REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
YILDIZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION
MA PROGRAM IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES (ENGLISH) EDUCATION

MASTER'S THESIS

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL INSTRUCTORS' SATISFACTION WITH ONLINE TEACHING AND INTERNET SELF-EFFICACY

Esra ECE
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SUPERVISOR
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İSTANBUL
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İngilizce Ders Veren Öğretim Elemanlarının Çevrimiçi Eğitimdeki Memnuniyetleri ile Internet Kullanımı Öz-yeterlilikleri Arasındaki İlişki
Esra ECE
Ocak, 2022

Kurumlar, 2020 ve 2021 yıllarında ortaya çıkan küresel sağlık sorunları nedeniyle birçok eğitim programında online eğitime geçmek zorunda kaldı. Ancak çevrimiçi eğitimin bazı bölümleri henüz tam olarak yapılandırılmamıştı. Çevrimiçi eğitim, iç ve dış faktörleri içeren karmaşık bir yapıya sahiptir. Sonuç olarak, İngilizce öğretim elemanları yüz yüze öğretim alışkanlıklarını değiştirmek ve sınıf içi iletişimin yeni yollarını benimsemek gibi farklılıklar yaşamıştır. Bu nedenle çevrimiçi eğitimde profesyonel olarak ihtiyaç ve beklentileri farklılık göstermektedir. Önceki araştırmalar, çevrimiçi öğretime yönelik eğitimcilere genel bir bakış üzerine odaklanmaktadır. Bu çalışma, çevrimiçi İngilizce öğretmenlerinin çevrimiçi eğitimdeki memnuniyetlerini ve cinsiyet, öğretmenlik deneyimi ve en yüksek eğitim derecesi değişkenleriyle olası ilişkisini belirlemeyi amaçlamıştır. İnternetin çevrimiçi eğitim aracı olması nedeniyle internet öz-yeterliği de çalışmanın ana alanlarından biridir. İnternet kullanımı konusunda kendini verimli hissetmenin, daha yüksek bir iş doyumu düzeyine ulaşmada etkili bir faktör olduğu varsayılmaktadır. Örneklem 213 katılımcıdan oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışma karma bir araştırma tasarımına sahiptir. Çevrimiçi Eğitmen Memnuniyeti Ölçümü-OISM, (Bolliger vd., 2014) ve İnternet Öz-yeterlik Ölçeği (Kim ve Glassman, 2013) nicel verilerin toplanmasında kullanılmıştır. Verilerin analizi için iç tutarlılık güvenirlik ve normallik testleri, Pearson korelasyon ve çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Nitel veriler görüşmeler yoluyla toplanmıştır. Sonuçlar, memnuniyet ile İnternet öz-yeterliği arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Alt ölçek düzeyinde cinsiyet ve en yüksek eğitim düzeyi değişkenlerine ilişkin farklılıklar vardır. Görüşmeler, katılımcıların daha derinden anlaşılmasını sağlamıştır. Ortak temalar; sınıf ve zaman yönetimi, kurumsal destek, mesleki gelişim, çevrimiçi ders içeriği ve kaliteyi artırmaya yönelik önerilerdir. Sonuçlar literatürle karşılaştırılmış ve olası nedenler tartışılmıştır. Gelecekteki araştırmalar için çıkarımlar ve öneriler belirtilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: çevrimiçi İngilizce eğitimi, öğretim elemanı memnuniyeti, Internet kullanımı öz-yeterliliği

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL INSTRUCTORS' SATISFACTION WITH ONLINE TEACHING AND INTERNET SELF-EFFICACY

Esra ECE
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Institutions had to shift to online education for several educational programs due to the global health issues raised during 2020 and 2021. The serious circumstance made the shift inevitable; however, some parts of online education have not been structured fully yet. Online education has a complex structure that includes internal and external factors. Consequently, English instructors have experienced differences such as changing their face-to-face teaching habits and adopting new ways of classroom communication to emergency remote teaching. Therefore, their needs and expectations as a professional vary in this period. Although, the previous research focuses on a general overview of educators towards online teaching, this study aimed to figure out online EFL instructors' satisfaction related to gender, years of teaching experience, and the highest educational degree variables. Internet self-efficacy is also one of the main domains of the study since the Internet is the means of online education. It was hypothesized that feeling efficient about Internet use is an influential factor in reaching a higher level of instructor satisfaction. The sample consisted of 213 participants. This study had a mixed-method research design. "The Online Instructor Satisfaction Measure-OISM" (Bolliger et al., 2014) and "The Internet Self-efficacy Scale" (Kim and Glassman, 2013) were used to collect quantitative data. Internal consistency reliability and normality tests, Pearson correlation and multiple regression analysis were conducted for data analysis. The qualitative data were gathered through interviews. The results showed a statistically significant correlation between online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy. There were differences related to gender and the highest educational degree variables at the subscale level. The interviews provided a deeper understanding of participants. The common themes were classroom and time management, institutional support, professional development, online course development, and suggestions to improve the quality. The results were compared to the literature, and possible reasons were discussed. The implications and recommendations for future research were remarked.

Keywords: Online English language teaching, instructor satisfaction, Internet self-efficacy

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CALL: Computer Assisted Language Learning

CHE: Council of Higher Education

ELT: English Language Teaching

ERT: Emergency Remote Teaching

SPSS: Statistics Package for Social Sciences

UN: The United Nations

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Fund

WHO: World Health Organization

1. INTRODUCTION

For years, technological developments have made significant changes in many fields, and education is one. With those changes, the traditional way of teaching, which is physically synchronized, face-to-face, and at schools, has been transformed via different means. Distance education has become an option at first and then becomes an alternative to traditional education. Nevertheless, until the last years and especially the pandemic, institutions preferred to provide face-to-face programs at higher education. However, the unexpected circumstances caused a compulsory shift for all teaching professionals globally.

The Coronavirus (Covid19) outbreak occurred in December 2019. Later, The World Health Organization (WHO) defined it as a global pandemic in March 2020 (WHO, 2020). Many countries, including Turkey, had to take precautions to prevent the virus from spreading. Therefore, they set strict rules such as lockdowns and social distancing protocols. The precautions also applied to educational institutions, and they had to conduct educational operations online. Since education is a fundamental human right (UN, 1984), emergent actions have been taken to facilitate education (UNESCO, 2020). According to UNESCO and UNICEF (2020), more than 1.5 billion learners worldwide have been affected by the cause of closures. Still, the pandemic is not over, and some institutions offer online education. Instructors had to work from home during spring 2020, fall, and spring 2021.

Even before the pandemic, there has been a rapid increase in the number of fully online courses offered in higher education (Allen, Seaman, 2016; Eom, Ashill, 2016). As one of the developing countries, the number of online courses at the university level increased in Turkey. The Council of Higher Education (CHE) regulations enable 30% of every face-to-face program to be provided online (Higher Education Council, 2014).

Whereas some institutions had already started to provide online courses as a part of their educational programs before the pandemic, most instructors had not experienced teaching online before. One of the biggest challenges was using new

approaches and adjusting teaching habits acquired in a traditional face-to-face teaching context. Extra workload and intensive working hours were typical challenges from the transition period between online and face-to-face (Sanje, Varnalı, 2014; Gay, 2016). The faculty members need to spend more time online teaching (Gazza, 2017). For instance, online instructors have to spend more time and have higher self-efficacy to deal with students' emotional states like isolation and feeling invisible (Reilly et al., 2012).

Although the technology has been integrated into education for years and instructors are accustomed to using the Internet in their daily life, not all of them have been ready to teach fully online. Also, using the Internet for daily routines does not necessarily mean that all instructors are so positive and do not have any negative perceptions of teaching online. The new era is full of surprises for many instructors, and there have been similar cases for years. One study revealed that only 29.1% of the respondents agreed that faculty members "accept the value and legitimacy of online education" (Allen, Seaman, 2016, 6).

There are several factors to be investigated to provide a smoother transition to online education. For instance, investigating online English instructors' satisfaction in online teaching, who have been used to teach face-to-face before, and comparing its possible relation to Internet self-efficacy are necessary to understand language instructors' perspective of teaching online.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

The transition to online education was not a choice, but it was an obligation. The primary domain of the emergency distance education strategy was providing the learning and teaching processes. As a matter of fact, the Covid-19 pandemic clarified that the educational system was vulnerable to external dangers (Bozkurt, Sharma, 2020). It forced a quick shift to online education while some of the institutions did not have proper learning management systems to deliver the courses fully online. Therefore, some other online meeting applications had to be used for educational operations. On the other hand, instructors were not provided adequate technical support due to the time constraint. Likewise, the transition period did not allocate preparation time for material development and curriculum adaptation. Thus, it has

revealed that institutions, instructors and students were unprepared and not engaged in a well-planned online education context (Bozkurt, Sharma, 2020).

