conclude why this is the case.

Expounding on this construct, Fernet (2013), suggests that "work motivation has also been shown to play a moderating role in situations where the work organization imposes constraints on employees" (p. 73), further expanding how motivation is related to social contingencies. The findings in the former studies of Runyon (2008), Schopieray (2006), Schroeder (2008) and Shiffman (2009) resulted in identifying multiple motivating and inhibiting factors from the

perspective of the online professor. The interconnectedness of various functions of the teaching profession must be reevaluated in the current occupational landscape, do to changing tides in technology and expectations of institutional and departmental approaches to education; most importantly, in terms of reducing or avoiding counterproductive behaviors (Jenkins, 2004). There are various factors surrounding the work environment which contribute to faculty being less involved in their work or becoming disillusioned with their career, including institutional, procedural, and administrative factors, lack of support from superiors or coworkers, quantity of work, and lack of challenging or interesting work (Mearns & Cain, 2003). Moriarty, Edmonds, Blatchford, and Martin (2001), showed faculty being discouraged or disillusioned with administrative or procedural constructs that are contrary to their own personal ideology and ethical stance of what is sound practice or important to them.

Significance of the Study

Since the five motivational factors as described in the WTMST, and corresponding five teaching tasks have never been directly studied in conjunction with university level social science teaching faculty, the present study may expand on the findings thus far of the developers of the WTMST using non-college level faculty. Fernet et al. (2008) concludes that there are three main implications in the application of the WTMST. First, Fernet et al. (2008) explained that the investigation of internal incentive across various work obligations offers researchers the opportunity to open new doors to comprehending what drives faculty to perform at their best. Additionally, Fernet et al. (2008) concludes that additional investigation would be warranted in comprehending interaction amongst things that need to be done and internal incentive, as well as concluding in what way the variations in what inspires staff in performing various deeds relates to perceptions of their work. The second implication in Fernet's findings suggests further studies

would be needed examining elements such as sex, years in practice to name a few, and how measures of such factors correlate with the five measures of motivation across the five teaching tasks in the present study. Finally, another implication found by Fernet et al. (2008) in the construction of the WTMST is that usually, investigators define instructor inspiration within the macrocosm. Fernet et al. (2008) found inspiration at one's job does not illustrate variation in what inspires staff to engage in particular assignments; hence, a need of the present study to evaluate various work tasks specific to each type of motivation in university level social science faculty. Given the number and type of correlations between motivation in one's profession as well as the results illustrated by (Blais, Brie`re, Lachance, Riddle & Vallerand, 1993; Fernet et al., 2004, Richer, Blanchard & Vallerand, 2002), the WTMST was deemed useful to examine motivation among university level social science faculty.

Cerasoli et al. (2014) have suggested that assistance would best be implemented by creating new methods in augmenting instructors' inspiration in tandem with what the functional and utilitarian duties of their job are. Thus, Fernet et al. (2010), states "the WTMST would allow the possibility to target interventions based on the performance of specific teaching tasks" (p. 277). Hence, researchers and practitioners that are concerned with the relationship between aspects of motivation and work productivity ought to reexamine multiple possibilities related to instructors' internal process which would be most applicable in answering investigators questions in this regard (Froger et al., 2011). Expanding on this construct, the assessment used in this study may be of great assistance in human resource management in which evaluators, and relevant stakeholders such as school administrators, may want to investigate the longitudinal effects that may, or may not arise due to new educational requirements or stipulations being put into place by administrators (Taris & Schreurs, 2009).

Fernet (2013) concludes that additional investigation is warranted in order to determine how various styles and types of motivational factors are related within a framework of time. Temporal perceptions (perceptions of time allocated to tasks) have not been adequately studied in the context of a work environment; and more specifically with teachers at the university level; thus, the inclusion of reported time allocation across the five teaching tasks as a variable in the present study. Furthermore, the present study can add practical applications to other previous studies investigating autonomy and perceived autonomy with relation to motivation and self-determination theory (SDT). That is, perceived autonomy has been associated with motivation (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014), and those who have an internal locus of control are reflective of higher psychological independence, relative to those with an external locus of control (Guay, Senécal, Gauthier & Fernet, 2003). Although degree of perceived autonomy was not measured in the present study, obtained variability across teaching tasks in required time allocated to those tasks and across online and onsite settings, and correlations between time allocated to teaching tasks and motivation, may reflect factors such as perceived autonomy. When environmental factors allow individuals to perceive control of their own destiny and perceive that they can make their own decisions in the workplace, staff was found to show energy, resiliency and quality of output in the work product (Deci & Ryan,2000).

Fernet (2013) discovered that deleterious interactions amongst fellow staff members has a high correlation to apathy in the work setting, however, this only applied to staff with already existing below average internal drive. As a result, it was shown that staff members who had a perceptual internal locus of control, had a reduced occurrence of feeling apathetic about their work. Similarly, the present study offers additional information to the scientific literature with regards to the five forms of motivation outlined in the WTMST. In practical terms, the present

study may provide additional insights regarding strategies to potentially reduce the prevalence of turnover among teaching faculty. Retaining staff has been shown to be a highly contentious and imperative element concerning human resource operations (Armstrong, Fischetti, Romano, Vogel & Zoppi, 1992). Subsequently, experts in industrial organizational spheres, from a macro-perspective, reported allocating much consideration and study to staff recidivism (Bryant & Allen, 2013; Hom et al., 2012; Yücel, 2012). Bryant and Allen (2013) state that outcomes of high turnover, such as bearing the fiscal weight of yearly losses, being undercut by competitors (Killumets, D'Innocenzo, Maynard, & Mathieu, 2015), competent staff moving over to other organizations that are offering more (Becker, Cropanzano & Sanfey, 2011), and lack of attention to detail for consumers (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013), indicate recidivism has deleterious impacts to business entities (Heavey, Holwerda & Hausknecht, 2013). To summarize, implication for positive social change of the proposed study is twofold. The obtained data determined whether further studies examining teacher motivation across settings would be warranted, and may inform researchers, academic administrators, and teachers, in their efforts to augment or alter current institutional curricula, such as breadth of tasks and time allocated to various tasks, to facilitate teacher motivation and related performance.

Research Questions

Research Question 1, Sub question, and Hypotheses

Is there a difference in overall reported level of motivation, reported level of different types of motivation, and reported level of motivation for specific teaching tasks, among on-line and onsite social sciences faculty?

Sub question 1

Is there a difference in reported level of motivation between on-line and onsite social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation between online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): Reported level of motivation is predicted to be greater for online social sciences faculty than for onsite social sciences faculty.

Additional Exploratory Sub questions and Hypotheses

Sub question 2

Is there a difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of motivation among online and onsite social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 2 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on type of motivation, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of motivation, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Sub question 3

Is there a difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task among online and onsite social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 3 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task, among online and face-to face social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Sub question 4

Does the degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of teaching task?

Null Hypothesis 4 (Ho): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of teaching task.

Alternative Hypothesis 4 (H1): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task.

Sub question 5

Does the degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of motivation?

Null Hypothesis 5 (Ho): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of motivation.

Alternative Hypothesis 5 (H1): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of motivation.

Sub question 6

Does the degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of teaching task, vary depending on the type of motivation?

Null Hypothesis 6 (Ho): The degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task, does not vary depending on the type of motivation.

Alternative Hypothesis 6 (H1): The degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task, varies depending on the type of motivation.

Research Question 2, Sub question, and Hypotheses

Is there a difference in overall reported time allocated to teaching tasks, and reported time allocated to specific teaching tasks, among on-line and onsite social sciences faculty?

Sub question 1

Is there a difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on-line and onsite social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on-line and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): Reported time allocated to teaching tasks is predicted to be greater for online than onsite social sciences faculty.

Additional Exploratory Sub questions and Hypotheses

Sub question 2

Is there a difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 2 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty.

Sub question 3

Does the degree of difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of teaching task?

Null Hypothesis 3 (Ho): The difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of teaching task.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H1): The difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task.

Research Question 3, Sub question, and Hypotheses

What is the correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): There is a significant positive correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty.

Definition of Terms

Administrative tasks: Fernet et al. (2008), defines administrative tasks as "recording and transmitting absences, building disciplinary files, and participating in meetings with the parents and principals to study disciplinary cases, meetings with teachers, meetings with the administration" (p. 259).

Amotivation: Fernet et al. (2008), defines amotivation as "being neither intrinsically nor extrinsically motivated" and "individuals are amotivated when they have no intention of engaging in a particular behavior and do not really know why they are doing it" (p. 258).

Class preparation: Fernet et al. (2008), defines class preparation as "deciding instruction topics and material, determining the presentation forms and sequences, and establishing the work procedure" (p. 259).

Complementary tasks: Fernet et al. (2008), defines complementary tasks as "tutorial guidance, involvement in committees, extracurricular activities and continuous improvement training" (p. 259).

Evaluation of students: Fernet et al. (2008), defines evaluation of students as "constructing assessments and exams, correcting, entering marks and giving remarks to the parents" (p. 259).

External regulation: Fernet et al. (2008), define external regulation as being behaviors that "are regulated to obtain a reward or to avoid a constraint" (p. 258).

Identified regulation: Fernet et al. (2008) define identified regulation as 'behavior that individuals choose to perform because it is congruent with their own values and goals" (p. 258).

Integrated regulation: Deci and Ryan (2000), define that integration "occurs when identified regulations are fully assimilated to the self, which means they have been evaluated and brought into congruence with one's other values and needs" (p. 62).

Intrinsic motivation: Deci and Ryan (2000) define intrinsic motivation as "doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable and the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn" (p. 55).

Introjected regulation: Deci and Ryan (2000) define introjected regulation as "regulation in which behaviors are performed to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego enhancement such as pride" (p. 62).

Online teaching: Poe and Stassen (2002) define online teaching as follows: "Online teaching and learning is faculty-delivered instruction via the Internet. Online instruction includes real-time (synchronous) and anytime, anywhere (asynchronous) interactions" (p. 5).

Onsite Teaching: On-site: At a particular place, especially of business (Merriam-Webster, 2017). *Teaching*: The act or business of instructing; also, that which is taught; instruction (Webster Dictionary, 2017).

Not only has there historically been various definitions of motivation (Thill, 1993; Freud, 1923; Skinner, 1953; Vallerand, 2012; Deci, 1980; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Vallerand, 1997; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), there have also been different operational definitions of various types of motivation (Fernet et.al., 2008; Guay et al., 2003) that correspond with various areas of focus (e.g., instinctual drives; (Freud, 1923), and environmental constructs (Skinner, 1953). It is important to note that the operational definitions that have been proposed throughout the literature, and the corresponding constructs of the five types of motivation that were examined in the present study using the WTMST, were illustrated in the instruments section to further corroborate the importance of these types of motivation.

Research Design

The study utilized a quantitative survey approach to conduct inferential comparisons of five types of perceived motivation and reported time allocation across five teaching tasks among online and onsite college/university level social science faculty. There are studies that are aimed at collecting information, then subsequently allocating that information in such a way that

describes the data (Glass & Hopkins, 1984). Thus, these descriptive type studies are geared towards accurately determining and reflecting the data findings, and so, objective observation and/or close-ended questions are often used to gather the information (Borg & Gall, 1989).

The study examined if there are statistically significant differences among online and onsite college/university level social science faculty in reported levels of motivation corresponding to five teaching tasks set forth in the WTMST, as well as time allocated to each of the teaching tasks as part of a separate demographic survey. The study also examined the correlation between reported level of motivation and reported time allocated across five teaching tasks among social sciences faculty. A purposive sampling design was used to select participants from various colleges/universities throughout the United States. Participants were recruited from populations of members of colleges/universities nationwide upon obtaining Capella University Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval. Upon obtaining approval to proceed from Capella's IRB, the IRB approved recruitment letter was sent, and those who replied to the recruitment letter were sent a consent form, including a confidentiality agreement. Participation in the study was solely voluntary, as stated in the consent form.

A copy of the WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008) was completed by each participant using Survey Monkey. The scale yielded measures of five types of motivation for each of five teaching tasks. Teachers also reported the weekly time allocated to each of the five teaching tasks from a survey conducted through Survey Monkey.

Assumptions and Limitations

It is assumed that the sampling methodology provided a representative sample of social sciences faculty across disciplines. It is assumed that participants in the study produced genuine, unbiased, responses without any malingering present. It is assumed that no anticipated researcher

biases occurred. A limitation of the study may be that there was a disproportionate number of onsite faculty in comparison to online instructors. Additionally, limitations related to this are that there was no random assignment to groups (on-line versus onsite), thus, possible differences in participants who teach on-line versus onsite were not controlled for: type of site (two-year versus four-year colleges/universities, relative degree of experience in online versus onsite courses were also not controlled for. Differences in requirements under the five teaching tasks examined (e.g., primarily onsite institutions, primarily online institutions) were also not accounted for. Some participants who teach online and onsite were instructed to select one venue and respond accordingly, and why they may select one venue over another (e.g., may be preferred approach) was not examined as well. Lack of more in depth qualitative feedback that may have benefited the study (mixed methodology) was not employed in this study.

Expected Findings

Reported level of motivation was predicted to be greater for online than onsite social sciences faculty. One of the major points of resistance for faculty is the increased time-demands associated with distance education delivery and preparation (Akroyd & Fleetwood, 2004). Further exploratory tests for significant differences in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of motivation, and depending on the type of teaching task, among online and onsite social sciences faculty were conducted. In addition, the following statistical interactions were examined: Does the degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of teaching task. Does the degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of motivation and does the degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of

teaching task, also varies depending on the type of motivation. The tests of interaction effects were also exploratory analyses of hypotheses as examination of motivational factors to both teach and be taught in online platforms are relatively scarce (Artino, 2008; Bekele, 2010) and even more limited with respect to social science faculty.

Reported time allocated to teaching tasks was predicted to be greater for online than onsite social sciences faculty. Tests for significant differences in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty were conducted. The corresponding hypothesis stated above are exploratory and thus have not been previously investigated. It was predicted there will be a significant positive correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty. Luce and Raiffa (1990) contend that time is an essential element to include in studying motivation. For example, temporal motivation theory suggests that people always prioritize activities which promise highest utility. In other words, people tend to procrastinate (i.e., spend less time) when they think the utility of engaging in a task is low (Siaputra, 2010).

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

Chapter 1 consisted of a review of the problem, background, and purpose, as related to the present study. This review included a problem statement, and subsequent rational behind the present study's purpose and implications, the research questions, and corresponding hypotheses. In addition, the rationale for conducting the present study, research questions, significance of the study, and the expected findings were reviewed. In Chapter 2, a more detailed review of the research literature, as related to the present study, is provided. The chapter begins with a review of the information provided, methods of conducting the literature search, the theoretical orientation of the study, motivational factors, time allocated to teaching tasks, motivation and

teaching, teacher's interpersonal style, motivation in online and onsite settings, perceptions of online learning among other academic professionals, synthesis of the findings and a critique of the previous research. In Chapter 3, a description of the methodology of the study, power analysis, and participant recruitment, data collection instruments, and data collection procedures is reviewed.