Those circumstances brought about more responsibilities and workload for instructors. While they were trying to deal with pandemic and its outcomes such as lockdowns and quarantine, they also had new roles in online education. Those roles comprised even connection to students and teach them how to use the online platforms for lessons. As a consequence of that increasing workload, faculty satisfaction has become an issue to be investigated within the online education framework. When literature is reviewed, the number of articles on "faculty satisfaction" is considerably fewer than "student satisfaction" in terms of the online teaching within the online teaching scope (Berbegal-Mirabent et al., 2018; Hoekstra, 2014). It is concerning since instructor satisfaction has the potential influence on the outcomes of online teaching (Bolliger et al., 2014). Likewise, Internet self-efficacy can also possibly influence online teaching, requiring instructional operations using Internet-based tasks. Using the Internet for daily or educational purposes as an efficient user can also show differences. It can be assumed that most educators are accustomed to using the Internet for searching and spending time on social media applications; however, it should also be considered that technology integration into education is more than that. Therefore, Internet self-efficacy has become an essential qualification in online teaching. Nonetheless, the number of studies related to Internet self-efficacy is limited. Instructors' Internet self-efficacy can also be categorized as a personal factor of online instructor satisfaction, and it can change instructor satisfaction level positively or negatively. Since the Internet is one of the main elements of online education, Internet self-efficacy should be considered while investigating the factors related to satisfaction.

From teaching English as a foreign language aspect, it can be claimed that instructors of English preparatory programs are one of the major sources of language input. The input has been provided during instructor-to-student interaction, which can have a different pattern in the online context. For instance, English instructors use dynamic activities in face-to-face classes, allowing students to work in pairs and interact easily. Additionally, instructors can get help from nonverbal communication elements such as hand movements and mimics, which are helpful, especially for students with low English proficiency levels. However, sometimes it is impossible to

see students' faces or hear them properly during online lessons. The student-to-student interaction can also be limited because some online learning management systems are not very useful for creating breakout rooms for pair work activities. On the other hand, instructors can integrate various tools to provide authentic materials and cultural diversity. Online courses can be advantageous for improving course content in that way. Consequently, the needs and expectations of instructors have been changing since they have become online language instructors, and those changes can affect their contentment with teaching.

Both of those concepts, online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy, are related to instructors whose well-being and professional abilities are directly linked to the quality of education. These elements need to be examined, and their correlations should be investigated to improve the quality of online teaching. Ignoring instructors' emotions, attitudes, and professional fulfillment makes achieving total success impossible. Furthermore, with the help of careful planning and attention to the necessities of online teaching, it can be an ideal option of traditional education for both the institutions and learners (Yapar, 2018).

1.2. Significance of the Study

The serious health issues have made online education inevitable; however, some parts of online education have not been structured fully, bringing more research areas. It is a new chapter for many instructors with possible challenges from various aspects such as pedagogical, professional, and technological. This transition can be called as emergency remote teaching, which enables instructors to teach with the help of the technology to provide continuity of the learning at a distance (Trust, Whalen, 2020)

Within the remote teaching environment and the complexity of the learning paradigm, instructors have become responsible for course organization, content method, and delivery systems (Hogan, McKnight, Legier 2006). The workload and the new responsibilities under the serious conditions may cause dissatisfaction. Hogan and McKnight (2007) asserted that online education could be quite demanding and cause burnout.

Many studies suggest that instructor responsiveness, effective use of technology, or interaction are crucial for student satisfaction in online learning (Bailie, 2015; Bolliger, Martindale, 2004; Mupinga et al., 2006). Similarly, several studies have revealed that some instructors reach the satisfaction level in the online teaching environment and are willing to continue teaching online (Conceição, 2006; Hartman et al., 2000; Fredericksen et al., 2000).

As a result, it can be claimed that without having competent, efficient, and satisfied instructors, improving the quality of online education would not be possible. Therefore, investigating instructors' satisfaction and their Internet self-efficacy can provide some new ideas to improve the quality of online education.

However, the needs of faculty are investigated in general from the broader perspectives like instructors' overall experience (Ryan et al., 2004; Cohen, 2001; Gallant, 2000; McQuiggan, 2007; Schifter, 2000) or online teaching requirements (Baran et al., 2011; Bawane, Spector, 2009). The number of studies on specific points of instructors' sense of professional contentment is limited (Meyer, 2013).

Specifically, the English language, the needs of the online English language instructors, and their attitudes towards technology need to be addressed as the main concerns since there are also unique needs of ELT and the critical need to understand the nature of language teaching (Dede et al., 2008). Using technology effectively and professionally can enhance their teaching skills, as well. Thanks to the nature of online education, educational software, and Web tools can easily be adapted to the course content. English teachers can create educational resources by using videos, graphics, or presentations, and doing those activities virtually can save time compared to the traditional classrooms. However, the success of those kinds of technology-integrated activities depends on the instructor's willingness, course planning skill, and ability to use them relevantly (Acosta-Tello, 2015).

Therefore, the present study aims to find out English language instructors' satisfaction in emergency remote teaching and their Internet self-efficacy levels, which are fundamental notions of instructors' well-being and sense of competency. With the help of the quantitative and qualitative research designs, it is aimed to contribute to the development of online teaching by investigating the possible correlations between those notions and the instructors' perspectives.

1.3. Purpose Statement

The obligatory shift to online education has brought more research areas. Specifically, instructor satisfaction and the other factors related to that concept have not been investigated enough so far. Lack of enough support and research has the potential to cause some problems and ambiguity for the educators. There is a need to investigate those factors related to the instructors and their influences. The study aimed to analyze online English language instructors' satisfaction in online teaching and its relation with Internet self-efficacy. Instructors' levels of Internet self-efficacy and online instructor satisfaction were examined regarding demographic factors such as years of experience, gender, and the highest obtained educational degree. Briefly, the purpose of the study is to reveal the instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy beliefs of online English instructors who experienced a new teaching model. The interviews were designed reveal the perceptions and experiences of online English language instructors so that new ideas and actions can be envisaged. It also aimed to reach a broader perspective toward online teaching needs and dynamics, which would also be beneficial for online faculties to rearrange professional development programs and expectations from newly hired instructions and revise the organization of online language programs.

1.4. Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to explore instructors' satisfaction in online teaching and Internet self-efficacy levels. The instructors who have been teaching English online at English Preparatory Schools in Turkey are the research subjects. The following research questions attempted to examine the following research questions:

1. What is the level of online instructors' satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy in emergency remote teaching?
2. What is the relationship between online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy?
3. Do online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy differ according to some independent variables (gender, years of teaching English

experience - traditional and online education and the highest educational degree)?

4. What are the online instructors' perceptions of satisfaction in online teaching and Internet self-efficacy?

1.5. Definitions of Terms

Distance education: An umbrella term referring to teaching-learning that occurs via geographical distance and sometimes time difference between the teacher/instructor and the learners. American National Education Association defines distance education as "a form of education in which courses are delivered via the Internet (or other forms of digital technologies that may evolve from the Internet that exists today) without face-to-face interaction between student and instructor" in their policy statement ("National Education Association," n.d., para. 3).

Emergency remote teaching: A temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis circumstances (Hodges et al., 2020, 2).

Face-to-face: Being present at the same place and at the same time. Allen and Seaman (2008) explained face-to-face instruction as "courses in which zero to 29% of the content is delivered online; this category includes both traditional and web facilitated courses" (p. 74).

Fully Online: It refers that there are no face-to-face interactions throughout the course, and its content delivery is provided through a course management system or online meeting software. The definition of "fully online" includes the synchronous courses and their recordings provided on the course management systems such as Blackboard or Moodle (Franker, 2016, 16)

Instructor satisfaction: "The perception that the process of teaching in the online environment is efficient, effective and beneficial for individuals" (Bolliger, İnan, Wasilik, 2014, 184).

Internet self-efficacy: Users' perceptions of their confidence and expectation while using the Internet (Kao, Tsai, 2009, 67).

Job satisfaction: An attitudinal value that indicates how people feel about their profession (Spector, 1997, 2).

Online course: The course activity is carried out online; no need for face-to-face sessions or on-campus activity (Sener, 2015).

Online education: Mainly used to describe all information and communication technology-based learning approaches even though "e-learning," "Distance learning and education," and "online learning" have also been used (Lee, 2010, 278).

Online instructor: One who facilitates online education and teaches course material.

Online teaching: A type of distance education consisting of online interaction with materials, learners, and instructors (Denniston, 2020, 30).

Self-efficacy in online courses: "Assessment of personal competence in light of the perceived demands for a particular teaching task" (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, 2007, 945).

Synchronous Course: A type of course in which teaching and learning take place simultaneously. Students and the instructor interact during class time on a given course topic (Lapke, 2009, 9).

1.6. Summary

Teaching fully online is a new phenomenon for many English language instructors, and the relation between online instructors' satisfaction and their Internet self-efficacy may show some other points for the development of online courses. Online instructor satisfaction does not have a broad space in the literature on online language education, and many studies have mainly investigated learners' satisfaction. Therefore, this study spotlighted more personal issues: online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy and their influences on each other. In the present study, online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy were chosen as the primary research areas because online education makes online instructors work more autonomously and independently. The online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy are self-perceived notions that can reflect an individual's thoughts. Making comparisons between them by examining their potential relation may suggest the current situation and future developments to be planned. It was hypothesized that

online instructors who had higher self-efficacy in using the Internet practices felt more professionally satisfied than those who did not engage in such perceptions.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review provides information in related areas with the different study results. To contribute a broader perspective to the theoretical framework of the study, those theories are discussed below. The literature review is organized into three sections: (a) online education, (c) instructor satisfaction, and (c) self-efficacy.