Chapter 4 begins with a review of the demographic information and is followed by an illustration of the descriptive statistics of the measures of motivation and estimated time allocated to teaching tasks. Inferential statistical analysis of these measures corresponding with each of the directionally predicted, and exploratory, hypotheses are reviewed. Further, Chapter 5 provides the conclusions and interpretations of the Chapter 4 results as well as relating the results with previous literature and how the present study expands the body of research on the subject(s) of temporal dimensions of teachers, motivation, types of motivation and specific teaching tasks. Finally, the relationship of the findings is related to how it applies self-determination theory and what these findings suggest in relation to this theory.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter, a review of pertinent literature from previous studies in the realm of motivation as it relates to teaching, teaching tasks, theoretical foundations of motivation, operational definitions of motivation and of different types of motivation, is presented. There is also a discussion of research and theories related to time allocation to tasks/activities, and possible relationships between motivation and time allocation. The apparent gaps in the scientific literature examining motivation and time allocation among teaching faculty, relative to different types of motivation toward various teaching tasks, and relative to the teaching setting (on-line and onsite) are discussed, indicating the timeliness of the present study obtaining these measures and examining them.

Methods of Searching

Many avenues were taken in terms of finding previously existing research, primarily through EBSCOhost, PsycINFO, Dissertations @ Capella, Dissertations and Theses Global, ProQuest Central, PsycARTICLES, PsycBOOKS, PsycTESTS, Psychology Database, ERIC, PubMed, Scopus, and Dissertation Abstracts International. Finally, related published material was searched through Google Scholar and *self-determination theory, intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation, amotivation, class preparation, teaching, evaluation of students, administrative tasks, complementary tasks, Work Task Motivational Scale for Teachers, temporal motivation theory* and phrases such as *"stress and motivation," "stress and teaching," "online and onsite education"* and *"faculty motivation"* were searched in these databases and on Google Scholar. Other parameters in the search included dates from 2010-2017, pertinent authors, relevance to the topic, abstracts, age groups, publisher, methodology,

populations and intended audience. Various searches yielded anywhere from 3,000 to 7,500 results pertaining to the subject matter.

Theoretical Orientation for the Study

Self-determination theory has been utilized as the basis for previous studies regarding motivation, (Ullrich-French, 2013; De Naeghel et al., 2012; Trépanier et al., 2012;). Ullrich-French (2013) examined whether identified changes in motivational regulations would be predictors of change for students during the transition to middle school. During this transition, middle school students demonstrated normative decreases in how well they thought they were able to perform tasks as well as decreases in intrinsic motivation and identified regulation. Increases in external regulation were also found. De Naeghel et al. (2012) examined the interconnectedness among reading motivation, reading self-concept, reading behavior, and reading performance. Recreational and academic reading motivation were found to be comprised of two motivational factors; autonomous and controlled motivation. The findings also concluded that the more an individual reads for fun, the more productive they would be in work settings. Trépanier et al. (2012) examined individual views of good or bad work relationships, as predictors of how one would view aspects of leadership change among participants with self-discipline and internal drive as a conduit. In their study with nurses, Trépanier, Fernet, and Austin (2012) concluded that being subjected to an adverse work environment is causing notable problems in the population in which they studied, leaving nurses in Canada with deleterious psychological health effects.

The present study expanded on the previous research on motivation by examining the five motivation types of the WTMST among on-line and onsite college/university level social sciences faculty. In employing a quantitative survey design to examine five types of perceived

motivation and reported time allocation across five teaching tasks, within group comparisons of motivation and time allocation between teaching tasks may be conducted. Owing to the proposed examination of the time allocated to teaching tasks, and the relationship between measures of types of motivation and reported time allocated to teaching tasks, an examination of research studying time allocation to teaching tasks is warranted and is discussed after further review of motivational factors.

Motivational Factors

Saeed and Muneer (2012) found that primary stage teachers possess a moderately high level of work motivation and that sex was also a factor in what drives teachers to perform as indicated by reported motivation levels that were higher for female than male teachers. Results also showed that those with more advanced levels of education, were more highly motivated than those who were not as advanced. Additionally, another aspect of motivation is continuing motivation, which is where an individual will reconvene on an assignment or challenge, not because they are required to by external forces, but rather because they want to complete it by internal drives unique to them (Lubin & Ge, 2012). Results of the Lubin and Ge (2012) study showed that students who had a working knowledge, or elements of working knowledge for specific tasks, as well as finding those tasks to be ones that they had experienced before, were less apt to be motivated and return towards those tasks. However, those students who had never been exposed to task related knowledge before and perceiving them as new, were more motivated towards those tasks and were shown to be more likely to return to them at a later time.

Less recently, there have also been studies such as Scott et al. (1999), who found that teachers across different cultures generally derived motivation and satisfaction from factors integral to the teaching job itself such as giving back to the community, assisting younger generations, and

learning more about themselves. Faye and Sharpe (2008), who studied motivation in university students, illustrated that various forms of motivation are determined by specific types of perceptions of oneself. For example, it was found that if participants viewed themselves as self-governed, and being good at what they do, they yielded high levels of intrinsic motivation; and vice versa. It could be argued that the variability of altruism and intrinsic elements of motivation across groups could be based on cultural differences. Although motivation can be described as a general concept, there are various definitions of motivation, and operational definitions of different types of motivation, and how it can be applied to various situations and environments.

Time Allocated to Teaching Tasks

Time allocation to various work tasks has also been examined in previous studies using self-determination theory as a theoretical base. There are essentially two methods in which staff allocate time to tasks; core tasks and contextual tasks (Boone et al., 2014). Both tasks were given clear operational definitions. Boone et al. (2014) defined core tasks as being "stated in a job description and contextual activities not necessarily part of the job description, but nonetheless add value to the organization" (p. 21). Boone et al. (2014) also operationalized core tasks as "short-term oriented with immediate payoffs for the organization whereas contextual performance activities were operationalized as not having immediate payoffs but instead having more long-term benefits for the organization" (p. 22).

Boone et al. (2014) also described three main categories that human resource management defines employees, and that the categories are what influence employee behavior, and the time that they spend on specific work tasks. Boone et.al. (2014, p. 51) described the "people flow bundle" as "practices concerned with developing employee skills and training." Boone et al. (2014, p. 53) also described the "employee relations bundle" as "practices that support

employees such as work/life balance policies, job redesign, and facilitating team work". Lastly, Boone et al. (2014, p. 55) referred to the "appraisal and reward bundle" as "practices dealing with monitoring employees and directing their efforts towards organizational objectives".

Boone et al. (2014) studied the different ways staff look at human resource management's *modus operandi*, and in which way these methods had a result, if any, on how much time was allocated to long and short-term tasks and how this may have had a consequence on loss of work due to lack of attendance. The findings showed that staff who believed that their employers were most concerned with augmenting the competence of their employees and themselves, allocated a greater amount of time to the tasks that were not as central to their job description; inferring a supportive environment.

In addition, Boone et al. (2014) indicated a negative correlation between perceived favorability in human resource management constructs as well as career contentment and dropping out behavior resulting in certain unfavorable perceptions of human resource management bundles that were associated with being unsatisfied in their career, thus, higher rates of dropping out behavior. These findings indicate staff who believe that employers who have policies that serve no purpose of developing them, or have their best interests at heart will have a consequence of staff falling into discontent and thus, dropping out of their jobs and could be concluded as having lower levels of motivation. Boone et al. (2014) showed how different human resource management policies can foster more immediate task activities or bigger picture and abstract contextual activities. The findings of this research study indicate how human resource management policies can have different applications for different populations within an organization at various times of an organizations existence and spotlights how such policies may encourage the objectives of an organization. Another relevant point based on Boone et al.'s

(2014) research is that employers should be aware of the cost/benefit analyses that naturally go along with certain human resource management policies and practices. For instance, policies and practices that push contextual and abstract activities (activities with more long-term payoffs) were found to veer staff's attention and effort away from the responsibilities which were found to have more of a microcosmic element to them Boone et al. (2014). Thus, it seems relevant that employers should consider which elements of a job are most important and which tasks have the most long-term benefits.

To examine time spent on tasks at work, Schriber and Gutek (1987) developed the time-at-work assessment which consists of 15 time constructs in work settings. The 15 hypothesized scales included the following:

> adequacy of the allocation of time for tasks, various aspects of scheduling (including punctuality, deadlines, and the sequencing of tasks), temporal buffers in both the workday and in planning, the synchronization and coordination of work with others through time, the perceived amount of routine in the job over time, temporal boundaries (both within the workplace and between work and non-work time), the amount of autonomy over the use of time at work, the speed and pace of work, the awareness of using time as a resource, and the future orientation of the organization (p. 645).

Rochefort (2000) also showed that workload tended to increase close to a deadline with rapid decrease after a deadline for both weekly and daily deadlines, except where the deadline was missed, in which case, workload continued to keep rising. The results of their study also showed that people working with frequent deadlines needed to be more collaborative to accomplish their work, more so than those who did not work with frequent deadlines.

Regarding work motivation, in addition to examining relative amounts of reported time allocated to five teaching tasks, and comparing reported time allocated to the tasks in online and onsite settings, the relationship between time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation associated with those tasks were examined among college/university level social sciences faculty. Regarding motivation and teaching, Meyer et al. (2004) examined employee commitment and motivation in the work behavior of individuals and found that the different forms of motivation within the SDT framework fall along a continuum of increasing internalization extending from externally driven to intrinsically regulated motivation and commitment.

Motivation and Teaching

Among teaching faculty, examination into the interrelationship between internal and external factorial incentives as it relates to performance have been conducted. For example, Cerasoli et al. (2014) examined prior research focusing on the interplay of internal and external factors and driving forces behind behavioral output in relation to two specific variables: the amount of performance compared with the efficiency of performance, and what level of importance put on tasks is directly related to one's job as opposed to tasks that relate to one's job in a more roundabout way. Conclusions indicated that internally motivated factors were tantamount to behavioral output regardless of any other factorial intervention. A regression analysis using data from previous studies conducted over preceding years in tandem with the findings of Cerasoli et al. (2014) showed that, "in a crowding out fashion, intrinsic motivation was less important to performance when incentives were directly tied to performance and was more important to performance when incentives were indirectly tied to performance." Analysis of previous studies done over preceding years in tandem with the findings of Cerasoli et al. (2014) showed that

internally motivated individuals had better quality work and externally motivated individuals had greater output of work. These findings suggest, in relation to behavioral output, internally motivated individuals and externally motivated individuals do not share an antecedent and consequent relationship, but rather a dualistic one. There has also been research that investigates different methods of teaching related to different teaching styles.

For example, Hein et al. (2012) discovered that instructors who had higher levels of intrinsic and introjected motivational elements in their personality, utilized productive teaching methods more frequently than those who lacked these qualities. Thus, based Hein et al.'s (2012) work, it is worth mentioning that a teacher's own interpersonal style (discussed below) can affect how they motivate students as well as what motivates them. Additionally, it is important to examine how and why teacher's personalities and interpersonal styles can affect how students are motivated by them, and how the teachers themselves stay motivated.

Teachers' Interpersonal Style

Instructors have different ways of interacting and relating to students (Deci et al.,1981). The degree of internal locus of control, how good teachers think they are as instructors, and how self-sufficient they think they are (e.g., Dec et al., 198l), are correlated with accomplishment of goals for students (Grolnick & Ryan, 1987), and thus, it would be beneficial to possess these qualities and have an accurate sense of self in order to be successful in academic endeavors (Grolnick, 1990; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989). Reeve (2002) concluded that when students are motivated through their own volition and momentum, they see themselves as less controlled by their teachers and able to make decisions for themselves based on their own expertise.

These findings were predicated by Reeve et al. (1999) study that found teachers who were less controlling than others, displayed an interactive style of communication and relatedness with

their students rather than a dictatorial and authoritarian style, were shown to foster more autonomy and encouraged augmentation of the student's already existing strengths, knowledge and experience. Autonomy is fostered when a teacher can show a student how a task or assignment is directly related to them and their own sense of self, and to what they believe to be important in their own lives (Reeve et al., 2003). Vallerand (1997) assessed the motivational construct of individuals who dropped out of high school and it was concluded that students lacking motivation from an internal locus of control, were found to more likely engage in actual dropout behavior. The authors posited that various elements of the school structure may have an effect on students' sense of self, as well as seeing themselves as self-sufficient, or dependent on others.

Thus, it is worth investigating these same constructs from the perspective of the teachers themselves, toward developing a greater understanding of work motivation. Additionally, it can be worth examining if any parallels exist between the teachers and their student counterparts in terms of what motivates them and what does not. This research ties in with the purpose of the present study in that, at the college and university level, these constructs have yet to be investigated, resulting in the gap in the literature.

Motivation in Online and Onsite Academic Settings

We live in an age where technology is moving faster every day. As a result, the methods of how education is delivered to students continues to be in flux and, more specifically, online education continues to develop in relation to its traditional counterpart. The tendency of some teachers may be that, as a result of limited knowledge or familiarity with online education, they do not implement these initiatives as pedagogical alternatives (Ko & Rossen, 2001).

Woodley (2004) discovered that some of the variables that contribute to attrition in the online platform, as opposed to onsite platforms, are students feeling bored, uninspired, isolated and sensing that many rules and regulations are arbitrary. Woodley (2004) listed core antecedents to student dropout rates and poor achievement (i.e., low motivation) in distance education, as compared to classroom education, such as little loyalty to a university system of traditional academic settings that online students feel has failed them, or due to valuing individualism over conformity.

It can be hypothesized that if transposed, the antecedents described by Woodley (2004) may also apply to faculty; both in online and onsite platforms. Abdallah (2008) found that even though students were on the passive side of teaching, they were just as active as the actual teachers, because effective teaching did not necessarily mean that the material was taught in a skillful way, but was considered dependent on how information was received by the student. Accordingly, these findings suggest online platforms of education can be just as applicable and relevant as onsite platforms (Russell, Bebell, O'Dwyer & O'Connor, 2003; Zhao et al., 2005). Allen et al. (2012) found staff perceive that it would take a faculty member a greater degree of time to instruct in an online format than in an onsite format. Thus, Adler (2001) concluded that some faculty still exhibit qualms about teaching in an electronic classroom and interacting with students in this platform.

White and Ploeger (2004) found that the onsite collegiate experience focuses inherently on the professor, while learning in the electronic platform leans towards the student. The ability for faculty to adhere to the fluctuating landscape in the new age of electronic learning will be essential to providing quality education to students in e-learning (McFarland & Hamilton, 2006). It is of concern faculty and staff who do not incorporate current technology in providing

academic services will fall behind and attempt to educate students with outdated methods (Allen & Seaman, 2006). Interestingly, it was found by Allen et al. (2012), that the consensus among faculty and staff is that online learning was perceived to be less favorable than onsite learning, however, it was found that faculty who had experience teaching online perceived the experience to be worthwhile. Lim et al. (2008) state "online instruction, whether completely online or blended with traditional classroom instruction, is becoming an increasingly popular tool for distance education to better meet students' needs, interests, learning styles, and work schedules" (p. 113).

Teaching online, and elements thereof, have become increasingly greater in number in university programs in North America (Dobbs, Waid, & del Camen, 2009) as well as globally (Lim et al., 2008). Regarding distance education, it is not a new construct that has only surfaced in recent years. The 1800's saw education being initiated by postal service, then later in the 1900's, radio and television began incorporating elements of teaching as well (Dobbs, et al., 2009; Seirup & Tirotta, 2011). Exponential augmentation in learners registering in online programs tripled from nearly 2 million to just over 6 million over a period of the last seven years, more than a quarter of university students have engaged in some form of electronic learning, and well over half of all collegiate entities have implemented online education as part of their strategic initiatives (Allen & Seaman, 2011).