2.1. Online Education

March of 2020 was the time when the World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 as a global pandemic (WHO, 2020). This global circumstance has become a vital issue for Turkey, as well. Following this, The Council of Higher Education (CHE) announced that all the higher education components (2020) of state and foundation universities would be physically closed for three weeks. The education programs were decided to be delivered via distance education medium. A new page was opened to start an era.

A long time ago, in 1999, the AAUP (American Association of University Professors) expressed that "distance education is not a future possibility, it is a current reality" (p. 1), and now in 2021, it has become "the current reality" without any alternative. Consequently, the significance of the research on the topic has been raised. The literature has been reviewed to examine the evolution of online education. As follows, remarkable theories and related studies have been presented.

2.1.1. Development of Online Education

Distance education (or "remote teaching") is not a new model since it has been used for over hundred years in its most basic form (Imel, 1998). Moore and Kearsley (1996) described distance education as a learning environment where 'students and teachers are separated by distance and sometimes by the time' (p. 1). The Internet emerged in the 1990s, and "online" and "blended" education started (Palvia et al., 2018). The most prominent change of the era has also changed the

distance educational medium to online; therefore, online education is a relatively new educational model. Today, distance education is perceived as online education that delivers course content via the Internet (Kentnor, 2015, 22). Curran defined online education as a process in which teachers and learners communicate and deliver the course content via Internet-based technologies (Curran, 2008).

Online education is also defined as "learning that occurs partially or entirely over the Internet. This definition excludes purely print-based correspondence education, broadcast television or radio, video conferencing, videocassettes, and stand-alone educational software programs that do not have a significant Internet-based instructional component." (Means et al., 2013, 9).

Online education has many advantages, like being convenient, flexible (Smedley, 2010), and interactive (Leszczyński et al., 2018). Also, it provides some opportunities to the institutions, and it can be claimed that it is beneficial for higher education. For example, Arkorful and Abaidoo (2015) reported that online education could be cost-effective for universities because it reimburses the lack of academics, instructors, and technicians, and it also decreases physical expenses. At the same time, online education enables reaching more students with a limited number of faculty members (Deming et al., 2015). According to Lu and Chiou (2010), one of the benefits of online education is being available without location and time limitations, and instructors can easily follow learners' improvements. Thanks to the developments in technology, the traditional understanding of face-to-face education, which requires campus areas and has location boundaries, has started to change, and it is no longer the primary domain of education while technology-based instruction has become more common (Lu, Chiou, 2010; Zavarella, Ignash 2009).

On the other hand, one of the challenges of online education is the adaptation of instructors, and it demands new approaches and changing traditional teaching habits. The differences between traditional and online teaching have been recognized by scholars (Davis, Rose, 2007; Wilson, Stacey, 2004; Hampel, Stickler, 2005).

According to Zhang et al. (2004), advantages of online teaching are immediate feedback, motivating learners and constituting social communities while being instructor-centered, location boundaries and requiring expensive tools to achieve are some disadvantages.

As a consequence, some instructors have a critical approach to online education. All the processes with those changes cause extra workload for the instructors (Sanje, Varnalı, 2014). Also, faculty experience some challenges with online instructional tools and meeting the demands of the institution and students (Chiasson et al., 2015).

The majority of the instructors are concerned about online education since they do not have adequate support and training while their workload increases and adaptation to the online environment (Ali, 2010; Hahn, Lester, 2012). Another study found out that some instructors were concerned about excessive workload and time consumption which were the potential causes of burnout (Hogan, McKnight, 2007). Limited interaction is concerning for some (Bower, 2001). The results of Faculty Attitudes toward Technology revealed that only nine percent of faculty strongly agree with the idea of the equivalence between online and traditional classes' outcomes (Jaschik, Lederman, 2014).

2.2. Emergency Remote Teaching

To clarify the terminology of the study and express better the study background, emergency remote teaching requires specific definition. In the literature, it has been defined as "being in contrast to experiences that planned from the beginning and designed to be online to a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis circumstances" (as cited in Achen, 2021, 7). In emergency remote teaching environment, both educators and students are not ready or accustomed to instruction from distance (Ray, 2020). Consequently, this change to online medium was a significant transition for several educators.

Both online and emergency remote teaching involve a spatial distance (Bozkurt, Sharma, 2020). While online teaching has a structure and a well-planned course organization, emergency remote teaching demands a quick shift without well-considered plan. When online teaching has been designed according to needs of teaching and learning paradigms, it can be a good alternative to traditional education. However, emergency remote teaching can be considered as a quick and temporary solution and an obligation during a crisis (Bozkurt, Sharma, 2020). Even online teaching was not a strategically planned type of teaching for several educators;

therefore, emergency remote teaching has indicated directly the needs and expectations to conduct educational activities online under any circumstances.

Some drawbacks of remote teaching can be students' distraction because of using the Internet for other purposes during the lessons (Becker, 2020). Losing connection with students due to time and location boundaries can be also concerning for some educators (Walz, 2020). Emergency remote teaching requires teachers and students to be proficient users of new technologies (Lipton, 2021). As a main barrier, online instruction design and delivery can be some examples (Safi et al., 2020). As a result, it can be said that emergency remote teaching is separated from online teaching because of the obligatory conditions and time limitation.

2.3. Online English Language Teaching

Online English teaching and learning has been increasing through the development of the Internet and Web-based tools. Growth of the technology and changing approaches to teaching English are in relation to each other (Yang, 2011). The advancement also re-structured the instruction by altering how to teach a foreign language and the proficiency level of it (Chapelle, 2009). In Turkey, English has been teaching as a foreign language, which has learners usually from the same country and share a native language. Majority of them learn English in classroom and they do not have adequate input outside to keep the connection. Therefore, the classroom practices and instructors are the main sources to learn the language.

After the invention of computers, especially after the mid-1900s, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has become a field in language education. CALL has been an improving field since it includes new theories and approaches, developments in educational technology and pedagogical operations. Being adaptable to different technological tools such as mobile devices and personal computers and allowing to integrate various software and applications via online platforms are the main advantages of CALL. Even the computer appeared as a strong and functional aid, computer-assisted language learning still comprises the role of a teacher and other elements of instructional operations (Kılıçkaya, 2012).

When the dynamics of online language learning environment are recognized, the belief that teachers who have been teaching successfully in face-to-face classes

can also adapt their teaching online without having any problem is not supported anymore (Sun, 2011). Online language education can be advantageous for being flexible, easy to adapt, and providing authentic material, the possibility to individualize, and promote learning autonomy (Gacs et al., 2020). However, online teaching limits non-verbal communication in the classroom, such as gestures or body language. A previous study also confirmed the importance of nonverbal communication elements, which helped teachers understand students who had low English proficiency (Kao, 2019).

Student-to-student interaction is also limited in online language classrooms. Pair or group work activities do not have the same procedure as in a face-to-face classroom where students can sit together and interact easily. The limited interaction can be a challenge for online material development as the limited direct interaction puts barriers to preparing materials for different learning styles (Escobar, Morrison, 2020). Another study on online language teaching reported that online instructors felt the lack of face-to-face communication, especially those with a more dynamic teaching style based on students' active performance (Cahill, Catanzaro, 1997).

Online language teaching also allows using various types of materials, including more listening and video activities, which can increase students' motivation (Hubackova et al., 2011). This variety is limited to materials and has the potential of bringing cultural diversity to online classes. Ekici (2018) investigated the online tutoring impact, and the findings suggested a positive role of online tutoring for cultural diversity. It can also extend the use of the target language after class hours because it makes students share an activity or respond to a message via the online platform, which helps them use this language for real-life experiences (Al Shlowiy, 2016).

In language teaching, social interaction serves a collaborative learning environment (Lantolf, 2006). Interaction is about creating ideas, reshaping the existing cognitive concepts and developing a new understanding after experiencing something new in a sociocultural context (Zong, 2008). Especially in EFL contexts, learners benefit from social interaction by engaging in instructional activities. Therefore, fostering interaction in English is essential during second language development (Dörnyei, Murphey, 2003). Interaction can be between learner-to-learner, instructor-to-learner and also learner-to-content (Moore, 1989).

Although it is a fundamental element of language education, interaction patterns can show differences in face-to-face and online classroom settings. Having a learner-centered classrooms can be easier to design for some instructors. In contrast, it can be also claimed that online setting provides more opportunities to generate a discussion or new ways of constructing knowledge (Brooks, 2010).

Online classes usually includes discussion boards, emailing and synchronous chat (Ya Ni, 2013). Online interaction occurs through reading, writing, listening and speaking activities based on course materials or other provided resources (Al Shlowiy, 2016). Using synchronous chat is a useful tool to foster interaction because it requires learners to think, write or speak in English. Online education enables learners and instructors interact anywhere and anytime (Çavuş, 2007). The instructor-to-learner interaction can comprise guiding, supporting and encouraging the learners (Moore, Kearsley, 2012). At the same time, it can be controversial for instructors who do not have online teaching experience or self-efficacy to conduct the online courses by building up adequate connections between themselves and learners (Coppola et al., 2002).