Although there are apparent differences between online and onsite learning, there can be differences within the framework of online learning itself in terms of its institutional application or what methods of teaching are utilized within it. There are various methods in which an online course is implemented within an institution (Seirup & Tirotta, 2011). For example, some online courses occur electronically where all the students in the course telecommunicate synchronously

via video conferencing and where they can all interact with each other at the same time and communicate in real time (McFarland & Hamilton, 2006). Other methods of online education provide students with the course material they will need to have completed and covered and are expected to have it completed by a specific time, although they can work within their own temporal framework (McFarland & Hamilton, 2006). Finally, some online programs are utilized in conjunction with an onsite platform where the engagement in an actual classroom is reinforced through assignments or discussion in an online format or vice-versa. (McFarland & Hamilton, 2006).

In some cases, such as the hybrid format of teaching offered at onsite institutions, there may be some faculty that are not accustomed to, or have a biased view of, teaching in online formats but are required as part of their job description, which could certainly affect the quality of education that students would be getting (Hines, 2005). Teachers' outlook regarding online courses may reflect factors that are also associated with what motivates students to pursue their education in online, as opposed to onsite, environments.

Logistical factors of teaching online such as setting one's own schedule, working from home or anywhere off campus might be attractive incentives to students, particularly those who have families and children, students who have full time jobs and careers, students who are physically unable to take traditional courses for various reasons (e.g., a disability), and students who prefer a less traditional format (Hines, 2005). Conversely, it was found however, that some online learners illustrated that the interaction that happens in the traditional classroom settings with other students and faculty was lacking in online formats (Perreault, et al., 2008).

Adler (2001) conveyed that due to some learners interpreting online education as less challenging and being of lesser quality than onsite formats, learners may not have the necessary

skills or intestinal fortitude to persevere in this platform. Regardless of the contradictions of opinion and research findings behind the validity of online learning, it does not appear that electronic learning and other forms of technology related to online learning will be going away any time soon (Bristow, Shepherd, Humphreys, & Ziebell, 2011). There are still contradictory reports of how staff and learner contentment correlate, or have a causality with regards to, engaging in online learning, as well as how populations of teachers and students view online learning (McFarland & Hamilton, 2006; Perreault, et al., 2008). For college administrators, and other college stakeholders, faculty and student feedback and performance would be worth consideration, any time that program planning and related logistical analyses are constructed within universities to expand online programs. With online education steadily on the rise, faculty and learners' views of how they experience the online platform is an arena for research that will likely need ongoing analysis (Perreault et al., 2008).

Perceptions of Online Education Among Other Academic Professionals

Allen and Seaman (2009) showed various elements in certain classes that administrators view as better in quality and somewhat better in quality in either online or traditional academic settings. Over one-half of the academic leaders reported that onsite instruction is better in quality or somewhat better in quality when it comes to student and peer camaraderie. A fourth of respondents rated both online and onsite elements of administration relatively equally for this area. Outcomes were conversed in that administrators responded as such when inquired about students having the freedom to form their own temporal dimensions in their work. In this facet, all but 20% of participants viewed online instruction as superior as opposed to only 4% of administrators who viewed onsite instructional platforms as more favorable in this area. Administrators regularly responded that adaptability for the learner, and to a lesser extent faculty

and staff, was the primary factor when they were inquired as to the rationale behind initiating online platforms in their curricula (Allen & Seaman, 2009). As a result, the online platform indicated a greater degree of being adaptable to students' needs. All but 10% of academic administrators perceived the freedom in scheduling in the online platform as significantly greater compared to onsite platforms. Overall, only peer camaraderie in onsite platforms were reported as significantly greater than online platforms. Despite these findings, there remains a small population of educators that perceive online education as being of inferior quality compared to onsite education (Allen & Seaman, 2009).

According to Allen and Seaman (2011), leaders at various colleges determined that there was a minimal change in the attitudes of professors who were previously not reporting positive attitudes towards online learning in 2009. In looking at the outcomes of both studies that were two years apart from 2009 to 2011, it was found that the small increase in teachers being more accepting of online education only occurred at colleges that were larger in size (Allen & Seaman, 2011). To further augment the stance that online education is gaining greater acceptance, albeit in smaller degrees, Allen and Seaman (2011) also found that during a five-year longitudinal period, the rate in which faculty have reported a greater acceptance and more favorable view of online learning increased by 6%.

Prior research has placed emphasis on development and examination of theories of teaching and learning, the relationships between teaching and learning theories and various teaching practices, and application of such identified relationships in the determination of teaching roles and development of learning environments (Cheng et al., 2012). However, there appears to be a gap in the scientific literature investigating motivation across various teaching tasks among online and onsite university level social science faculty. That is, the previously mentioned

studies, although relevant and informative, leave a gap in the literature, and in the application self-determination theory, as it related to using a survey approach to examine types of perceived motivation and reported time allocation across teaching tasks among college level social sciences faculty, comparing these measures among online and onsite college level social science faculty, and correlating motivation and time allocated to teaching tasks, as conducted in the present study.

It was the present study's goal to further expand self-determination theory by examining motivation among a sample population of university level social science faculty who teach in online and traditional settings, and to illustrate the potential benefits of the present findings to academic administrators and faculty in terms of implications for positive social change. Regarding sociological transformation, the results of this study might help to inform researchers, university level academic administrators, and teachers, as to possible methods to augment or alter current institutional curricula, to facilitate teacher motivation and related performance based on this theory.

The WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008 p. 259) measures five types of motivation ("intrinsic motivation, identified, introjected, and external regulations, and amotivation") with respect to five different teaching related tasks ("class preparation," "teaching," "evaluation of students," "administrative tasks," and "complementary tasks") that have never been directly studied among university level social sciences faculty and, thus, the present study will add to previously obtained data using this measure. Fernet et.al. (2008) concludes that there are three main implications of the application of the WTMST. Fernet et al. (2008) found that additional scientific exploration is warranted to examine the intertwining of how various work tasks are related to how one is motivated to perform them, as well as how teachers can adapt to changing

circumstances. Fernet et al. (2008) suggests further examination of motivation as it may relate to categorical variables such as teacher age and gender, and degree of experience. For example, how these motivations correspond with male and female teachers across various teaching settings, such as at the elementary, high school, and, college/university levels, may inform modifications in teaching methods to help facilitate teacher and student motivation and improve teaching outcomes. Finally, a third implication found by Fernet in the construction of the WTMST is that historically, scholars have defined motivation as more of an umbrella term and did not take individual or cultural characteristics into account; hence, it is necessary to evaluate different types of motivation across various work tasks among college level social science faculty. Given the number and type of correlations between motivation in various professional capacities that were illustrated in the past (e.g., Blais et al.,1993; Fernet et al., 2008; Richer et al., 2002), the WTMST would be relatively more useful to examine motivation among university level social science faculty.

Adding to prior studies of teacher motivation using the WTMST (e.g., Mohammaddost & Nodehi, 2014), and to the anticipated outcomes of present study, it is concluded that more investigation would be warranted so that proper procedures could be put in place that would assist faculty if it was found that they were unmotivated. It would seem logical that whatever procedures would be put in place would be applicable not only to faculty's level of motivation, but also particular tasks that they may be underperforming in, or not motivated to perform. Thus, the WTMST could shed light on which procedures may be needed most based on the performance of specific teaching tasks. Further, identification of changing levels of different types of motivation for various teaching tasks, as indicated by prior research using the WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008) may benefit researchers and practitioners by further refining an

understanding of the specific relationships between motivational and teaching variables. Thus, from a practical standpoint, researchers and practitioners concerned with the relationship between the quality of one's work and motivation may want to take into consideration that there are many different types of motivation related to specific teaching tasks. Thus, from a practical standpoint, the WTMST could assist in augmenting or refining programs that have been put in place at various educational institutions and those institutions perhaps wanting to evaluate any motivational variations that might occur as a result of any new programs that would be implemented.

Additionally, investigation needs to be done to evaluate teachers' allocation to time in their work in response to, or in conjunction with different types of motivation (Fernet, 2013). This need validates the present study's proposal to obtain reports of time allocated across five teaching tasks as a variable of analysis. Furthermore, the present study can add practical applications provided by other previous studies investigating allotted/actual autonomy and perceived autonomy with relation to motivation and self-determination theory (SDT). That is, perceived autonomy has been associated with motivation (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014). In future studies, perceived autonomy could be measured using the job autonomy measure (Ishii-Kuntz, 2013). Thus, it could be argued that based on Fernet's (2013) findings, applicability could be transposed to the WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008) and it's constructs of motivation.

To summarize, relative to potential for positive implications of the present study, the obtained data may help inform researchers, academic administrators, and teachers, in their efforts to augment or alter current institutional curricula, such as time allocated to various tasks, to facilitate teacher motivation and related performance. Furthermore, since the five motivational factors of the WTMST, and corresponding five teaching tasks have never been directly studied

among college level social science teaching faculty as evidenced by the literature review, the current study served to augment previous research using the WTMST (Perlman, 2013).

Synthesis of the Research Findings

This section summarizes the main points of Chapter 2 that reviewed research examining the roles of motivation and time allocation to tasks with respect to occupational functioning such as teaching. Both the strengths and the weaknesses in self-determination theory and its relationship with previous motivation research, both in content and methods was also reviewed. Discussion of the larger themes, inconsistencies, and relevant patterns based on the research studies evaluated within the context of the theoretical framework are also presented. Vallerand and Thill's (1993) definition of motivation as a "hypothetical construct used to describe the internal and/or external forces that produce the direction, intensity, and persistence of behavior" (p. 18) is congruent with Fernet et al.'s (2010) construction of the WTMST. Freud's (1923) perspective of motivation focusing on instinctual drives and Skinner's (1953) focus on environmental constructs also apply to the present study in that the environmental platform of online or onsite has shown to be significant in tasks performed and time spent on those tasks.

Regarding the operational definitions of motivation and the role it plays in relation to occupational functioning and teaching, Vallerand's (2012) position that individuals are entities that have a response, either positive, negative, or neutral to a stimulus, was supported based on the findings of the WTMST in this study in terms of how teachers in online and onsite platforms are motivated to complete tasks. Deci's (1980), Deci and Ryan's (2000), and Vallerand's (1997), subscriptions that an individual is essentially organic matter that wishes to be a part of the greater cosmic consciousness in the hopes of being able to ingratiate fully within this consciousness was also supported via the data found in the present study based on the WTMST responses regarding

which environment participants identified with and what motivated them to complete those tasks. Additionally, from a practical standpoint, it was Boone et al.'s (2014) study that perhaps correlated most greatly with Fernet et al.'s (2010) construction of the WTMST and the constructs of core activities and contextual activities, versus "class preparation, teaching, evaluation of students, classroom management, administrative tasks, and complementary tasks" (p. 259) respectively. Practically speaking, Boone's examination of what faculty members think about human resource management practices and how this affects the time they allotted to tasks, illustrated that certain unfavorable perceptions of human resource management bundles were associated with lower job satisfaction, and ultimately higher absenteeism; thus, less time spent on those tasks. In other words, staff who feel or perceive that their organization is engaging in unscrupulous business practices or rules and regulations that have no practical validity, would lead employees to have no interest or motivation in continuing with that organization or spend less time on task, and could be concluded as corresponding with lower levels of motivation. The findings of Boone et al. (2014) seem to be in line with the criteria in Fernet's WTMST behind participants' motivation for tasks in that determining individual faculty's motivational mindset could be based on inherent personality characteristics as well as specific kinds of tasks that they perform (Fernet et al., 2010).

Additionally, instinctual drives to perform certain tasks in the WTMST may be related to a survival mechanism in the triune brain tantamount to eating when hungry or falling asleep when tired, in future studies owing to the reviewed impact of changing construct of classes in terms of less autonomy in teaching (Levin et al., 2006). If this is found to be the case through both quantitative and qualitative research in generations of teachers to come, regardless of the institutional level they find themselves, this may lead to negative consequences for the thinking

individual since creativity, innovation and thinking outside the box are important personal qualities for adapting to new circumstances; circumstances being things such as technology, sociological changes, personal circumstances and political landscape. What university level social science faculty are motivated by, what they react to, and why they react that way, can come to light in generations to come through qualitative and quantitative research that examines the three levels of brain functioning as defined and synthesized by MacLean (1985). Following this premise, Trépanier et al. (2012) work, discussed earlier, reinforces that we must feel connected to our work, feel there is meaning and purpose to it, and that there is always something to look forward to.

Universities might want to determine which tasks are essential and which are truly arbitrary and what would be beneficial to their specific organization based in part on what faculty report as motivating to them in the present study (Taris & Schreurs, 2009). Additionally, administrators, department heads, human resources, employee assistance programs etc., would benefit from knowing why this is the case from the internal perceptions of professors, to allocate reasonable tasks to instructors; ones that instructors do not find redundant, arbitrary or ineffective to teaching (Portugal, 2013). This in turn, can help prevent the frequency of burnout, turnover and disillusionment with themselves, their employer and their profession (Fernet et al., 2010).

The results of the present study are discussed in Chapter 5 relative to self-determination theory by, in part, considering external and intrinsic motivation and commitment along a continuum as described by Meyer et al. (2004). Thus, the present study's findings on motivation may assist administrators, department heads, human resource managers and employee assistance moderators to examine the tasks that may lead collegiate level social science faculty to

experience relative degrees of emotional exhaustion, impaired coping ability at work and at home, and/or relatively mild motivation to contribute to their field.

The present literature review also identified gaps in the research examining motivation and time allocated to teaching tasks that support the need for the present study, illustrated how self-determination theory may be supported and expanded in the present study, and guided the research questions and methods of data collection and analysis of the current study. The literature review also provided insight of how students (and more applicable to the present study) faculty perceive online and onsite educational platforms and how this perception may affect motivation across various work tasks, further guiding the present study. The methodology of the present study is outlined in Chapter 3. In this chapter, the research design used to address the research questions and hypotheses is provided including review of the target population, measurement instruments, and methods used for corresponding data collection and analysis. Subsequently, a review of the assumptions and limitations of the present study are provided. The chapter ends with a chapter summary and what is covered in Chapters 4 and 5.

Critique of Previous Research Methods

Most of the studies presented in the review of the literature in this chapter were quantitative, though some were qualitative, and some utilized mixed methods designs. Much of the research was supported by self-determination theory. The findings of the presented studies were often described relative to self-determination theory as an approach to understand motivational factors in various work settings (e.g., Boone et al., 2014; Trépanier et al., 2012). Similarly, the principles of self-determination theory served as a bedrock for examining elements of the different variables in the present study. In accord with self-determination theory, university leaders, administrators, department heads, employee assistance providers and human resource managers

can be trained to support identified regulation and implement burnout prevention programs to meet the motivation types and psychological needs of faculty to help decrease attrition, turnover and potential burnout.

For example, according to Deci and Ryan (1985), self-determination theory would be in line with the notion of individual ability to pursue self-actualization. The essential foundations of self-determination theory however, do not coincide with mechanistic theories or drive theories as described by Deci and Ryan (1985). Respectively, these theories state that human beings have little to no internal locus of control and that motivation subsides once needs are met. In other words, individuals are victims of circumstance and are placated only when they get what they want. Conversely, self-determination theory posits that one can be motivated regardless of circumstances and that once goals or desires are met, one finds another challenge to rally against. Perhaps the biggest possible contradiction put forth in the research of Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) is that of the undermining effect; that is, if external rewards would eventually override an individual's internal process and sense of self.

A contradiction in the literature is that, regardless if an individual finds meaning, purpose or enjoys what they are doing, they don't always have a choice to do it and it must occur anyway (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990). It could also be argued that this is an antiquated notion, or at least relative to individual personality, since one's perception of a task, even if they are not internally or externally motivated to do it, don't necessarily perceive it as drudgery. There were a disproportionate amount quantitative studies in the review of the literature and qualitative studies can expand the internal process and perceptions of social science faculty in university settings by coding the data through an axial coding system to further streamline the thematic elements presented, finding tacit dimensions, discovering first order themes, validating the raw data,

concluding the triangulation of data for trustworthiness through an external auditor and avoiding triangulation of the data.