As a result, it can be asserted that online language teaching requires new teaching methods and course planning (Gacs et al., 2020). English language instructors may need to include a course designer role in which they need to build the connection between technology and pedagogy (Colpaert, 2006). This can also replace the teacher-centered instruction with student-centered one by putting the teacher in the planner and guide roles (Cahill, Catanzaro, 1997).

2.3.1. Theoretical Framework of Online Education

2.3.1.1. Transactional Theory

In 1972, Michael Moore used the transactional theory for the first time. The basic definition of distance education would be summarized as the location separation between learners and instructors. After Moore's theory, the understanding of distance has become "not simply a geographic separation of learners and teachers, but more importantly… a pedagogical concept" (Moore, 1993, 20). The separation can be about location and time, which has brought the asynchronous and synchronous types into distance education.

In Moore's work, the other elements of separation of the instructors and learners are mentioned as follows:

> "With separation, there is a psychological and communications space to be crossed, a space of potential misunderstanding between the inputs of the instructor and those of the learner. It is this psychological and communications space that is the transactional distance" (Moore, 1993, 20).

Moore defies six elements to be integrated into the structure of the program, which are:

1. Presentation: How to introduce the content.
2. Motivational Support: How to increase motivation
3. Critical and Analytical Skills: Cognitive skills are expected to develop during the program.
4. Provision of Advice: Support provided by teachers
5. Practice and Evaluation: How to process the new knowledge to practice. Teacher's feedback on students' work.
6. Creation of Knowledge: The transforming input to the product with the help of the teacher's support.

This theory proposes that location is not the only determining factor in the effectiveness of instruction. Although location is supposed to be the main challenge for distance education, the real obstacle is caused by too much structure and little interaction between the learner and instructor.

2.3.1.2. Transformative Learning Theory

This theory focuses on adult education and how learners confirm their opinions with the new information (Mezirow, 1991).

Mezirow defines the theory as:

> "Perspective transformation is the process of becoming critically aware of how and why our assumptions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand, and feel about our world; changing these structures of habitual expectation to make possible a more inclusive, discriminating, and integrative

perspective; and, finally, making choices or otherwise acting upon these new understandings" (p. 167).

This theory claims that one's point of view changes the more they learn, and it enables them to recognize new concepts and ideas. When applied to online faculty, it demonstrates how an individual's existing ideas can negatively affect their motivation and ability to adapt their teaching from face-to-face to online (Baran et al., 2011; McQuiggan, 2012).

2.3.2. Quality of Online Education

With major changes in daily life and especially in education, the quality, effectiveness, and contribution of online education have been discussed by critics.

Quality is an indispensable element of education. Even though the obligations require a quick change, institutions are expected to provide good quality education. Bates (2019) defined the requirements of a good quality instructional design as "clear learning objectives, carefully structured content, controlled workloads for faculty and students, integrated media, relevant student activities, and assessment strongly tied to desired learning outcomes" (p. 167).

There are some criteria of good quality in online education. The Online Learning Consortium established criteria for quality (The 5 Pillars: Online Learning Consortium Quality Framework, 2015). To help organizations increase the quality of practices of online education, a quality framework was constituted. The principles of the framework are learning effectiveness, cost-effectiveness and institutional commitment, access, faculty satisfaction, and student satisfaction. As the Sloan Consortium proposes, faculty satisfaction is one of the five pillars of quality (2002). The faculty satisfaction principle aims to achieve the status of being pleased with teaching online, citing appreciation and happiness (Sloan Consortium, 2002).

2.3.3. Role of Faculty in Online Education

Sherry (1996) described successful distance faculty as "a caring, concerned teacher who is confident, experienced, at ease with the equipment, uses the media creatively, and maintains a high level of interactivity." This definition brings variable skills to master. Schlosser and Anderson (1993) listed some new skills to fulfill the role of distance educators (as cited in Sherry, 1996, 32-37):

1. understanding the nature and philosophy of distance education;

2. identifying learner characteristics at distant sites;

3. designing and developing interactive courseware to suit each new technology;

4. adapting teaching strategies to deliver instruction at a distance;

5. organizing instructional resources in a format suitable for independent study;

6. training and practice in the use of telecommunications systems;

7. becoming involved in the organization, collaborative planning, and decision- making;

8. evaluating student achievement, attitudes, and perceptions at distant sites; and

9. dealing with copyright issues

Later, Palloff et al. (2001) identified the expected qualifications of an online instructor as using collaborative learning technologies and ideas, increasing personal interaction, integrating real-life experiences, and allowing the natural learning process.

With those expectations from a good online faculty member, instructors need to apply learner-centered pedagogy to increase interaction in lessons and be in harmony with the characteristics of online education. To fulfill the influential online instructor role, faculty members need to be open to learning new knowledge while they follow the developments in technology and pedagogy at the same time (Savaş, 2006).

2.3.3.1. Role of Online Instructor

Instructors' role cannot be underestimated in traditional or online education because of their essential role with several responsibilities. Farmer and Ramsdale (2016) defined the online instructor's essential role as the leader and facilitator to guide students, model desired behaviors, and administer and foster discussions. A recent exploratory study was conducted to describe online instructors' roles and critical competencies for online teaching by interviewing award-winning online faculty members. Based on those interviews, five different roles were generated:

facilitator, course designer, content manager, subject matter expert, and mentor (Martin et al., 2019). Easton (2003) asserted that an online instructor's role needs a paradigm shift, including instructional time and space, virtual classroom management techniques, and supporting students' engagement. It can be suggested that the instructor role is essential for achieving quality education because of its complex multitasking position.

2.3.4. Theoretical Conceptualizing of Satisfaction

This theory was proposed by Herzberg et al. (1959), and it classifies the encouraging factors as motivators and hygiene factors are related to dissatisfaction notions. According to this theory, hygiene can be about company policies, supervision, and relationship with co-workers, working conditions, salary, status, and security, decreasing dissatisfaction. On the other hand, motivators increase satisfaction, and the five motivators have been identified as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and the work itself (Herzberg et al., 1957). Motivators are observed as intrinsic factors increasing satisfaction, but they do not compulsorily decrease satisfaction when absent (Herzberg et al., 1959). Dissatisfaction does not mean the opposite of satisfaction even though they are related. Although hygiene factors decrease satisfaction when present, they do not necessarily increase it. Consequently, this theory suggests that an employee's satisfaction cannot be increased by only reforming the hygiene factors. To contribute permanent and long-term satisfaction, administrators need to provide motivator factors.

Following, Hagedorn (2000) suggested another theory that claims that some factors trigger faculty satisfaction. Trigger theory recognizes each factor, which can be about emotional stages and family issues, as an opportunity to raise or lower faculty satisfaction. This theory also admits that each factor influences faculty satisfaction in higher education. In addition to Herzberg et al.'s hygiene and motivator mediators, trigger theory also includes demographics and environmental conditions as three mediators of the conceptual model of faculty satisfaction.

It can be concluded that each theory has its aspect with different variables to influence faculty satisfaction. Even though the variables are categorized differently,

they all share that faculty satisfaction is influenced by different factors and can decrease or increase accordingly (Herzog, 2010).

2.3.4.1. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is described as a sentimental status in which one perceives many components of their work and related environment (Dunnette et al., 2001). As an early definition, Locke (1969) identifies job satisfaction as a positive emotional state caused by one's job. Later, it is also defined as an emotional reaction to someone's job situation (Weiss, 2002). Instructor satisfaction was also described as "teachers' overall attitude and views toward their working conditions and profession" (Honying, 2007, 11). Chamberlain et al. (2016) defined satisfaction related to a job as a combination of individuals' evaluations of task performance, emotions, and values they attribute to a job.

Some variables affecting satisfaction are age, education level, work experience, and emotional state (Dodd-McCue, Wright, 1996). Bad management, high-stress level, low control level, and not being an active decision-maker are related to decreasing satisfaction levels (Bogg, Cooper, 1994). Satisfaction is a broad term that consists of different factors. Honying (2007) suggested that teaching, administration, and school quality directly point to satisfaction. Faculty satisfaction is an element resulting from the positive emotional state of one's experience, and it includes intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions (Pan et al., 2015). By bringing those dimensions together, satisfaction can be reckoned to consist of different layers to reach the top. Consequently, it is a complex term to discuss since it links emotional well-being and other environmental factors. Therefore, the related literature is reviewed to analyze both theoretically and empirically.

2.3.5. Factors Affecting Online Faculty Satisfaction

Studies related to faculty satisfaction have different aspects. In general, literature can be organized under three main categories: *student-related*, *instructor-related,* and *institution-related* factors (Bolliger, Wasilik, 2009).

Student interaction

Students' participation in the lessons and their achievements appear as the factors of instructor satisfaction, and it can be one of the primary sources (Bolliger et al.,

2014). When instructors have active, successful, or motivated students in their online classes, their satisfaction is expected to be higher. It can be estimated that instructors who rated student interaction higher would have higher satisfaction in the online teaching experience (Fredericksen et al., 2000). Bolliger and Wasilik developed Online Faculty Satisfaction Measure, and by administering it to online faculty at a higher education institution, they found out that student-related factors were the most significant ones (2009).

Instructor-related factor

Planning the course, adapting, and delivering course content are factors of the online teaching environment. Some studies found out that those were one of the main concerns of online instructors (Betts, 1998, O'Quinn, Corry, 2002). It can result from the changing role of instructors in online contexts and encountering new types of task cycles (Conceição, 2006).

Those concerns can also be about the quality of online teaching or expected learning results. Evaluating learning processes and the effectiveness of the course design is in another structure, as well. Therefore, assessment of the course outcomes is one of the concerns of online instructors (Fredericksen et al., 2000).

Classroom management also shows some differences because of the nature of online teaching. Instructors may need to adapt their existing classroom management techniques; however, some also expressed that online classroom management was more straightforward than the face-to-face classroom (Bolliger, Wasilik, 2009).

Faculty Support

Faculty support is essential to achieve a certain level of instructor satisfaction. A study with experienced online instructors focused on instructors' beliefs. The results showed that online instructors believe that experience, persistence, being determined to self-improvement, and training need to be in integration because only training cannot produce the traits of the expert online instructor. In addition, training and external support from the institutions are essential values of the process of being an expert online instructor (McGee, Windes, 2017).

Professional Development

The institutions can promote professional development, and it can be planned individually. Professional development is a positive and motivating factor for online instructors. Online teaching requires faculty to regularly attend professional development (Ali, 2010). Professional development contributes to teaching and helps acquire new perspectives, finding interesting areas in their professional career.

Additionally, instructors can continue their individual growth through professional development, leading to an ongoing learning process similar to the learners' experience. This continual learning process enables the transformation of one. The transformation theory (Mezirow, 1991) also confirms that processing the new information changes how one perceives, comprehends, and reacts to a new idea or concept. Therefore, professional development is also critical for instructors' online teaching experiences.

Institution-related factors

Faculty members need support from their institutions by accepting the reality of the biggest shift between traditional to online education and its potential challenges. Stewart et al. (2010) compared international, inter-state, and off-site faculty members and they suggested that instructors who are more adaptive, self-disciplined, with good command of technology and time management skills are more willing to continue online teaching. To achieve faculty satisfaction in online teaching, variable factors such as technology and computer use, sufficient training, and flexible working hours must be ensured. (Kilgore, Mangrum, 2013; Cherry, Flora, 2017; Stickney et al., 2019). Institutional issues are related to workload, promotion, professional development opportunities, course development, and technological support. Several studies revealed that institutional-related factors also had a remarkable impact on higher education faculty members (Bolliger et al., 2014; Maguire, 2005; Betts, 2014). It can be concluded that various internal and environmental factors influence faculty satisfaction, similar to what the trigger theory (Hagedorn, 2000) suggests.

Workload

Teaching online can cause more time for instructors and students, and a systematic process should be planned (Cahill, Catanzaro, 1997). More workload and intensive

working hours are typical challenges in the transition period between traditional to face-to-face (Gay, 2016). The faculty stated that online teaching requires more time than teaching face-to-face (Gazza, 2017). For instance, dealing with students' emotional states, including loneliness, isolation, and feeling invisible, needed instructors to use extra time and energy and have high self-efficacy in online teaching (Reilly et al., 2012). Therefore, it can be said that workload becomes an essential factor in instructor satisfaction.

Technical support

Technical support can be a motivating and demotivating factor at the same time because when it is provided, faculty participation can be promoted with the opportunity to access new technology (Betts, 2014). Previous research was implemented to examine the effectiveness of online English courses by comparing them to face-to-face, and findings showed that instructors' satisfaction scores were similar at both types of teaching. However, the research reported that instructors desired more additional training to the demands of online teaching (Nelson, 2008).

Institutions invest in different resources to provide online education, and they also spend some of the resources for online faculty preparation (Franker, 2016). They expect to provide technical support, training in online education, and professional development options. However, fulfilling each and every instructor's wishes is not possible most of the time. On the other hand, institutions need to track their online instructors' performance and instructor satisfaction since they are one of the major pillars of quality education. Therefore, institutions need to examine and analyze the needs and expectations systematically. Also, "one size fits all" training courses cannot be sufficient enough to address the faculty experiences with various pedagogies (McQuiggan, 2007, Meyer, 2013).

Consequently, institutions require faculty development and support from many aspects to reach a certain level of instructors' satisfaction while adapting themselves and their teaching habits to the new system.

2.3.6. Related Studies

When literature is reviewed, the number of articles on "faculty satisfaction" is considerably fewer than "student satisfaction" within the online teaching process (Berbegal-Mirabent et al., 2018**;** Hoekstra, 2014**).** Faculty needs are generally investigated from broader perspectives like instructors' broad experience (Wart et al., 2019; Elliot et al., 2015) or online teaching requirements (McGee et al., 2017; Oliver, 1999; Baran et al., 2011). Nevertheless, there are limited studies on specific points of instructors' sense of professional contentment (Meyer, 2013).

Wasilik and Bolliger (2016) reported that a variable number of the studies show a positive correlation between instructor satisfaction and individual performances (Harter et al., 2003; Judge et al., 2001; Locke, 1979; Rain et al., 1991). Cherry and Flora (2017) also reported that mentoring in online teaching, getting sufficient technical support, and having enough time to prepare course content impacted instructor satisfaction significantly. Another study reported that workers with high level of satisfaction generally love their profession because they feel justice in the work environment, which provides advantages such as good salary, security, autonomy, and happy colleagues (Bakotić, 2016).

Demographics can be considered an essential role player of satisfaction in higher education (Bullers, 1999). Ethnicity, gender, and years of experience are influential factors (Hagedorn, 2000). The predictors of instructor satisfaction were listed, and gender was the most common predictor variable, followed by age and years of experience (Thompson et al., 1997). Some demographic studies showed that female teachers are more satisfied than males (Bogler, 2005; Ma, MacMillan, 1999). Similarly, a very recent study explored gender, years of teaching, and faculty status concerning satisfaction, and it was reported that female teachers were more engaged with student interaction. However, the years of experience were not significantly effective on instructor satisfaction (Topchyan, Woehler, 2021).

Murray and Cunningham conducted a study in 2004 and examined 45 faculty members from seven different colleges. It was revealed that the majority of the faculty thought that students were the primary source of the satisfaction. This study also analyzed the gender impact, and it was found out that the satisfaction of female faculty members was related to their relationships with students while male faculty

members were more satisfied with students' accomplishments. Being a mentor to a person rather than a student as a future worker for the female faculty was more fulfilling.

There are some studies about the years of teaching and time spent at the institution and its relation to faculty satisfaction. Some studies have concluded that older and tenured professors are the faculty members with the highest level of overall satisfaction (Hagedorn, 2000).

Cherry and Flora (2017) identified a remarkable increase in online instructor satisfaction due to years of experience. Nevertheless, Howe et al. (2018) did not find a significant difference based on years of experience in a face-to-face teaching environment, but they observed a remarkable change according to the duration of the online teaching experience. In that study, faculty members who taught more than 20 fully online courses stated a higher satisfaction level.

Similarly, Ulmer et al. (2007) pointed out the most significant differences in faculty perception toward the value of having distance education as having online teaching experience or not. The experienced faculty appreciated distance education regarding student performance and instructor-student interaction. Kennedy (2015) found a positive and strong relationship between higher levels of online instructor satisfaction and an experienced instructor.

Conceição (2006) carried out phenomenological research on the online teaching experiences of faculty members. This study brought two main themes to the literature: the requirement to include cognitive and affective domains in the course context and changing comprehension online instructor satisfaction. The results showed that online teaching caused extra work, but it was also satisfying because of its dynamic and reflective nature.

Another study with similar findings of the changing role of the instructor was investigated through interviews, and Coppola et al. (2002) reported that online teaching included some dissatisfaction and satisfaction at the same time. Being convenient, innovative for technology use, and communicating with students were satisfaction sources. The new mode of teaching and using new tools were identified as challenges.

Professional development is another domain of literature. A study with language instructors who attended online Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) courses suggested that instructors had a positive perception of online courses which provided flexibility and speed. However, they stated that the lack of personalized support specifically addressed their needs (Edgar, 2020). Barksdale et al. (2011) asserted that both novice and experienced instructors need to continue professional development whether having a doctoral degree or not.

Hinson and LaPrairie (2005) investigated the transition period between traditional and online teaching, and they reported that professional development was essential for instructional adaptation. In addition, faculty support helped instructors to accept the innovation.

From the learners' perspective, the attitude of faculty members toward online English Ph.D. programs was analyzed, and it was found that the overall attitude was negative. As the main obstacle, the concerns about limited student-instructor and student-student interaction were indicated (Tulli, 2019). Limited interaction was concerning for some. (Bower, 2001).

Daryanto (2014) explored the influences of professional and personal characteristics on vocational school teachers' satisfaction. The results presented a direct correlation between personal and teaching characteristics, including career development and satisfaction.