Summary

The research described in the literature review provided the basis for the current study by examining, motivation in work settings, different types of motivation, time spent on work tasks and different teaching tasks, and relative to self-determination theory. This chapter addressed a gap in the literature, problems and issues in the field of university level social science faculty, and potential for further investigation into variables such as burnout, turnover, stress and job performance and how the variables examined in the present study may be related to these elements. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology, research design, the population and selection criteria, collection of the data and analyzing of data, instruments utilized, and ethical considerations.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The topic of the present dissertation study employed a quantitative survey design to examine five types of perceived motivation, and reported time allocation, across five teaching tasks, and compared these measures among online and onsite college/university level social science faculty. Although there have been many studies examining various aspects of motivation in teachers and/or students over the years (De Cooman et al., 2007; Faye & Sharpe, 2008; Lubin & Ge, 2012; Ofoegbu, 2004; Scott et al., 1999). There appears to be a gap in the literature focusing on collegiate level social science faculty. Also, although there are several studies in the scientific literature examining teachers' motivation, and time allocated to various tasks, in online education formats (Runyon, 2008; Schopieray, 2006; Wolf, 2012), there appears to be a lack of scientific literature examining these measures among teaching faculty who work in online and onsite academic environments, and among college/university level social sciences faculty.

Further, there has been research examining allocation of time, allocation of time to various teaching tasks and/or allocation of time related to teaching in general (Ariel & Dunlosky, 2013; Bentley & Kyvik, 2013; Boone et al., 2014; Froger et al., 2011; Liddle et al., 1997; Northcraft et al., 2011; Phillips et al., 2009; Rapp et al., 2013; Sagendorf, 2008; Stark et al., 1985; Westergren et al., 2014; Yashar & Lamy, 2013). However, examination of whether and how time spent on various teaching tasks is related to measures of motivation corresponding to those tasks is lacking. More specifically, the gap in the literature examining motivation among college/university faculty includes examination of different measures of motivation, motivation toward specific teaching tasks, time allocated to different teaching tasks, and the relationship

between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and motivation in online and onsite academic settings, also examined in the present study.

Survey Instruments

The present study utilized a descriptive quantitative survey approach to examine five types of perceived motivation, and reported time allocation, across five teaching tasks, and compared these measures among online and onsite college/university level social science faculty. The WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008) was used to measure five types of motivation "intrinsic motivation, identified, introjected, and external regulations, and amotivation" (p. 259). The measure used consisted of 75 items, 15 items (three items per type of motivation) presented for each of five teaching related tasks "class preparation," "teaching," "evaluation of students," "administrative tasks," and "complementary tasks," resulting in an overall total of 90 items (p. 259). Fernet et al. (2008) prefaced the items with the question, "Why are you engaged in the following task?" (p. 261) and response options were provided using "a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*does not correspond at all*) to 7 (*corresponds completely*)" (p. 262).

A copy of the WTMST was completed by each participant. It is important to note, due to the classroom management task being non-applicable to university level faculty in both online and onsite formats, permission to remove this task in the survey was granted by the survey's developer. The scale (Fernet et al., 2008, p. 259) yielded measures of five types of motivation ("intrinsic motivation, identified, introjected, and external regulations, and amotivation") for each of five work tasks ("class preparation," "teaching," "evaluation of students," "administrative tasks," and "complementary tasks"). Teachers also reported the weekly time allocated to each of the five teaching tasks. A quantitative survey approach allowed for an examination of each measure and examination of each measure among social sciences faculty

who work in online and onsite academic environments, and an examination of the correlation between measures.

Data Collection

Survey research is one of the most widely used research methodologies across the social and behavioral sciences, (Walden, 2002). Purposive sampling was used in the present study specifically to select participants who were faculty at a college or university. The sample included undergraduate as well as graduate level faculty to allow for a greater sample size (adjunct, full-time, part time, community colleges, and four-year colleges). There was a need to achieve a sufficient sample size for statistical power purposes and thus, participants were recruited across years of experience, adjunct, part time, full time, discipline, junior colleges, and undergraduate and graduate level instruction. These factors, although measured for demographic purposes, and to inform external validity of the present findings, may be related to motivation and/or time allocated to tasks, although these descriptive statistics were not analyzed as variables in the present study.

The survey approach included a self-constructed questionnaire that, in addition to demographic questions asked, participants were asked how much time they spend weekly on each teaching task illustrated in the WTMST. Time reports were made to the nearest hour for amount of time spent weekly in the five teaching tasks; this data was collected and cross-referenced with the level of motivation reported for each respective teaching task illustrated in the WTMST and for each respective participant; this in turn, allowed for an examination of the correlation between time allocation to each teaching task and level of motivation for each of those respective tasks.

Faculty Focus, a magazine that publishes articles on different teaching strategies for the college classroom in both onsite and online formats among college instructors found a wealth of statistics regarding the population being studied. Bart (2014) surveyed participants and found that well over half of participants regarded themselves as faculty and the biggest proportion teaching in bachelor programs in the public sector, a slightly less proportion teaching in bachelor programs in the private sector and then a slightly less proportion teaching in associate programs in the public sector. The range in terms of longitudinal tenure in collegiate education ranged from less than five years to over 20 years. Furthermore, nearly 75% of participants stated that they had begun using technological advances as part of their classroom experience in the previous year. Of this segment of the population amongst their readership, nearly 40% reported that learning the online platform or moving to an onsite to an online or blended platform was slightly burdensome and approximately 25% perceived it as moderately burdensome. In Bart's (2014) editorial it was also found that in its third consecutive year, readership reported that there was no significant change in administration of electronic learning or incorporation thereof. No data exist yet about social science faculty as a specific population related to motivation and, more specifically, no data yet in the scientific literature in relation to five different types of motivation across five different teaching tasks, time allocated to those teaching tasks, and the correlation (if any) to motivation across teaching tasks as identified in the WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008); no such analyses can be reported at this time.

With respect to the sample, full-time, part time, adjunct and tenured track professors from undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate psychology, counseling, anthropology, law, political science, social work, criminology, sociology and other social science programs were recruited to participate in the study. Colleges/Universities that the sample were recruited from included those

colleges/universities that only offer onsite instruction, those that offer both onsite and online instruction and those that only offer online instruction to allow for a sufficient representation of faculty from each teaching venue. Inclusion criteria encompassed faculty of either gender who were 25-60 years of age and have taught at the collegiate level for a minimum of one year. High school, middle school and grammar school teachers were not included in the present study.

A convenience sampling procedure was used to gather participants, through the University of Texas website which provides comprehensive a list of approximately 1200 universities throughout 50 states of the union and other U.S. territories. Approximately 900 universities were sent recruitment letters. They were approached for permission to recruit participants from their respective colleges/universities via e-mail contact informing them of the nature of the study in tandem with Capella University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval.

Once approval to conduct the study was granted by the respective college/university or organization's IRB, an IRB approved recruitment letter was sent to potential participants via email, and for those who volunteered to participate, the consent form, including a confidentiality agreement, was administered to each participant in the study via Survey Monkey. In some cases, where a college or university volunteered (or as part of their college/university policy) to disseminate the recruitment materials to their faculty via the department head, this method was employed. Prior to data collection, each participant was informed that participation in the study was voluntary, and that they can exit the surveys (withdraw) at any time.

Power Analysis for Proposed Research Questions, and Corresponding Sub questions and Hypotheses

To determine sample size for the present study, for Research Questions 1 and 2 and the accompanying hypothesis for each, hypotheses of Sub question 1 of Research Questions 1 and 2,

power analysis was conducted for ANOVA with main and interaction effects with alpha = .05, power = .8, and a medium effect size. Here, the minimum number of participants was 130. For the hypothesis predicting a positive correlation between time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation in Research Question 3, power analysis for Pearson's r was conducted with effect size, r = .3, alpha = .05, and power = .8. The minimum number of participants was 64.

Power Analysis for Exploratory Research Question, and Corresponding Sub questions and Hypotheses

The hypotheses for the remaining analyses of the ANOVAs that will be conducted are exploratory and non-directional (main effect of type of motivation, main effect of type of teaching task, and the two-way and three way (group by motivation by teaching tasks) interaction differences) and power analysis for ANOVA with main and interaction effects, alpha = .05, power = .8, and a medium effect size showed the minimum number of participants varied from 198 (one way examination of type of motivation) to 354 (three-way interaction effect (Sub question 6 of Research Question 1).

Recruitment of Participants

Sixty-five colleges/universities participated in the study. Only three colleges that responded were junior colleges and the remaining colleges offered both undergraduate and graduate programs. Fourteen of the 62 remaining colleges that offered both undergraduate and graduate programs, also offered online programs. Two universities that participated only provided online instruction. Screening criteria were such that each prospective participant be a faculty member of undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate departments in counseling, psychology, anthropology, criminology, law, political science, sociology and social work. The length of time one has been

in this capacity was a minimum of one completed course. Although perceptions of instructors may differ between those who have only one completed course as the culmination of their experience and those with considerably more experience, the experience of having taught a complete course in either format, was considered sufficient for an instructor to report time allocated to teaching tasks and level of motivation with respect to those tasks. Faculty were instructed to select one teaching format as the basis of their responses (online/onsite). E-mails were how recruitment letters were sent to prospective participants and the researcher's e-mail address, business phone and business address was given as contact information. Once IRB approval was given by Capella University. and written permission to recruit participants and/or required IRB approval was obtained from each participating association, college or university, the department heads of participating social and behavioral sciences departments and administrators of professional associations that have either volunteered, or as part of their site policy, were then disseminated the recruitment letters to potential participants.

Approximately 1,500 recruitment letters were sent out. Once a potential participant received a recruitment letter, for those who volunteered to participate, the letter provided a link to Survey Monkey where the consent form, demographic questionnaire and WTMST were presented; in that order. When presented with the consent form in Survey Monkey, participants clicked an agreement key that then opened the demographic questionnaire and WTMST.

The nature and purpose of the study was provided to each prospective participant in the consent and confidentiality agreement that was made available to each participant through links in Survey Monkey. Once these documents had been signed (electronically), each participant completed the WTMST. The data collected from this instrument was collected from each participant and sent directly back to the researcher through Survey Monkey. Participants were

instructed that if they currently teach (or have taught) in both on line and onsite formats, to specify one format in which to respond with respect to the study. As an addendum to the demographic survey, each participant then answered the question "In a typical week, how much time do you spend (in hours) in the following teaching tasks?," followed by a list of the teaching tasks of the WTMST to account for the collection of data for the time allocation variable.

For each participant, demographic information was obtained including gender, field of social sciences (counseling, psychology, criminology, anthropology, political science, law, social work, sociology or other), and the amount of time (to the nearest hour) spent on each teaching task per week. If participants currently teach, or have taught, in both formats (online and onsite) they were requested to specify only one format in which they would respond with respect to the study. Finally, it was queried as to how much time (to the nearest hour) do participants spend on class preparation, teaching, evaluation of students, administrative tasks and complementary tasks. This information provides a demographic summary, and breadth, of the sample that helps guide generalization of the present research findings to a larger population and are factors that may be worth further examination. Inclusion criteria did not limit participation based on program, gender, or years of experience to achieve sufficient statistical power to examine the number of levels of motivation and teaching tasks in the present study.

Participants were then presented the WTMST. Results from Fernet et al. (2008) indicated sound evidence of the reliability and validity of the assessment for all elements it explores. Regarding reliability and validity of the WTMST, Fernet et al. (2008) conducted psychometric analyses of the instrument that included a measure of internal consistency for each motivation type by calculating Cronbach's alpha showing mean values for intrinsic motivation, identified, introjected, and external regulation, and amotivation of .92, .82, .85, .76, and .77, respectively.

According to, and as cited in, Fernet et al. (2008, p. 265) these "values met the criterion of .70 proposed by Nunnally (1978)."

Fernet et al. (2008, p. 265) also provided the following additional summary of analysis of the instrument including confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) where a "30-factor model" consisting of "5 motivational constructs x 6 work tasks" showed a "good fit to the data" and factor loadings were "higher than .50" for each of the factors. Construct validity (convergent and divergent validity) is also summarized:

> Results provide good support for the psychometric properties of the WTMST. Indeed, (a) internal consistency values of WTMST subscales are satisfactory; (b) results from CFA analyses reveal that the WTMST has a 30-factor structure that is invariant over gender and teaching levels; (c) correlations among the motivation subscales form a simplex-like pattern of relations; (d) convergent correlations are mostly higher than divergent ones, thereby supporting the construct validity of the scale (this pattern of correlations is also invariant over gender and teaching levels); and (e) correlations among the motivational factors and teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy, job burnout, and controlling style of school principal yield a pattern of results in line with the self-determination continuum. (p. 274)

Additionally, utilizing partial least square structural equation models, Chan and Lay (2018) showed the WTMST, when used to measure teaching motivation, was reported to be reliable (Cronbach's alpha of .821 and composite reliability of .881), and to have satisfactory convergent and discriminant validity.

With permission from the author (Fernet et al., 2008), *classroom management* was removed from the WTMST as teaching tasks was found to be inapplicable to collegiate/university faculty,

and only applicable to grade school and high school teachers; thus, only five teaching tasks were examined. With permission from the author (Fernet et al., 2008), classroom management was removed from the WTMST as the examples of teaching tasks provided was found to be inapplicable to collegiate/university faculty, and only applicable to grade school and high school teachers; thus, only five teaching tasks were examined. Additionally, the verbiage was slightly altered with permission from Fernet (personal communication, November 15, 2015) to reflect the applicability of the measure to the current study. For instance, in the evaluation of students' portion of the survey, the verbiage originally published as "giving remarks to parents" was changed to "giving remarks to students." Furthermore, in the administrative tasks portion of the survey, the verbiage of "meeting with the parents and principals" was changed to "meeting with students and administrators" and "extra class monitoring" was removed from the *complementary tasks* portion of the survey.

Once informed consent was obtained informing the participants of the nature and parameters of the study, then demographic information was obtained. A copy of the WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008) was then presented and completed using the survey constructed through Survey Monkey. Once the survey was completed in Survey Monkey, participants were presented a statement thanking them for their participation. Participants were not able to retake the survey. Data were collected then accessed by the researcher through Survey Monkey. The data collected for everyone was, and will be, stored on an external flash/jump file that is stored in a locked file cabinet that only the researcher can access. The file cabinet is, and will remain, within a locked room only the researcher can access that is also in a locked building. Only the researcher has access to the password protected computer used to collect data that is always kept on the researcher's person and/or in a locked room the researcher only can access.

After seven years following the collection of data, the jump/flash drive will be incinerated. The surveys completed for each participant will be deleted from the site after completion and the data collected to an external drive. Additionally, once the account for the present study has been deleted from Survey Monkey, the data on their server remain significant for 12 months after the cancellation period, then it is deleted by Survey Monkey. Survey Monkey only allows one completion of the consent form and surveys by each participant. As such, the WTMST survey questions will be presented for each type of motivation and teaching task in one Survey Monkey attempt to avoid participants being locked out. Each participant had to complete the WTMST survey questions to allow for data to be analyzed across the six teaching tasks. The time to complete both surveys for each participant took approximately 30 minutes.

Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Data Analysis Procedures

Research Question 1, Sub question, and Hypotheses

Is there a difference in overall reported level of motivation, reported level of different types of motivation, and reported level of motivation for specific teaching tasks, among on-line and onsite social sciences faculty? Reported level of motivation was predicted to be greater for online than onsite social sciences faculty. Prior research showing a direct relationship between time spent on a given task and measures of motivation inform this prediction (Bentley & Kyvik, 2013), and also research showing greater reported time spent in online, than onsite, teaching (Allen, 2013; Parker, 2003).

Sub question 1

Is there a difference in reported level of motivation between on-line and onsite social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation between online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): Reported level of motivation is predicted to be greater for online social sciences faculty than for onsite social sciences faculty.

Additional Exploratory Sub questions and Hypotheses

Sub question 2

Is there a difference in reported level of motivation, depending on type of motivation among online and onsite social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 2 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on type of motivation, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of motivation, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Sub question 3

Is there a difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task among online and onsite social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 3 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task, among online and face-to face social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Sub question 4

Does the degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of teaching task?

Null Hypothesis 4 (Ho): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of teaching task.

Alternative Hypothesis 4 (H1): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task.

Sub question 5

Does the degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of motivation?

Null Hypothesis 5 (Ho): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of motivation.

Alternative Hypothesis 5 (H1): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of motivation.

Sub question 6

Does the degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of teaching task, vary depending on the type of motivation?

Null Hypothesis 6 (Ho): The degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task, does not vary depending on the type of motivation.

Alternative Hypothesis 6 (H1): The degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task, varies depending on the type of motivation.

Research Question 2, Sub question, and Hypotheses

Is there a difference in overall reported time allocated to teaching tasks, and reported time allocated to specific teaching tasks, among on-line and onsite social sciences faculty? Reported time allocated to teaching tasks was predicted to be greater for online than onsite social sciences faculty. Research has shown that online instructors report spending a greater amount of time working, relative to reports of onsite instructors (Whalen, 2009), and other research has indicated challenges experienced by faculty transitioning from onsite to online teaching platforms (Sword, 2012).

Sub question 1

Is there a difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on-line and onsite social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on-line and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): Reported time allocated to teaching tasks is predicted to be greater for online than onsite social sciences faculty.

Additional Exploratory Sub questions and Hypotheses

Sub question 2

Is there a difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty?

Null Hypothesis 2 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty.

Sub question 3

Does the degree of difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on line and onsite social sciences faculty vary depending on the type of teaching task?

Null Hypothesis 3 (Ho): The difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of teaching task.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H1): The difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task.

Research Question 3, Sub question, and Hypotheses

What is the correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty? It was predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty. Temporal motivation theory suggests people tend to procrastinate (i.e., spend less time) when they report the utility of doing a task is low (Siaputra, 2010).

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): There is a significant positive correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty.

For the proposed and exploratory sub questions of Research Question 1, a 2 x 5 x 5 factorial ANOVA of reported level of motivation was used with groups (online versus onsite), type of motivation, and teaching task as factors. For the proposed and exploratory sub questions of Research Question 2, a 2 x 5 factorial ANOVA of reported time allocated to each teaching task was used with GROUPS (online versus onsite) and teaching tasks as factors. For Research Question 3, the correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported motivation was examined, and the analysis was conducted using Pearson's r.

Factorial analysis of variance can be used to examine the relationship between two or more independent variables (factors) and a single dependent variable (Algina & Olejnik, 2003). Thus, two or more factors, and the interaction between factors (Cardinal & Aitken, 2006), can be examined simultaneously by calculating relative variability accounted for by independent main and interaction effects (Tsangari & Akritas, 2004).

The descriptive statistics analyzed included age, gender, the field of social science that they represent, how many years they have been teaching, which format (online or onsite) they currently teach in, if they currently teach in both formats, in which format they answered the question (only one format can be selected), how much experience they had in the selected format, and the weekly time allocated to each of the five teaching tasks they commit to each week. Raw data was inputted, organized and analyzed descriptively, and inferential statistical tests were conducted, to test each hypothesis, using the most current version of SPSS predictive analytics software. Inferential statistical tests were conducted at the .05 alpha level.

Summary

The methodology of the present study was outlined in Chapter 3. In the chapter, the research design used to address the research questions and hypotheses was provided including review of

the target population, measurement instruments, methods used for corresponding data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations. Chapter 4 provides a review of descriptive and inferential analyses of data collected including demographic variables (descriptive) and motivation scores and time estimates corresponding to each teaching task (descriptive and inferential), with corresponding tables and figures. In addition, the main and interaction effects of the variables of analysis corresponding to each hypothesis are presented.

CHAPTER 4. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

Chapter 4 provides a review of the results of the data collection process and statistical analysis of data collected. A quantitative survey approach was used to obtain five types of motivation data, and time allocation data, as related to five teaching tasks, and to examine these measures amongst online and onsite university level social science faculty. The chapter begins with a review of the demographic information that will be followed by an illustration of the descriptive statistics of the measures of motivation and estimated time allocated to teaching tasks and inferential statistical tests of these measures corresponding with each of the hypotheses.

Demographic Variables

There were 173 collegiate level faculty that replied to the recruitment letter, completed the consent form, and participated in the study. Of these 171 provided time estimates and 133 completed all required parts of the study (demographics, time estimates, WTMST). Participants first completed the demographic form, then provided time estimates, followed by completing the WTMST, and 38 participants only completed the demographic and time portion of the survey. Table I shows there were 41 (24 %) male participants and 129 (76%) female participants; three participants declined to answer this demographic question. Eight (4.7%) participants were between the ages of 25 – 29, 58 (34.3%) participants were between the ages of 30-39, 41 (24.3%) participants were between the ages of 40-49, 52 (30.8%) participants were between the ages of 50-59, and 10 (5.9%) participants identified as being 60.

Table 1

Frequency and Percent of Participant, Gender and Age Categories.

Gender	*Frequency*	*Percent*
Male	41	24
Female	129	76
No Response	3	
Total	173	100
Age	*Frequency*	*Percent*
25-29	8	4.7
30-39	58	34.3
40-49	41	24.3
50-59	52	30.8
60	10	5.9
No Response	4	
Total	173	100

Table 2 represents which discipline each participant identified as and how many years they have been teaching. There were 54 (32.0%) respondents who identified as belonging to the psychology discipline, 11 (6.5%) identified as political science, 11 (6.5%) identified as sociology, seven (4.1%) identified as anthropology, six (3.5%) identified as social work, five (3.0%) identified as counseling, three (1.8%) identified as law, two (1.2%) identified as criminology, and 70 (41.4%) identified as "other." Disciplines in the "other category were as follows: education, communication sciences, public administration, media/journalism, sociology and law, history, social work and health psychology, general health, speech pathology, marriage and family therapy, environmental policy, public policy, economics, business, educational psychology, management, social psychology, psychology, industrial organizational psychology, marketing, behavioral health. There were 89 (52.7%) participants who identified as teaching

between 1 and 10 years, 48 (28.4%) identified as teaching between 11 and 20 years, and 32 (18.9%) identified as teaching more than 20 years. Four participants did not respond to this question. Table 3 illustrates the percent of teachers identifying with online and onsite formats. There were 113 (66.1%) participants who identified as being onsite faculty and 58 (33.9%) identified as being online faculty.

Table 2

Frequency and Percent of Participant Social Science Identification and Years Spent Teaching.

Discipline	*Frequency*	*Percent*
Psychology	54	32.0
Political Science	11	6.5
Sociology	11	6.5
Anthropology	7	4.1
Social Work	6	3.5
Counseling	5	3.0
Law	3	1.8
Criminology	2	1.2
Other	70	41.4
No Response	4	
Total	173	100
Years Teaching	*Frequency*	*Percent*
1-10	89	52.7
11-20	48	28.4
> 20	32	18.9
No Response	4	
Total	173	100

Table 3

Percent of Teachers Identifying with Online and Onsite Formats.

Format	*Frequency*	*Percent*
Onsite	113	66.1
Online	58	33.9
No Response	2	0
Total	173	100

Research Questions and Hypothesis

Research Question 1

Is there a difference in overall reported level of motivation, reported level of different types of motivation, and reported level of motivation for specific teaching tasks, among online and onsite social sciences faculty?

Figure 1 shows mean WTMST scores as a function of each teaching task for the online and onsite groups.

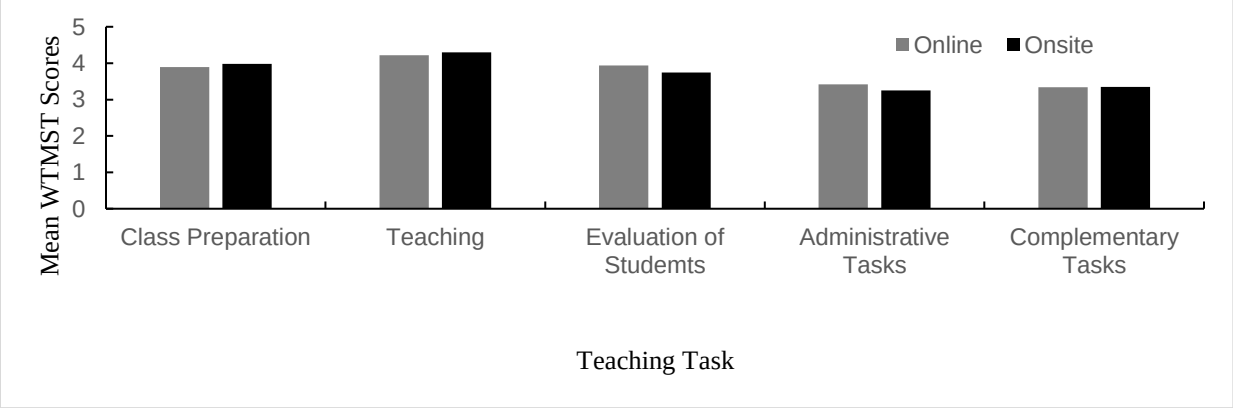

Figure 1. Mean WTMST scores as a function of teaching task for the onsite and online groups.

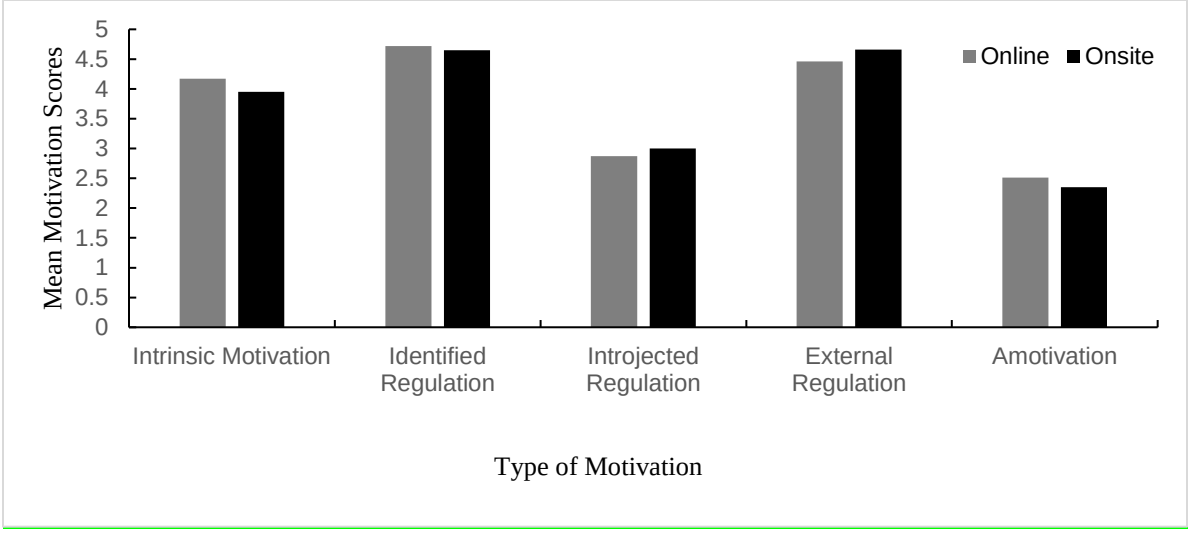

Figure 2. Mean motivation scores as a function of type of motivation for the onsite and online groups.

Figure 2 shows mean motivation scores as a function of each type of motivation for the onsite and online groups. To test the hypotheses for Research Question 1, a three-way ANOVA of WTMST scores was conducted using group (online versus onsite), task (class preparation, teaching, evaluation of students, administrative tasks, complementary tasks) and motivation (intrinsic, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation and amotivation) as factors and is presented in Table 4 that also includes post hoc analyses. Obtained main and interaction effects are reported below.

Main effects. The hypotheses for the main effects were as follows:

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation between online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): Reported level of motivation is predicted to be greater for online social sciences faculty than for onsite social sciences faculty.

Null Hypothesis 2 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on type of motivation, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of motivation, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Null Hypothesis 3 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task, among online and onsite social sciences faculty.

According to the 2 x 5 x 5 ANOVA of WTMST scores, using group, teaching task, and type of motivation as factors, the main effects show WTMST scores did not differ significantly between groups. The effect of task was significant. Tukey tests (Table 4) were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each pair of tasks. WTMST scores were significantly greater for teaching than class preparation, and lower for administrative and complementary tasks than class preparation. WTMST scores were significantly greater for teaching than evaluation of students, administrative tasks, and complementary tasks. WTMST scores were significantly greater for evaluation of students than administrative and complementary tasks. WTMST scores did not differ significantly between class preparation and evaluation of students or between administrative tasks and complementary tasks.

Table 4 illustrates the ANOVA of WTMST scores using group, teaching task, and type of motivation as factors also showed the effect of motivation was significant. Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each type of motivation. WTMST scores were significantly greater for intrinsic motivation than introjected regulation and amotivation, and were significantly less than identified regulation and external regulation.

Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. Identified regulation did not differ significantly from external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation, but was significantly greater than amotivation. External regulation was greater than amotivation.

Table 4

ANOVA (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores, Using Group, Teaching Task, and Type of Motivation as Factors.

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Group	1	1.30	1.30	.05	.827
S within group error	131	3,561.55	27.19		
Task	4	1,169.43	292.36	76.13	< .001
Task*Group	4	37.70	9.42	2.45	.045
Task*S within group error	524	2,012.31	3.84		
Motivation	4	7,205.01	1,801.25	167.34	< .001
Motivation*Group	4	60.08	15.02	1.40	.234
Motivation*S within group error	524	5,640.45	10.76		
Motivation*Task	16	5,635.55	352.22	99.36	< .001
Motivation*Task*Group	16	111.63	7.00	1.97	.012
Motivation*Task*S within group error	2096	7,430.42	3.54		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Variable	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
Task						
1. Class Preparation	3.96	.60	< .001	.532	< .001	< .001
2. Teaching	4.27	.71		< .001	< .001	< .001
3. Evaluation of Students	3.80	.74			< .001	< .001
4. Administrative Tasks	3.30	.80				.995
5. Complementary tasks	3.35	.88				

Table 4

ANOVA (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores, Using Group, Teaching Task, and Type of Motivation as Factors (continued).

Variable	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
Motivation						
1. Intrinsic Motivation	4.03	.96	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	4.68	.85		< .001	.799	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	2.96	1.16			< .001	< .001
4. External Regulation	4.60	1.08				< .001
5. Amotivation	2.41	.74				

Interaction effects. The hypotheses for the interaction effects were as follows:

Null Hypothesis 4 (Ho): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of teaching task.

Alternative Hypothesis 4 (H1): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task.