There are some studies concerning the workload and the transition period. Todd (2020) reported the online language instructors' comments on online teaching, and they expressed that the initial problems, such as contacting students, were not ongoing after a period of time. However, online English teaching was problematic for assignment checking and preparing appealing course materials. Gay (2016) asserted that online instructors need to adapt their traditional teaching habits online. For instance, giving feedback and announcing the grades can create a sense of being connected for students, and good rapport with students can motivate them to be more engaged in online courses. Instructors need to use technology effectively and adjust their lifestyles (Gay, 2016). Martin et al. (2019) confirmed an inevitable need to develop online instructors to utilize suitable instructional tools and techniques and apply a different pedagogy.

2.4. Self-efficacy

Bandura (1977) defined the self-efficacy concept grounded in social cognitive theory. It is claimed that self-efficacy influences many aspects of one's life, and it has a crucial part in social cognitive theory. This theory explains human behavior due to reciprocal interaction, environmental events, and cognition (Bandura, 1986). With "reciprocal interaction," it is suggested that personal factors like cognition form their behavior which changes the environmental effects (Pajares, 2006). The self-efficacy concept includes personal judgments and perceptions and their influences on motivation and behavior (Bandura, 1986). It can be said that self-efficacy is effective on existing knowledge and the belief in conducting a specific task by using the knowledge.

Bandura (1986) identified four main sources of self-efficacy:

1. Mastery experiences. It is based on authentic experiences, and success in a specific task increases self-efficacy.

2. Vicarious experiences. Observing another person's performance on a similar task. Observation makes one believe that they can also be successful as well.

3. Verbal persuasion. When people hear positive comments about achieving the task, they are more likely to do so. On the other hand, getting comments about lack of self-efficacy decreases the possibility of completing the task.

4. Emotional State. Physiological factors such as fear and stress alter task avoidance and efficacy (p. 399).

It can be concluded that positive self-efficacy perceptions mostly lead to choosing activities that possibly increase one's skills, and negative perceptions of self-efficacy lead to activities that decrease skills (Mulder, 2010).

Additionally, Bandura (1986) suggested that high self-efficacy enhances persistence in the case of challenging situations and self-efficacy development depends on the uncertainty of a task that requires more effort and endurance. Bandura also defined three dimensions of self-efficacy: magnitude, the dependence of self-efficacy on the difficulty level of a given task, strength; conviction to complete the task and generality; transference of self-efficacy to variable tasks and situations.

2.4.1. Instructor Self-efficacy

Instructor self-efficacy was conceptualized for the first time by RAND Corporation. They carried out a study about factors related to students' reading scores, and the results pointed out that teachers' high self-efficacy showed a remarkably positive correlation with student reading scores (Armor et al., 1976). Later, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998, 233) defined teacher self-efficacy as "teachers' belief in their capabilities to organize and execute the actions required to execute a specific teaching task within a particular context successfully." To clarify and measure the concept, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) developed the Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale. They also investigated the self-efficacy of novice and experienced teachers, and the results indicated that experienced teachers had considerably high self-efficacy, and it was linked to classroom management and instruction. Similarly, Rimm-Kaufman and Sawyer (2004) reported a relationship between higher self-efficacy and years of teaching experience. Specifically, acquiring an authoritative position and classroom management skills were some directly linked factors to higher self-efficacy.

Instructor self-efficacy is a crucial factor for student success with a positive correlation. Therefore, it can be assumed that the higher self-efficacy of instructors can increase student achievement. Some studies also identified the positive correlations between instructor self-efficacy and work satisfaction, professional commitment, and student motivation and success. For instance, Evans (2016) conducted a study about the correlation between self-efficacy and instructor satisfaction, and the findings indicated a positive correlation between high levels of self-efficacy, overall satisfaction, and perceptions of principals.

2.4.1.1. Internet self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has been defined from many perspectives, like academic self-efficacy (Girasoli, Hannafin, 2008). Technological self-efficacy can be described as individuals' attitudes and perceptions toward self-efficacy of technology use with sufficient skills (as cited in Huffman et al., 2013). Internet self-efficacy emerged as a different type of that concept. From a general perspective, it can be described as individuals' attitudes and evaluations of their abilities to use the Internet (Tsai, Tsai, 2003). More specifically, Internet-based learning self-efficacy has been defined as a

state of being confident and having one own belief of executing an online course or activity (Yukselturk, Bulut, 2007). According to Joyce (2013), Internet self-efficacy can be defined as a state of being confident and having one own belief of executing an online course or activity (Yukselturk, Bulut, 2007). According to Joyce (2013), Internet self-efficacy can be defined as an individual's belief in their potential to complete a specific task on the Internet. Another definition of internet self-efficacy is a person's belief in their potential to organize and carry on Internet-related actions to complete online tasks or assignments (Eastin, LaRose, 2000).

Since the medium of online teaching is based on the Internet use, being a good computer user and using the Internet effectively are expected competencies of an online instructor. The technical knowledge of the online instructor is also an essential qualification for online education. Research has shown that instructors' Internet self-efficacy is directly related to Internet-based instruction integration (Chen, 2009), and it has an impact on motivation to be involved in web-based professional development (Kao, Tsai, 2009). Therefore, it can be claimed that Internet self-efficacy can be considered a requirement to efficiently conduct online teaching (Wu, Wang, 2015). It can be said that instructors should pay attention to technical knowledge and software incorporated into the online environment (Acosta-Tello, 2015). From another aspect, Bolliger and Wasilik (2009) identified that positive technology use and challenging experiences with technology were directly impressive on the online faculty satisfaction. Fredericksen et al. (2000) investigated instructor satisfaction during asynchronous teaching, and the results indicated that technology use was a significant effect on online teaching satisfaction. 91% of the participants agreed that technology positively affected their teaching, and having technical difficulties decreased teaching satisfaction for most instructors.

The number of studies on the Internet self-efficacy has increased for the last two decades. When the ongoing development in technology and rapid changes in Internet use are considered, Internet self-efficacy studies show differences.

Gender can be found as a difference in literature. For instance, Hyers et al. (2012) noted that men showed more active participation in professional development training than women. Zhou and Xu (2007) reached gender differences in their study, which focused on faculty adoption to technology use in education; women were less adopted to technology integration than men. On the other hand, Torkzadeh and Dyke

(2002) indicated significant differences between male and female participants' Internet self-efficacy scores. In that study, participants' Internet self-efficacy scores were compared after they participated in training programs, which led to an increase in total Internet self-efficacy score, and also male participants' scores got higher than females in post-training scores. Another study conducted by one of the researchers did not find any significance in gender responses (Torkzadeh et al., 1999). Sırakaya et al. (2014) carried out a study on Internet self-efficacy beliefs of teacher candidates, and they aimed to find out the effect of gender, attending online lessons, and the percentage of Internet use. The results revealed that male pre-service teachers had firmer Internet self-efficacy beliefs, and the longer duration of Internet usage had a positive correlation with higher Internet self-efficacy. Also, the participants who would like to attend the online courses had higher Internet self-efficacy beliefs.

The effect of teaching experience is also another notion in the literature. The Internet Self-efficacy scale was applied to pre-service and in-service teachers, and the results indicated that pre-service teachers had higher scores in the sub-scales such as communicative self-efficacy or affection. At the same time, pre-service teachers displayed higher confidence and expectation for communicative purposes (Lin, Liang, 2012). Watson (2006) conducted a study to examine the instructors' Internet self-efficacy, and the study found that training and workshops affected the ISS positively while years of teaching experience did not. There was a significant difference between experienced and new instructors in being comfortable Internet users. Further, professional development was a remarkable predictor of Internet self-efficacy.

A recent study in Turkey investigated academic staff's Internet self-efficacy intending to reveal its connection between gender, age, educational background, and years of experience. The majority of the participants had a higher level of self-efficacy in educational Internet use, and also, age was a remarkable factor in Internet self-efficacy that participants under the age of 35 had higher scores. Years of experience and gender differences did not significantly correlate with scale scores, but the faculty members with the Ph.D. title had a higher mean score on the Internet self-efficacy scale (Gültekin et al., 2020).

Goines (2012) analyzed the relationship between Internet use, self-efficacy, and attitudes of content filtering, and the results showed a significant relationship

between attitudes of content filtering and Internet self-efficacy. This study also found years of teaching experience as a significant predictor, while gender was not identified as a predictor of any scores.

Balay et al. (2014) examined the Internet self-efficacy beliefs and attitudes of teachers, and they reported that daily Internet use caused a significant difference in self-efficacy beliefs and improved the attitudes towards educational internet use. This study did not identify gender or age as a remarkable variable. Similarly, Tabata and Johnsrud (2008) examined the use of software applications and e-resources in daily work, and faculty who used technology in their professional lives have more acceptance toward teaching online. As one of the earlier studies on faculty satisfaction in online teaching.

Joyce and Kirakowski (2014) applied their Internet self-efficacy scale to examine age difference, and they found out that participants aged 25-34 years had the highest scores while those in age beyond 44 years, also called digital immigrants, showed significantly decreasing Internet use self-efficacy. The same study also compared gender differences, and results did not show any remarkable difference between genders in Internet self-efficacy scores (Joyce, Kirakowski, 2014).