Null Hypothesis 5 (Ho): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of motivation.

Alternative Hypothesis 5 (H1): The degree of difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of motivation.

Null Hypothesis 6 (Ho): The degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task, does not vary depending on the type of motivation.

Alternative Hypothesis 6 (H1): The degree the difference in reported level of motivation among on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task, varies depending on the type of motivation.

According to the ANOVA of WTMST scores using group, teaching task, and type of motivation as factors (Table 4), the nonsignificant difference between groups of WTMST scores does not reject the null hypothesis for this main effect. However, there was a significant task by group interaction effect which does reject the null hypothesis for this effect. The significant task by group interaction indicates that the difference in WTMST scores across tasks differed across groups. The motivation by group interaction was not significant and thus, does not reject the null hypothesis. There was also a significant motivation by task interaction, and motivation by task by group interaction, which rejects the null hypothesis for both effects.

Because of these interaction effects, analysis of motivation and task were conducted separately for each group using 5 x 5 ANOVAs of WTMST scores with motivation and task as factors. The findings are presented in Table 5 that also includes post hoc analyses. For the onsite group, task was significant, which rejects the null hypothesis. For the online group, task was also significant, which rejects the null hypothesis.

Table 5

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group Using Teaching task and Type of Motivation as Factors.

Onsite Group

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Task	4	997.73	249.43	69.32	< .001
Task*S error	344	1,237.75	3.60		
Motivation	4	5,332.03	1,333.01	125.85	< .001
Motivation*S Error	344	3,643.75	10.59		
Motivation*Task	16	4,438.25	277.39	78.26	< .001
Motivation*Task*S error	1376	4,887.42	3.54		

Table 5

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group Using Teaching task and Type of Motivation as Factors (continued).

			Tukey's HSD Comparisons			
Variable	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
Task						
1. Class Preparation	3.99	.58	.001	.003	< .001	< .001
2. Teaching	4.31	.74		< .001	< .001	< .001
3. Evaluation of Students	3.74	.77			< .001	< .001
4. Administrative Tasks	3.25	.81				.484
5. Complementary Tasks	3.35	.85				
Motivation						
1. Intrinsic Motivation	3.95	1.03	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	4.66	.88		< .001	1.000	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	3.00	1.16			< .001	< .001
4. External Regulation	4.67	1.05				< .001
5. Amotivation	2.36	.68				

Online Group

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Task	4	394.41	98.60	23.06	< .001
Task*S error	180	769.57	4.28		
Motivation	4	2,695.48	673.87	60.99	< .001
Motivation*S Error	180	1,988.66	11.05		
Motivation*Task	16	2,068.45	129.28	36.46	< .001
Motivation*Task*S error	720	2,553.12			

Table 5

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group Using Teaching task and Type of Motivation as Factors (continued).

			Tukey's HSD Comparisons			
Variable	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
Task						
1. Class Preparation	3.89	.64	.023	.978	< .001	< .001
2. Teaching	4.22	.67		.094	< .001	< .001
3. Evaluation of Students	3.94	.67			< .001	< .001
4. Administrative Tasks	3.39	.77				.979
5. Complementary Tasks	3.33	.95				
Motivation						
1. Intrinsic Motivation	4.17	.82	.016	< .001	.477	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	4.72	.79		< .001	.580	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	2.87	1.17			< .001	.267
4. External Regulation	4.47	1.12				< .001
5. Amotivation	2.52	.84				

Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each pair of tasks for each group (Table 5). For the onsite group, WTMST scores for class preparation were significantly lower than teaching. Class preparation was significantly greater than evaluation of students, administrative tasks, and complementary tasks. Teaching was also significantly greater than evaluation of students, administrative tasks, and complementary tasks. Evaluation of students was significantly greater than administrative tasks and complementary tasks. There was no significant difference in WTMST scores between administrative and complementary tasks.

For the online group, Tukey's test showed WTMST scores for class preparation were significantly lower than teaching. There was no significant difference in WTMST scores between class preparation and evaluation of students. Class preparation was significantly greater than administrative and complementary tasks. There was no significant difference between teaching and evaluation of students. Teaching was significantly greater than administrative tasks and complementary tasks. Evaluation of students was significantly greater than administrative and complementary tasks. There was no significant difference between administrative and complementary tasks.

For the onsite group, the effect of motivation was significant (Table 5), which rejects the null hypothesis. For the online group, motivation was also significant, which rejects the null hypothesis. Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each type of motivation for each group (Table 5).

According to Tukey's test, for the onsite group, intrinsic motivation was greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. Intrinsic motivation was lower than identified regulation and external regulation. Identified regulation was greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between identified regulation and external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly greater than amotivation. External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

Tukey's test also showed, for the online group, intrinsic motivation was significantly lower than identified regulation. Intrinsic motivation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and external regulation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and

amotivation. There was no significant difference between identified regulation and external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. There was no significant difference between introjected regulation and amotivation. External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

The 5 x 5 ANOVAs of WTMST scores with motivation and task as factors (Table 5) also showed, for the onsite group, the motivation by task interaction was significant, meaning that the effect of motivation differed across tasks which rejects the null hypothesis. The motivation by task interaction was significant for the online group as well which rejects the null hypothesis. Owing to these interaction effects, the effect of motivation was examined separately for each group and task using one-way ANOVAs and are presented in Table 6 that also includes post hoc analyses.

Table 6

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group and Teaching Task Using Type of Motivation as Factor.

Onsite Group

Class Preparation

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	2,891.05	722.76	164.47	< .001
Motivation*S Error	344	1,511.74	4.40		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	4.24	1.39	< .001	.005	.053	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	5.97	1.01		< .001	< .001	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	3.60	1.50			< .001	< .001
4. External Regulation	4.74	1.27				< .001
5. Amotivation	1.44	.89				

Table 6

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group and Teaching Task Using Type of Motivation as Factor (continued).

Teaching

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	4,147.58	1,036.89	201.81	< .001
Motivation*S Error	344	1,767.50	5.14		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	5.48	1.48	.059	< .001	.987	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	6.01	1.19		< .001	.193	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	3.02	1.72			< .001	< .001
4. External Regulation	5.58	1.55				< .001
5. Amotivation	1.40	.76				

Evaluation of Students

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	419.29	104.82	40.10	< .001
Motivation*S Error	344	899.28	2.61		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	3.67	1.29	< .001	.087	.004	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	2.96	1.14		.084	< .001	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	3.32	1.01			< .001	< .001
4. External Regulation	4.18	.93				.093
5. Amotivation	4.53	1.25				

Administrative Tasks

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	1,194.23	298.56	49.78	< .001
Motivation*S Error	344	2,063.08	6.00		

Table 6

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group and Teaching Task Using Type of Motivation as Factor (continued).

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	2.56	1.51	< .001	.998	< .001	.944
2. Identified Regulation	3.74	1.55		< .001	< .001	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	2.62	1.48			< .001	.823
4. External Regulation	4.91	1.60				< .001
5. Amotivation	2.39	1.39				

Complementary Tasks

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	1,218.81	304.70	46.29	< .001
Motivation*S Error	344	2,264.56	6.58		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	3.80	1.76	.004	< .001	.970	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	4.58	1.52		< .001	.034	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	2.46	1.54			< .001	.279
4. External Regulation	3.94	1.78				< .001
5. Amotivation	2.01	1.21				

Online Group

Class Preparation

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	1,244.82	311.20	60.66	< .001
Motivation*S Error	180	923.46	5.13		

Table 6

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group and Teaching Task Using Type of Motivation as Factor (continued).

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	4.38	1.41	< .001	< .001	.784	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	5.57	1.19		< .001	.015	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	3.08	1.51			< .001	< .001
4. External Regulation	4.70	1.38				< .001
5. Amotivation	1.73	1.12				

Teaching

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	1,879.18	469.80	98.88	< .001
Motivation*S Error	180	855.19	4.75		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	5.49	1.14	.241	< .001	.139	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	6.03	.91		< .001	< .001	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	3.12	1.70			< .001	< .001
4. External Regulation	4.88	1.62				< .001
5. Amotivation	1.54	.96				

Evaluation of Students

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	306.46	76.62	39.63	< .001
Motivation*S Error	180	347.99	1.93		

Table 6

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group and Teaching Task Using Type of Motivation as Factor (continued).

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	3.99	1.17	< .001	.002	.552	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	3.11	.85		.552	< .001	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	3.36	.92			< .001	< .001
4. External Regulation	4.25	.92				< .001
5. Amotivation	5.00	1.02				

Administrative Tasks

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	746.20	186.55	31.32	< .001
Motivation*S Error	180	1,072.28	5.96		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	2.92	1.38	< .001	.702	< .001	.147
2. Identified Regulation	4.36	1.53		< .001	.347	< .001
3. Introjected Regulation	2.54	1.47			< .001	.850
4. External Regulation	4.89	1.52				< .001
5. Amotivation	2.25	1.49				

Complementary Tasks

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Motivation	4	657.22	164.30	25.43	< .001
Motivation*S Error	180	1,162.97	6.46		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Intrinsic Motivation	4.07	1.71	.463	< .001	.570	< .001
2. Identified Regulation	4.58	1.63		< .001	.014	< .001

Table 6

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of WTMST Scores for Each Group and Teaching Task Using Type of Motivation as Factor (continued).

Motivation	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
3. Introjected Regulation	2.29	1.40			< .001	.971
4. External Regulation	3.62	1.93				< .001
5. Amotivation	2.08	1.40				

For the class preparation (Table 6), the effect of motivation was significant for the onsite group and was significant for the online group as well which rejects the null hypothesis for each of these effects. For each group, Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each type of motivation. For the onsite group, intrinsic motivation was significantly lower than identified regulation. Intrinsic motivation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and external regulation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation, external regulation, and amotivation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly greater than amotivation. External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

For the online group, Tukey comparisons showed intrinsic motivation was significantly lower than identified regulation. Intrinsic motivation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and external regulation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation, external regulation, and amotivation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly greater than amotivation. External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

For the teaching task (Table 6), the effect of motivation was significant for the onsite group and was significant for the online group as well, which rejects the null hypothesis for each of these effects. For each group, Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each type of motivation. For the onsite group, intrinsic motivation was greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and identified regulation or between intrinsic motivation and external regulation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between identified regulation and external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly greater than amotivation. External regulation was greater than amotivation.

For the online group, Tukey comparisons showed there was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and identified regulation and between intrinsic motivation and external regulation. Intrinsic motivation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation, external regulation, and amotivation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly greater than amotivation. External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

For evaluation of students (Table 6), the effect of motivation was significant for the onsite group and the effect of motivation was significant for the online group as well, which rejects the null hypothesis for these effects. For each group, Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each type of motivation. For the onsite group, intrinsic motivation was significantly greater than identified regulation. There was no significant

difference between intrinsic motivation and introjected regulation. Intrinsic motivation was significantly lower than external regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between identified regulation and introjected regulation. Identified regulation was significantly lower than external regulation and amotivation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between external regulation and amotivation.

For the online group, Tukey comparisons showed intrinsic motivation was significantly greater than identified regulation and introjected regulation. There was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and external regulation. Intrinsic motivation was significantly lower than amotivation. There was no significant difference between identified regulation and introjected regulation. Identified regulation was significantly lower than external regulation and amotivation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation and amotivation. External regulation was significantly lower than amotivation.

For administrative tasks (Table 6), the effect of motivation was significant for the onsite group and was significant for the online group, which rejects the null hypothesis for these effects. Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each type of motivation. For the onsite group, intrinsic motivation was significantly lower than identified regulation and external regulation. There was no significant different between intrinsic motivation and intojected regulation or between intrinsic motivation and amotivation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. Identified regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. There was no significant difference

between introjected regulation and amotivation. External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

For the online group, Tukey comparisons showed intrinsic motivation was significantly lower than identified regulation and external regulation. There was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and introjected regulation or between intrinsic motivation and amotivation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between identified regulation and external regulation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. There was no significant difference between introjected regulation and amotivation., External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

For complementary tasks (Table 6), the effect of motivation was significant for the onsite group and also significant for the online group, which rejects the null hypothesis for these effects. Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of WTMST scores between each type of motivation. For the onsite group, intrinsic motivation was significantly lower than identified regulation. Intrinsic motivation was significantly greater than introjected regulation and amotivation. There was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and external regulation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation, external regulation and amotivation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. There was no significant difference between introjected regulation and amotivation. External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

For the online group, Tukey comparisons showed there was no significant difference between intrinsic motivation and identified regulation or between intrinsic motivation and external regulation. Intrinsic motivation was significantly greater than introjected regulation, and

amotivation. Identified regulation was significantly greater than introjected regulation, external regulation, and amotivation. Introjected regulation was significantly lower than external regulation. There was no significant difference between introjected regulation and amotivation. External regulation was significantly greater than amotivation.

Research Question 2

Is there a difference in overall reported time allocated to teaching tasks, and reported time allocated to specific teaching tasks, among on-line and onsite social sciences faculty?

For Research Question 2, whether or not there was a difference in overall reported time allocated to teaching tasks, and reported time allocated to specific teaching tasks, among on-line and onsite social sciences faculty was examined. Figure 3 shows time estimates (hours per week) as a function of teaching task for the online and onsite groups.

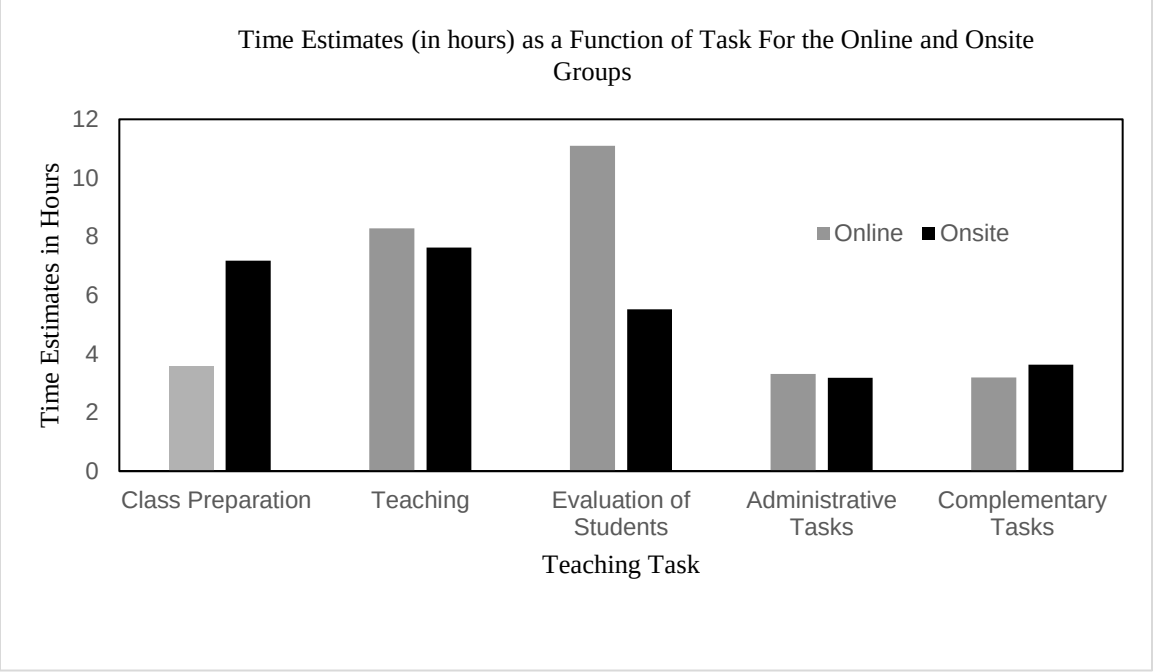

Figure 3. Time estimates in hours as a function of teaching task for the online and onsite groups.

Main effects. The hypotheses for the main effects were as follows:

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on-line and onsite social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): Reported time allocated to teaching tasks is predicted to be greater for online than onsite social sciences faculty.

Null Hypothesis 2 (Ho): There is no significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H1): There is a significant difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks, depending on the type of teaching task, among social sciences faculty.

A 2 x 5 ANOVA of time estimates, using group and task as factors was conducted and presented in Table 7 that also includes post hoc analysis. The main effect of group was not significant which does not reject the null hypothesis, however, the main effect of task was significant meaning that time estimates differed across tasks and rejects the null hypothesis.

Table 7

ANOVA (and Tukey's HSD) of Time Estimates Using Group and Teaching Task as Factors.

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Group	1	11.92	11.92	.26	.614
S within group error	169	7,877.16	46.61		
Task	4	3,496.98	874.25	49.97	< .001
Task*Group	4	1,550.87	387.72	22.16	< .001
Task*S within group error	676	11,827.40	17.50		

Table 7

ANOVA (and Tukey's HSD) of Time Estimates Using Group and Teaching Task as Factors (continued).

			Tukey's HSD Comparisons			
Task	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Class Preparation	6.03	4.55	< .001	.024	< .001	< .001
2. Teaching	7.84	5.20		.847	< .001	< .001
3. Evaluation of Students	7.38	7.08			< .001	< .001
4. Administrative Tasks	3.22	3.31				.981
5. Complementary Tasks	3.48	4.03				

Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of reported estimated time spent between teaching tasks (Table 7). Significantly more time was reported spent on teaching and evaluation of students than on class preparation. Significantly less time was reported spent on administrative tasks and complementary tasks than on class preparation. There was no significant difference in reported time spent on teaching and evaluation of students. Significantly more time was reported spent on teaching than administrative and complementary tasks. Significantly more time was reported spent on evaluation of students than administrative and complementary tasks. There was no significant difference in reported time spent on administrative and complementary tasks.

Interaction effect. The hypotheses for the interaction effect were as follows:

Null Hypothesis 3 (Ho): The difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on line and onsite social sciences faculty does not vary depending on the type of teaching task.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H1): The difference in reported time allocated to teaching tasks between on line and onsite social sciences faculty varies depending on the type of teaching task.

The task by group interaction effect was significant as shown in Table 7 which rejects the null hypothesis for this effect. Thus, one-way ANOVAs of time estimates, using task as a factor were conducted for each group and presented in Table 8 that also includes post hoc analyses. The effect of task was significant for the onsite group and the effect of task was significant for the online group as well, which rejects the null hypothesis for these effects.

Table 8

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of Time Estimates for Each Group Using Teaching Task as Factor.

Onsite Group

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Task	4	1,846.43	461.61	31.94	< .001
Task*S error	448	6,474.27	14.45		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Task	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Class Preparation	7.26	4.68	.908	.010	< .001	< .001
2. Teaching	7.71	4.48		< .001	< .001	< .001
3. Evaluation of Students	5.62	5.25			< .001	.001
4. Administrative Tasks	3.25	3.25				.912
5. Complementary Tasks	3.69	4.45				

Online Group

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Task	4	2,871.67	717.92	30.58	< .001
Task*S error	228	5,353.13	23.48		

Tukey's HSD Comparisons

Task	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
1. Class Preparation	3.62	3.11	< .001	< .001	.988	.973
2. Teaching	8.10	6.42		.022	< .001	< .001

Table 8

ANOVAs (and Tukey's HSD) of Time Estimates for Each Group Using Teaching Task as Factor (continued).

Task	*M*	*SD*	2	3	4	5
3. Evaluation of Students	10.81	8.78			< .001	< .001
4. Administrative Tasks	3.17	3.46				1.000
5. Complementary Tasks	3.07	3.02				

Tukey tests were performed to conduct pairwise comparisons of reported estimated time spent between teaching tasks for each group (Table 8). For the onsite group, reported time spent teaching and on class preparation were not significantly different, and reported time spent on complementary and administrative tasks were also not significantly different. Significantly less time was reported spent on evaluation of students than on class preparation, and significantly less time was reported spent on administrative tasks and complementary tasks than on class preparation. Additionally, significantly less time was reported spent on evaluation of students, administrative tasks, and complementary tasks than on teaching. Reported time spent on evaluation of students was significantly greater than administrative tasks and complementary tasks.

For the online group, Tukey comparisons showed teachers reported significantly more time spent on teaching and evaluation of students than on class preparation. There was no significant difference between reported time spent on class preparation and administrative tasks and between class preparation and complementary tasks. Reported time spent on teaching was significantly lower than evaluation of students. Reported time spent on teaching was significantly greater than administrative and complementary tasks. Reported time spent on evaluation of students was significantly greater than administrative and complementary tasks.

There was no significant difference in reported time spent on administrative and complementary tasks.

Between groups comparisons of time estimates for each task are presented in Table 9 that shows onsite participants reported spending a significantly greater amount of time on class preparation than online participants. Online participants reported spending a significantly greater amount of time on evaluation of students than onsite participants. There were no significant differences in reported time spent on teaching, administrative, and complementary tasks between the groups.

Table 9

ANOVA of Time Estimates for Each Teaching Task using Group as Factor.

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Class Preparation					
GP	1	404.24	404.24	34.71	< .001
S within group error	169	1,968.28	11.65		
Teaching					
GP	1	1.25	1.25	.05	.820
S within group error	169	4,067.38	24.07		
Evaluation of Students					
GP	1	510.53	510.53	27.68	< .001
S within group error	169	3,117.14	18.44		
Administrative Tasks					
GP	1	.05	.05	.01	.938
S within group error	169	1,420.80	8.41		

Table 9

ANOVA of Time Estimates for Each Teaching Task using Group as Factor (continued).

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Complementary Tasks					
GP	1	1.38	1.38	.16	.686
S within group error	169	1,423.50	8.42		

Research Question 3

What is the correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty?

The hypotheses were as follows:

Null Hypothesis 1 (Ho): There is no significant correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H1): There is a significant positive correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty.

To address this research question, the correlation between time estimates and WTMST scores was calculated using both groups and separately for each group and presented in Table 10. All tests were conducted at the .01 alpha level, to compensate for possible increase in the Type I error rate when conducting multiple correlations.

Table 10

Correlation Between Mean Time Estimates and Mean WTMST Scores Across Teaching Task

Group	*n*	*r*	*p*
Onsite and Online	10	.774	.009
Onsite	5	.983	.003

Table 10

Correlation Between Mean Time Estimates and Mean WTMST Scores Across Teaching Task (continued).

Group	*n*	*r*	*p*
Online	5	.713	.177

Correlation between Mean Time Estimates and Mean WTMST Scores across Task

When correlating time estimates and WTMST scores across teaching tasks while using mean time estimates and WTMST scores pooled across participants, with both groups in the analysis (10 mean time estimates; that is for five tasks and two groups), there was a relatively strong significant positive correlation between time estimates and WTMST scores (Table 10). For an obtained correlation of .774, the proportion of explained variance was 0.60. Thus, 60% of the variability in WTMST scores was explained by times estimates. The analysis was also conducted for each group separately.

Onsite Group

For the onsite group, there was also a relatively strong positive correlation that was significant (Table 10). For a correlation of .983 the proportion of explained variance (that is the proportion of variance in WTMST scores explained by Time Estimates) was .97.

Online Group

Although the correlation between time estimates and WTMST scores was not significant for this group, it was a relatively strong positive correlation (Table 10). For a correlation of .713, the proportion of explained variance (that is the proportion of variance in WTMST scores explained by Time Estimates), was .51.

Summary

Chapter 4 provided a review of the data collection and analysis process used for this study, and review of findings, which showed that the five types of perceived motivation and reported time allocation varied across the five teaching tasks, among online and onsite university level social science faculty as found in the analysis of main and exploratory interaction effects. The chapter began with a review of the demographic information and was followed by an illustration of the descriptive statistics of the measures of motivation and estimated time allocated to teaching tasks. Inferential statistical analysis of these measures corresponding with each of the directionally predicted, and exploratory, hypotheses are reviewed. Further, Chapter 5 provides the conclusions and interpretations of the Chapter 4 results as well as relating the results with previous literature and how the present study expands the body of research on the subject(s) of temporal dimensions of teacher's motivation, and types of motivation and specific teaching tasks. Finally, the relationship of the findings will be related to how it applies self-determination theory and what these findings suggest in relation to this theory.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Chapter 5 provides conclusions as to whether the dissertation addresses the purpose and corresponding research questions that precipitated the study as well as an interpretation of the Chapter 4 results considering existing findings in the field. Additionally, the obtained findings are described relative to how they support and augment self-determination theory. Studies of motivation are considered relevant within the realm of teaching research (Schieb & Karabenick, 2011). The present dissertation study employed a quantitative survey design to examine five types of perceived motivation, and reported time allocation, across five teaching tasks, and also allowed for comparison of these measures among online and onsite college/university level social science faculty, with findings described as they relate to the basic constructs of self-determination theory.

The summary section will illustrate and restate the research questions and provide information as to whether the results support the proposed hypothesis and in which specific way. The interpretation of the results section will provide illustrations of additional gaps in the literature based on the results, as well as interpretations of the relationship(s), or lack thereof, of the exploratory analysis with the descriptive statistics and contradictions with some of those findings. The comparison of the findings with the theoretical framework and previous literature section provides elaboration and expansion of self-determination theory and how it relates to each question and the findings of each research question. The assumptions and limitations section provides a review of the assumptions illustrated in Chapter 1, and how or why these assumptions were congruent or incongruent with respect to the present study, and the study's limitations including related recommendations for studies addressing these limitations. The

implications for practice section illustrates how the present study can be a framework for future applications in the field of university level social science faculty as well as other university level instructors as to why certain findings of the study did not overlap between the groups and how this impacts the realm of university administration and departmental functioning; perhaps recidivism of instructors or how quality of education on students is impacted. The recommendations for future research section provides a review of possible studies that may expand on the findings of the present study, and studies to address other research questions related to teaching motivation in online and onsite settings, to further an understanding of motivational factors related to teaching in these settings. The conclusion section is a conglomeration of all the information presented in the paper and provides a summarization of the main points covered in this chapter.

In tandem with self-determination theory, teachers (intrinsically) also need to feel encouraged to display initiative, to be provided with meaningful choices, to have a reasonable and personally meaningful rationale for activities, and to cultivate and display interest in the activities (e.g., Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994; Haerens et al., 2013; Reeve, 2002). The results of the present study will indicate which group illustrates these qualities as it relates to each research question.

Summary of the Results

Research Question 1

For Research Question 1 (directional hypothesis), examining if there is a significant difference in overall reported level of motivation, it was proposed in Hypothesis 1 that the reported level of motivation would be greater for online than onsite social sciences faculty; this supposition was thought to be supported by Allen (2013) and Parker (2003). There were no

significant difference found in motivation scores between the groups which does not support the proposed hypothesis. Exploratory analysis of interaction effect hypotheses examined if there would be significant differences in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of motivation, among online and onsite social sciences faculty, and if there would be a significant difference in reported level of motivation, depending on the type of teaching task among online and onsite social sciences faculty. The analyses yielded significant within group differences in motivation scores for specific teaching tasks and types of motivation; thus, supporting these exploratory hypotheses of interaction effects.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was examining if there was a difference in overall reported time allocated to teaching tasks, and reported time allocated to specific teaching tasks, among on-line and onsite social sciences faculty. Results showed that overall reported time allocated to teaching tasks did not differ between groups which did not support the proposed hypothesis. However, there was a significant teaching task by group interaction effect, indicating differences between groups for specific teaching tasks.

Between groups comparisons of time estimates for each task showed onsite participants reported spending a significantly greater amount of time on class preparation than online participants. Online participants reported spending a significantly greater amount of time on evaluation of students than onsite participants. There were no significant differences in reported time spent on teaching, administrative, and complementary tasks between the groups.

Results also showed that time estimates differed across tasks for both groups, illustrating that more time was reported spent in teaching and evaluation of students (for the onsite and online groups, respectively) than in any other teaching task. Although the reason for this difference was

not examined, it may suggest engaging in teaching and evaluation of students requires greater allocation of time relative to other tasks and/or are deemed most important, or perhaps desirable across the board for individual teachers. Less time was spent in administrative tasks and complementary tasks than any other teaching task which indicates these tasks may require less allocation of time relative to other tasks and/or teachers view these tasks as the most arbitrary or less desirable. This finding may relate to allocation of time to various tasks based on requirements established by external sources such as the college/university itself, department heads, and university administrators.

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 examined the correlation between reported time estimates and motivation (WTMST) scores. When correlating time estimates and WTMST scores across task while using mean time estimates and WTMST scores pooled across participants, there were significant positive correlations between time estimates and motivation scores that support the exploratory hypothesis that there is a significant positive correlation between reported time allocated to teaching tasks and reported level of motivation among social sciences faculty.

Interpretations of the Results

Research Question 1

The first research question examined if there is there a difference in overall reported level of motivation, reported level of different types of motivation, and reported level of motivation for specific teaching tasks, among online and onsite social sciences faculty. The online group showed significantly greater motivation in intrinsic motivation, identified regulation and external regulation within the group than introjected regulation and amotivation. The onsite group also showed the same results within the group. As per the key indicators of these types of motivation,

according to Fernet et al. (2008, p. 277), this finding may suggest that both the online and onsite groups perceive "it is pleasant to carry out" their tasks, they "find" their tasks "interesting to do," they "like doing" tasks, "it is important for" them "to carry out" tasks, it "allows" them "to attain work objectives that" they "consider important" and that they "find" tasks "important for the academic success of" their "students." Additionally, according to Fernet et al. (2008) this finding may suggest that both groups engage in tasks, "because" their "work demands it," "because the school obliges" them "to do it," and "because" they are "paid to do it" (p. 277). Finally, to a lesser degree, both groups reported not engaging in tasks "because if" they "don't carry out" these tasks, they "will feel bad," they "would feel guilty not doing it" and "to not feel bad if" they "don't" do tasks (Fernet et al., 2010, p. 8). Additionally, according to Fernet et al. (2008, p. 277) this finding may suggest that both groups engage in tasks, "because" their "work demands it," "because the school obliges" them to do it," and "because" they are "paid to do it" (p. 277). Finally, to a lesser degree, both groups reported not engaging in tasks "because if" they "don't carry out" these tasks, they "will feel bad," they "would feel guilty not doing it" and "to not feel bad if" they "don't" do tasks (Fernet et al., 2008, p. 277) because they are "paid to do it" (p. 277).

Measures of different types of motivation were also found to be significantly different for both groups in the three-way factorial ANOVA. Identified regulation was significantly greater than intrinsic motivation, introjected regulation. Identified regulation was also found to be significantly greater than amotivation. Motivation for teaching was found to be significantly greater than evaluation of students, administrative tasks, and complementary tasks. Motivation for evaluation of students was found to be significantly greater than administrative and

complementary tasks. Administrative tasks were found to not be significantly different than complementary tasks.

Significant task by group, motivation by task and motivation by task by group interactions effects were found. Analysis of motivation type for the onsite group showed an identical pattern of effects as those in the post hoc analysis of the main effects of this factor combined across group. However, the online group showed two additional lack of significant differences in motivation, including intrinsic motivation versus external regulation and introjected regulation versus amotivation.