Liang and Tsai (2008) compared Internet self-efficacy and preferences of Internet-based learning environments, and the results demonstrated a positive correlation between high Internet self-efficacy and a tendency to use more Internet-based learning environments. Pre-service and in-service teachers' Internet self-efficacy did not show any significant difference, and it can be interpreted that years of face-to-face teaching experience did not affect the statistical results.

A mixed-method study analyzed the relationship between the Internet-self efficacy and online search performances of secondary school teachers through interviews. The results showed that the participants who joined technology and Internet-related training programs had higher level of Internet self-efficacy because those programs led them to use the Internet sources for sharing digital material with other teachers (Karaseva, 2016). Watson (2006) examined the teachers' Internet self-efficacy level among 296 in-service teachers who attended intensive Internet skills workshops for a week. The results showed that teachers who had training in the workshop had higher confidence levels than those who did not. The results did not

differ in other controlling factors such as years of teaching experience or other technology professional development.

Blogs can help create a collaborative sharing environment for educators. Blog use can improve reflective thinking (Rinke et al., 2009) and generate collaborations (Lin, Shen, 2013). Therefore, blogs can offer excellent opportunities to keep educators together while allowing sharing, getting feedback from others, and creating a community with motivation. The Internet Self-efficacy Scale (Kim, Glassman, 2013) was used in a very recent study to investigate the effects of blog-based learning. Kim and Glassman's (2013) approach was mainly about the Internet self-efficacy in learning environments by integrating blogs that are still popular among educators. The results showed that using blogs significantly affected the ISS scores of the participants who used blogs as a part of their learning activities. Therefore, it can be implied that blogging for instructional purposes also increases one's Internet self-efficacy level (Kahraman, 2021).

2.5. Summary

The theoretical framework has been described, and related studies are presented in the literature review section. Research has revealed that online teaching has an idiosyncratic structure that can be affected by internal and external factors such as teaching experience and institutional support. It has been assumed that online education will be a part of higher education programs even after the pandemic conditions. Therefore, increasing the quality of online education needs to be the primary goal of the institutions. Institutions should care about the needs and expectations of the faculty, and online instructor satisfaction should not be neglected. Examining the current situation from the instructors' perspective would improve the quality of online education by revealing new aspects of support. Therefore, it was determined to conduct a study on online instructor satisfaction and the Internet self-efficacy.

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology of the study. With the list of research questions, related hypotheses are constituted. Quantitative and qualitative methods are discussed with the details of the sample, data collection instruments, and process. Detailed information about data collection instruments is presented. Data analysis methods used to explore the research questions are identified by summarizing the data analysis techniques.

3.1. Research Design

This study was carried out to explore online instructor satisfaction and the Internet self-efficacy among English instructors in Turkish universities. The factors related to instructor characteristics such as gender, years of experience in face-to-face and online teaching and the highest educational degree were examined to analyze the possible differences in online instructor satisfaction and the Internet self-efficacy. In order to investigate them, a mixed-method research design was used.

Quantitative research was used to analyze the correlation among variables (Creswell, 2009; Gall, Gall,, Borg, 2007). To measure the variables, instruments provide numerical data to analyze statistically (Borrego, Douglas,, Amelink, 2009). The quantitative method was based on a survey consisting of two different scales in that study. The quantitative research tool included three parts: 6 questions for demographics, 16 items for the Internet self-efficacy, and 27 items for online instructor satisfaction. In total, the survey included 49 items.

For the qualitative research, interviews were conducted with the voluntary participants, and semi-structured interview questions were asked. Triangulation of the data was followed as the data collection and analysis methods principle. To achieve the aim of the study, a single research method would not be sufficient; therefore, a mixed-methods study was carried out.

3.1.1. Mixed-methods Research

Mixed methodology research integrates approaches from quantitative and qualitative paradigms, and it has been used in Educational and Social Sciences for investigating phenomena (Creswell, Plano-Clark, 2011). By bringing together the strengths of each research, mixed methods research enriches the investigation through multiple methodological aspects (2011). Creswell (2012) defined mixed methods research as:

> "A mixed methods research design is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and "mixing" both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies to understand a research problem (Creswell, Plano Clark, 2011). The basic assumption is that the uses of both quantitative and qualitative methods, in combination, provide a better understanding of the research problem and question than either method by itself. (Creswell, 2012, 535)."

The mixed methods research allows the researchers to combine and congregate different research designs in their studies. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), triangulation is "the use of multiple, independent methods of obtaining data in a single investigation in order to arrive at the same research findings" (p.181). It can be claimed that variable and independent methods can increase the validity and reliability of the study.

Another approach from Johnson et al. (2007) put forward another aspect of mixed-method from a pragmatic view.

> "Today, the primary philosophy of mixed research is that of pragmatism. Mixed methods research is, generally speaking, an approach to knowledge (theory and practice) that attempts to consider multiple viewpoints, perspectives, positions, and standpoints (always including the standpoints of qualitative and quantitative research) (Johnson et al., 2007, 113)."

This definition also supports the possible variety and diversity that can be reached through mixed-methods research.

In the quantitative research of the present study, survey design was used, which is comprehended chiefly as data collection instruments consisting of questionnaires. Griffe (2012) identified some advantages of surveys. For instance, it

is possible to reach a large number of participants, allowing elaborate explanations to a generalized outcome. Additionally, it helps to collect data in a shorter period, and it can be analyzed statistically by following convenient analysis procedures.

Still, there are some disadvantages of survey design. Griffe (2012) also discussed the shortcomings, such as not merely achieving the direct causality based upon survey design. In addition, Griffe (2012) asserted that opinions could not be fully expressed in questionnaires. As a result, he suggested integrating different methods to overcome the shortcomings and triangulation. This study also had a mixed-methods design with the combination of surveys and interviews. The interviews made it possible to understand the extended opinions of the sample. For a deeper understanding, interviews are preferable tools (Griffe, 2012).

Qualitative research describes a collection of approaches to analyze data acquired from a natural language like words and expressions of the participants (Levitt et al., 2018). Even though the qualitative data commonly is obtained from fewer sources than qualitative studies, it provides detailed and contextualized information (Levitt et al., 2018). Therefore, semi-structured interviews for open-ended answers were carried out in that study to triangulate the data. The Figure 1 represents the triangulation in the study (Creswell, 2009, 210).

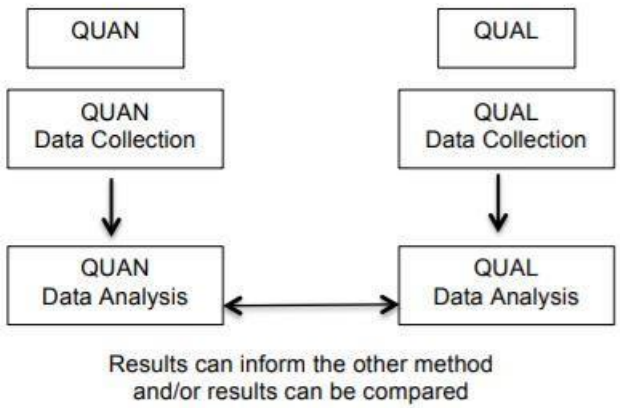


Figure 1: Triangulation of the Data

3.2. Participants

As the sampling technique, non-probability sampling was used. This sampling method has a procedure through which the researcher chooses a sample

based on research purpose, subject availability, or other non-statistical criteria (Guo, Hussey, 2008). For the quantitative research, purposive sampling was used, which is a type of non-probability sampling method. It is a nonrandom technique that requires the deliberate choice of participants according to some expected qualities (Etikan, Musa, Alkassim, 2016). In the present study, having online teaching experience and conducting synchronous lessons were requirements.

In the qualitative research, voluntary response and purposive sampling were used together. At the end of the questionnaire, it was asked whether they would like to take part in the interview part. Participants who shared their contact information for the interview part were selected. In addition to voluntary response sampling, purposive sampling was also applied since the number of voluntary participants was higher than expected, so some criteria were determined. The interviewees were selected according to the years of teaching experience and the highest educational degree. One of them was a novice instructor with a master's degree while three of them did not have a master's degree. Two interviewees were invited to study because they had teaching experience more than fifteen years. As the criteria, being voluntary and allocating time for the interview within the data collection period, having bachelor's and master's degree or another certificate to teach English and not having teaching online experience before the pandemic were determined in the current study. The interviews were conducted after the quantitative data collection; that is, it was the summer school term when there were less volunteer instructors to be interviewed.

Purposive sampling technique can be explained as "a systematic, nonprobabilistic approach to sampling is taken by purposively selecting participants who have: the appropriate experiences and knowledge; the capability to reflect and articulate; an understanding of the subject; time to be asked, and are prepared to participate" (Creswell, 2014, 189). Therefore, it was necessary to choose the interviewees from the voluntary participants to fulfill the aim of the study. The main criteria was teaching fully online and synchronous courses, being available for interviews, and having different years of teaching experience.