Motivation by task interactions showed identical results for class preparation for both groups where only intrinsic motivation and external regulation were not significantly different. Motivation for teaching showed identical results for both groups except for identified regulation and external regulation not being significantly different in the onsite group. Motivation for evaluation of students showed identical direction of the significant effects that were the same for both groups. Additionally, identical non-significant effects were shown for identified and introjected regulation for both groups. Motivation for administrative tasks was identical for both groups except for the online group showing a nonsignificant difference between identified regulation and external regulation. Finally, the effect of motivation for comprehensive tasks was shown to be identical for both groups except for a nonsignificant difference between intrinsic motivation and identified regulation in the online group.

As the findings relate to Research Question 1 and its exploratory analysis, it fills a gap and expands the previous literature where self-determination theory has been utilized as the basis for motivation (Ullrich-French, Cox & Bumpus, 2013; De Naeghel et al., 2012; Trépanier et al., 2012) with relation as to why teachers are engaged in specific teaching tasks. Allen and Seaman

(2013) and Parker et al.'s (2010) study examining motivation in different teaching formats and Bentley and Kyvik's (2013) study where gender was a weak predictor of time spent in teaching tasks among full-time faculty and where teacher status (full-time, part-time, adjunct, emeritus), were weak predictors of motivation in teaching tasks were validated with the present study. Scott et al. (1999) study, which found that teachers across different cultures generally derived motivation from elements of the teaching job itself, was expounded upon in the present study in terms of what types of motivation are correlated with each instructor and why they are engaged in specific tasks. The present study also adds to the literature and findings of Cerasoli et al. (2014) meta-analysis of 40 years of research looking at the intrinsic and external factors of motivation and how they relate to performance.

Research Question 2

Since Research Question 2 was examining if there was a difference in overall reported time allocated to teaching tasks between groups, and reported time allocated to specific teaching tasks. Time estimates were examined with a 2 x 5 factorial ANOVA using group and teaching tasks as factors. Results showed that, although the main effect of group on time estimates was not significant, the effect of the teaching task was found to be significant. There was also a task by group interaction effect which supports the exploratory hypothesis. For the onsite group, class preparation and teaching showed no significant difference in the reported time spent in these tasks as well as no significant difference between administrative and complementary tasks. The online group showed that there were no significant differences in reported time spent between class preparation and both administrative and complementary tasks. Additionally, there was no significant difference in between administrative and complementary tasks. Between the two groups, both groups showed nonsignificant differences in time spent between administrative and

complementary tasks. The online group spent a significantly greater amount of time in the teaching and evaluation of student tasks than any other tasks within the group and evaluation of students was greater compared to the onsite group.

These findings are consistent with Van de Vord and Pouge's (2012) study who showed that online professors devote a greater amount of time evaluating students than their onsite counterparts. Additionally, conclusions found in previous research have indicated that due to how the communication is structured in online platforms, teachers perceive that they never have a respite from teaching (Concieção, 2006; DiBiase & Rademacher, 2005; Hislop & Ellis, 2004) which may be an indicator as to why online instructors reported greater time in teaching tasks. Additionally, concern among online academic institutions over the apparently greater amount of time teachers spend on tasks, relative to onsite institutions (Christiansen, 2002; Sheridan, 2006; Van de Vord & Pogue, 2012) has been expounded upon as to factors why this may be the case with the present study with regards to specific teaching tasks and time spent in those tasks. Luce and Raiffa's (1990) contention that time is an essential element of examination in research has been further expanded upon with the resulting data of the present study.

Research Question 3

For Research Question 3, the positive correlation between mean time estimates and mean WTMST scores across task was significant. For the online group, although this one is not significant, it is still a relatively strong positive correlation. For the onsite group, a relatively strong significant positive correlation exists. Siaputra's (2010) contention that temporal motivation theory suggests that people always prioritize activities which promise highest utility, and that people tend to procrastinate (i.e., spend less time) when they think the utility of

engaging in a task is low was expanded upon in the present study in relation to the findings of Research Question 3.

Comparison of the Findings with the Theoretical Framework and Previous Literature

The present study sought to expand self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2002) in terms of how it applies in the examination of the relationship between time allocation to various teaching tasks and measures of motivation related to those tasks in university level social science faculty. It was found that there were statistically significant differences in the types of motivation for college instructors in both online and onsite formats that support and expand the theory of self-determination. The present findings fill a gap and expand on the previous literature where self-determination theory has been utilized as the basis for motivation (Cox & Bumpus, 2013; De Naeghel et al., 2012; Trépanier et al., 2012), where it has been used as the basis of theory in time allocation to various work tasks (Boone et al., 2014; Meyer et al., 2004; Schriber & Gutek, 1987); where it has been used as the theoretical basis in research among teaching faculty (Assor & Kaplan, 2001; Assor et al., 2002; Cerasoli et al., 2014; Deci et al., 1981; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Reeve, 2002; Reeve et al., 1999; Reeve et al., 2003; Roth et.al, 2007; Vallerand, 1997); where it has been used as a basis for motivation among teachers across various work settings (Abdallah, 2008; Adams & Corbett, 2010; Allen & Seaman, 2009; Van Schaik, Barker & Beckstrand, 2003; Ko & Rossen, 2001; Lim et al., 2008; Maffett, 2007; Petrides & Nodine, 2005; Powell & Keen, 2006; Schoech & Helton, 2003; Van Schaik et al., 2003; Woodley, 2004; Zhao et al., 2005) and other work populations (Cheng et al., 2012.; Kidney et al., 2007; Linardopoulos, 2010).

Additionally, due to the significant main and interaction effects of the present study, it can be used within a meta-analytical framework for the aforementioned studies as well as other general

studies of motivation such as those of Ullrich-French's (2013) study that involved an examination of physical activity and sports transition from high school to university level as it relates to motivation, De Naeghel et al. (2012) study that examined reading motivation in elementary school students, and Trépanier et al. (2012) study that focused on principals of elementary and high school administrators and transitional leadership. From a temporal perspective, other meta-analytical benefits can be applied to the present study in relation to Boone et al. (2014) study that focused on time allocation to work tasks in governmental job settings, as well as Lim et al.'s (2008) study of motivation among online and onsite teaching settings examining student's achievement, motivation, and satisfaction, across online and onsite environments and more directly, Petrides and Nodine's (2005) study examining motivation of online teachers of community colleges; even more directly, expanding on the work of (Moen et al., 2013; Rajagopal & Rha, 2009; Schriber & Gutek, 1987) that examined temporal dimensions of organizational culture and work tasks.

Assumptions and Limitations

The study had a larger onsite population than online which did not give as balanced a demographic in terms of the sample. The study had a larger female population and did not give as balanced a demographic in terms of the sample. Younger (25-29) and older (60) aged participants were fewer in number and did not give as balanced a demographic in terms of the sample. "Other" comprised the largest part of the teaching discipline sample and counseling only comprised 3% which also did not give a balanced demographic across the sample. The antecedent assumptions and limitations were congruent with the consequent assumptions and limitations of the study in that there were a disproportionate number of onsite faculty in comparison to online instructors. Lubin and Ge (2012) had qualms about conducting research in

classrooms due to the student and teacher reactions or changes in behavior because of an investigator present. This same principle can apply to teachers in online and onsite platforms in terms of how social contingencies may affect their motivation for engaging in tasks. Bentley and Kyvik (2013) conducted an international study that examined the amount of time reported to be engaged in research among university faulty. The results showed that gender would be a weak predictor of time spent in teaching tasks among full-time faculty. Additionally, they concluded that teacher status (full-time, part-time, adjunct, emeritus), have been shown to be weak predictors of motivation in teaching tasks. Although, in the present study, these data were collected for descriptive purposes and to inform external validity, the present study provided further examination of the relationship between motivation and time allocated to teaching tasks among online and onsite social sciences faculty, and analyses of demographic variables across levels of motivation and task were not conducted.

Additionally, the lack of random assignment of participants who teach online versus onsite, and the type of site had not been controlled for; thus, this is also congruent with the initial assumptions and limitations. Furthermore, the number of courses participants taught was not accounted for. Finally, the lack of more in depth qualitative feedback that may have benefited the study (mixed methodology) was not employed in this study; this element could have illustrated perceptual awareness of participants' reasoning behind spending more time on particular tasks as well as perceptual experiences of teaching in specific formats. It was unknown whether participants responded based on reflections of a single or multiple course(s), the most recently taught course, an attempted average time estimate across courses they may teach in each setting, or relative to their perceptions of time allocated to tasks in the other settings. In addition, there

may be differences in allocation of time to various teaching tasks and motivation across disciplines (programs).

Implications for Practice

The present findings showed that onsite and online instructors spent significantly more time teaching and evaluating students than administrative and complementary tasks within the group samples, and time spent on evaluation of students for onsite instructors was significantly less than online instructors, but onsite instructors spent more time in class preparation than online instructors. Overall, these findings suggest that college level instructors spend much time teaching and evaluating students in both teaching settings. According to Whalen (2009), it is essential to have findings discussed across practitioners with respect to managing time as well as how to train or implement time management strategies within academic departments in both online and hybrid formats. The results showing that the online group spent a significantly greater amount of time in the teaching and evaluation of students tasks than any other tasks within the group, as well as more time in evaluation of students compared to the onsite group, indicates that online instructors may benefit from discussion of the protocols surrounding these roles among colleagues and with administrators.

The online group showed significantly greater motivation in intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, and external regulation within the group than introjected regulation and amotivation, and the onsite group also showed the same results within the group. This means that overall, both groups report carrying out teaching tasks “because it is pleasant to carry out this task,” they “find this task interesting to do,” they “like doing this task,” they feel “it is important for” them “to carry out this task,” they feel “this task allows” them “to attain work objectives that” they “consider important” and that they “find this task important for the academic success of” their

"students" because "it is pleasant to carry out this task," they find this task "interesting to do," they "like doing this task," they feel it is "important to carry out this task," they feel this task allows them to "attain work objectives" that they "consider important" and that they find this task "important for the academic success of their students" (Fernet et al. 2008, p. 277).

The effect of type of motivation was also found to be significant in the three-way factorial ANOVA. Identified regulation was significantly greater than intrinsic motivation and introjected regulation. According to the indicators of this type of motivation as measured by the WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008, p. 277), this finding may suggest that both groups find "it is important for" them "to carry out" tasks, tasks allow them "to attain work objectives that" they "consider important," and they "find" tasks "important for the academic success of" their "students" more than any other type of motivation.

Recommendations for Future Research

Studies to determine if instructor motivation and allocation of time vary across social science disciplines such as counseling, psychology, criminology, anthropology, political science, law, social work, sociology etc., and other variables such as gender, and years of experience, would be worth investigating. Also, a comparison between two and four-year colleges, utilizing the procedures of the present study would be worth investigating. A review of faculty who have experience teaching in both venues might be randomly assigned to groups (on-line versus onsite), to help control for possible differences in participants who teach on-line and onsite such as relative degree of experience teaching online versus onsite courses and differences in methods utilized to meet requirements under the five teaching tasks examined via onsite or online settings. Participants who teach online and onsite were instructed to select one venue and respond accordingly, and why they may select one venue over another, which may be their

preferred approach, was not examined. The finding that showed the online group spent a significantly greater amount of time in the teaching and the evaluation of student tasks than any other tasks within the group and more time was spent in evaluation of students, compared to the onsite group, raises questions as to why this is the case. For example, because much online teaching is asynchronous, do online faculty not track their work as accurately and don't give accurate estimates about the time it takes to evaluate their students, compared to onsite faculty who show up at campus for a specific number of hours?

Illustrating the perceptions of online instructors' self-reported motivations behind teaching and evaluating student tasks can shed further light on why they allocate more time to these tasks and if this has an impact on, or is correlated with, their level of job satisfaction, burnout, turnover and stress (Estrella, 2013; Portugal, 2013; Taris & Schreurs, 2009). Further understanding of these variables may aid in developing methods to facilitate the quality of academic experience among students and faculty and may further facilitate effective teaching. Additionally, this knowledge may provide those who offer faculty services, such as human resources departments and employee assistance programs, relevant information regarding work expectations and possible related concerns and challenges in meeting those expectations, that may better inform strategies to provide best possible services to faculty.

To better understand the reasoning of faculty behind perceptions of each type of motivation, additional qualitative research might be conducted to obtain such information. For example, according to the indicators of introjected regulation as measured by the WTMST (Fernet et al., 2008, p. 277), faculty are more engaged in tasks, "because" they "will feel bad" or "guilty not doing" a task, and will avoid feeling "bad if" they "don't do" a task. Future phenomenological investigation may offer data that would help explain the reasoning behind perceptions such as

these, and factors relative to job requirements, possible perceptions of guilt, and/or camaraderie among colleagues. It may also help to shed light on whether specific types of motivation are related to turnover, recidivism, and burnout.

Conclusion

Chapter 5 provided a summary of the purpose and results of the present study and corresponding interpretation of findings. In Research Question 1, motivation scores varied across both teaching tasks and types of motivation. This finding was shown for both the onsite and online groups. In addition, for both groups, motivation scores varied across types of motivation for each teaching task. Examination of how much time university level social science faculty spend on specific teaching tasks and in specific educational platforms (Research Question 2) showed that the online group spent a significantly greater amount of time in teaching and evaluating students than any other tasks and online instructors devoted a significantly greater amount of time evaluating students than their onsite counterparts. Further, time allocated to various teaching tasks was correlated with motivation scores. The benefit of future studies examining different programs separately could yield further data which was beyond the scope of this study. Additionally, since the lack of more in depth qualitative data was not gathered in this study, the perceptual awareness of participants' reasoning behind spending more time on particular tasks as well as perceptual experiences of teaching in specific formats would be worth further investigation.

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL WORK

Academic Honesty Policy

Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy (3.01.01) holds learners accountable for the integrity of work they submit, which includes but is not limited to discussion postings, assignments, comprehensive exams, and the dissertation or capstone project.

Established in the Policy are the expectations for original work, rationale for the policy, definition of terms that pertain to academic honesty and original work, and disciplinary consequences of academic dishonesty. Also stated in the Policy is the expectation that learners will follow APA rules for citing another person's ideas or works.

The following standards for original work and definition of *plagiarism* are discussed in the Policy:

> Learners are expected to be the sole authors of their work and to acknowledge the authorship of others' work through proper citation and reference. Use of another person's ideas, including another learner's, without proper reference or citation constitutes plagiarism and academic dishonesty and is prohibited conduct. (p. 1)
>
> Plagiarism is one example of academic dishonesty. Plagiarism is presenting someone else's ideas or work as your own. Plagiarism also includes copying verbatim or rephrasing ideas without properly acknowledging the source by author, date, and publication medium. (p. 2)

Capella University's Research Misconduct Policy (3.03.06) holds learners accountable for research integrity. What constitutes research misconduct is discussed in the Policy:

> Research misconduct includes but is not limited to falsification, fabrication, plagiarism, misappropriation, or other practices that seriously deviate from those that are commonly accepted within the academic community for proposing, conducting, or reviewing research, or in reporting research results. (p. 1)

Learners failing to abide by these policies are subject to consequences, including but not limited to dismissal or revocation of the degree.

Statement of Original Work and Signature

I have read, understood, and abided by Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy (3.01.01) and Research Misconduct Policy (3.03.06), including Policy Statements, Rationale, and Definitions.

I attest that this dissertation or capstone project is my own work. Where I have used the ideas or words of others, I have paraphrased, summarized, or used direct quotes following the guidelines set forth in the APA *Publication Manual*.

Learner name and date: Pete Cooper 5-22-17