In the present study, the participants were instructors who teach in universities' English preparatory classes. They were English instructors who worked in higher education in Turkey. To reach instructors from different universities, a

standard e-mail was written, and it was sent to instructors' emails after checking online English classes in their universities. Approximately 600 emails were sent. In total, 218 participants took part in the study. Five participants' responses were excluded from the data because they responded only one part of the survey. Therefore, it was not possible to include their answers. As a result, responses from 213 participants were statistically analyzed.

Seven voluntary participants were interviewed. The interviewees had different years of experience, and they had started to teach online during the pandemic for the first time. They had not taught English online before the emergency remote teaching and they were still teaching online during the interview session.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Participants in the Research

		N	%
Gender	Male	48	22,50%
	Female	165	77,50%
Years of online teaching experience	Less than one year	34	16,00%
	More than one year	179	84,00%
What is the highest degree you obtained?	Bachelor's degree	72	33,80%
	Master's degree	126	59,20%
	Doctorate	15	7,00%
Years of face-to-face teaching experience	1-3 years	11	5,20%
	4-10 years	73	34,30%
	11-16 years	64	30,00%
	More than 16 years	65	30,50%

When demographic distribution was analyzed, it was seen that 77.5% of the participants were females, and 22.5% were males. 33.8% had a bachelor's degree, 59.2% had master's degree, and 7% held doctorate title. 91.1% of the participants expressed that they were full-time instructors, while 8.9% had part-time or adjunct status.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

This research study had mixed-methods research: a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods. The survey was administered to collect the quantitative data and semi-structured interviews were carried out to provide elaborate explanations to address the related research questions.

3.3.1. The Survey

It consisted of three parts: 6 questions for demographics, 16 items for the Internet Self-efficacy Scale-ISS (Kim, Glassman, 2013), and 27 items for the Online Instructor Satisfaction Measure-OISM (Bolliger et al., 2014). The instruments were used with the permissions of Dr. Doris U. Bolliger and Dr. Michael Glassman.

In total, the survey included 49 items. The survey was created online because all the universities were working online. "Google Forms" was used because of its easy access and user-friendly interface. There was no face-to-face environment to contact instructors personally. Therefore, the survey link was sent to institutional email addresses via emails. The first part included demographics and teaching background-related questions such as years of experience in teaching face-to-face and online, gender, and the highest educational degree.

The OISM is a validated tool designed to measure online instructor satisfaction in online teaching context. It consists of 27 Likert-type items clearly worded to make the understanding of participants easier. The reliability was tested by Bolliger et al., (2014) using Cronbach's alpha coefficient was found as .87. It consists of five categories dealing with online instructor satisfaction:

- *Instructor-to-Student Interaction*: Communication between instructors and students throughout the course
- *Student-to-Student Interaction:* Communication and collaboration among students for supporting each other and participating in the course
- *Affordances:* Access to various instructional resources. Having convenience and flexibility thanks to the nature of online teaching
- *Institutional Support*: Support provided by the institution to develop and deliver the courses.

- *Online Course Design, Development, and teaching*: Course design, preparation, and delivery. It includes learning objectives and online assessment.

The Internet Self-efficacy Scale (Kim, Glassman, 2013) is a scale to measure one's self-efficacy in "attempting, pursuing and bringing to fruition Internet-based, goal-oriented problems/projects at different levels of complexity" (1421). Its factors are:

- *Reactive/generative self-efficacy:* Individuals' beliefs about their ability to react to information published by other people and to generate educationally valuable information to contribute into the knowledge process.
- *Differentiation self-efficacy:* Beliefs about the ability to differentiate online information in terms of quality.
- *Organization self-efficacy:* Beliefs about the ability to organize multilayered online information.
- *Communication self-efficacy:* Beliefs about the ability to communicate online with other people.
- *Search self-efficacy:* Beliefs about the ability to search for information online (Paul, Glassman, 2017, 149).

It has 17 Likert-type items. It is a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 not confident to 7 very confident. Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was reported as .91.

3.3.1.1. Internal Consistency Reliability Analysis of OISM

The scale's internal consistency coefficient was determined to ensure the reliability of the measurement tool. Each item of the variance calculated based on Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients.

Table 2: Internal Consistency Reliability Analysis

Subscale	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
OISM	27	.870
Student to Student Interaction	5	.757
Institutional Support	6	.848
Affordances	5	.786
Instructor-to-Student Interaction	6	.734
Course Design/Development/Teaching	5	.786

The analysis showed that Cronbach's Alpha (α= .870) value was reasonably reliable since it was greater than (α = .70) as recommended by Büyüköztürk (2016). Thus, it was seen that the sum of the scale provided an acceptable degree of reliability.

3.3.1.2. Internal Consistency Reliability Analysis of ISS

The scale's internal consistency coefficient was found to ensure the reliability of the measurement tool. The internal consistency coefficients were calculated based on the variance of each factor are given in Table 3.

Table 3: Internal Consistency of ISS

Scale	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha Value
Internet Self-efficacy Scale	16	.931
Organization	3	.730
Differentiation	4	.861
Reactive/ Generative	5	.888
Communication	2	.821
Search	2	.701

This table shows that Cronbach's Alpha value of the overall scale was .931, which indicated a high level of reliability. Thus, it was seen that the sum of the scale with subscales provided an acceptable degree of reliability.

3.4. Procedure for Data Collection

After the Covid-19 pandemic decisions, English preparatory classes conducted online lessons. First, the universities with online preparatory classes were checked, and a list was created. The instructors who teach in English preparatory classes were listed, and they were sent an explanatory email informing the researcher's background, the aim of the study, and the survey procedure to request their participation. At the beginning of the survey link, there was information about the study background and survey parts. To continue to respond to the survey, participants needed to read the information and complete the consent form below. They were expected to complete the demographic questions after filling the consent form. As the prerequisite of participation in the survey, the first question was whether teaching fully online courses or not. In the participant background part, teaching fully online courses, gender, age, the obtained highest degree, faculty status at the institution, the type of the institution (state or private), years of teaching face-to-face experience, the duration of online teaching experience, and the type of online course they taught were asked.

In that study, an explanatory sequential design was used. First, the quantitative data was collected, and then qualitative data were gathered. The data collection tool was created on an online platform, and it was designed as an online survey. The short link was created, and it was sent via an explanatory email to the participants. It had three parts: 6 questions for demographics, 16 items for the Internet self-efficacy, and 27 items for online instructor satisfaction. In total, the survey included 49 items.

Data collection occurred between June and August 2021. Four instruments for data collection were used: questionnaire for demographic, online instructor satisfaction scale, the Internet self-efficacy scale, and semi-structured interview questions.

3.5. Data Analysis

The quantitative data were analyzed via IBM SPSS 25.0 software. Büyüköztürk (2016) identified three different methods to be used for normality of data: skewness, mean, median and mode values; studying graphics, the normality tests in SPSS. Also, when the *p-value* is greater than .05, the difference is meaningful, and the data have a normal distribution. The outlier values were excluded from the dataset, and parametric tests were chosen.

First of all, the normality distribution was checked by analyzing Kurtosis-Skewness coefficient values. To determine whether to use parametric or non-parametric tests with the obtained data from the survey, normality tests were conducted.

1. The reliability of the data collection tools was analyzed.
2. There was a normal distribution between the participants' gender, age, the highest degree, years of online teaching experience, the Internet self-efficacy and online instructor satisfaction, so independent t-test was used.
3. One-way analysis of variance was used. Tamhane T2, a Post Hoc analysis method, was applied to examine the group differences in the sample.
4. To determine whether there was a significant relationship between the levels of Internet self-efficacy and online instructor satisfaction, Pearson Correlation analysis was applied.
5. Multiple regression analysis was applied to determine the effect of Internet self-efficacy and instructor satisfaction on each other.
6. Statistical significance was evaluated at the $p<0.05$ level in all the results obtained.

4. RESULTS

This chapter reports the findings of the survey and interviews. The data overview constitutes demographic information of the participants, responses from the survey, and interviews. Both quantitative and qualitative data were presented in that chapter. The analysis of the gathered data focused on the related research questions.

In the study, the factors affecting online instructors' satisfaction with online teaching and Internet self-efficacy and their relationship with each other were determined. The collected data were analyzed to answer the research questions:

1. What is the level of online instructors' satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy in emergency remote teaching?
2. What is the relationship between online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy?
3. Do online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy differ according to some independent variables (gender, years of teaching English experience - traditional and online education and the highest educational degree)?
4. What are the online instructors' perceptions of satisfaction in online teaching and Internet self-efficacy?

4.1. The Quantitative Data

The quantitative data were gathered via an electronic survey with 49 items. The participants responded with six questions about background information, 27 items for online instructor satisfaction, and 16 items for Internet self-efficacy. The Online Instructor Satisfaction Measure (Bolliger et al., 2014) is a five-point Likert scale that inquires participants' agreement with the statements. The Internet Self-efficacy Scale (Kim, Glassman, 2013) was designed to measure confidence in

accomplishing the various Internet activities. The data were analyzed statistically, and all the tests were computed in the IBM SPSS program.

Table 4: Results of Normality Tests for the Distribution of Data

Variables	Statistics	Sd.	p	Cover	Median	Min	Max	Distortion	Kurtosis
Instructor Satisfaction Scale	0.061	212	0.05	84.46	85	40	112	-0.46	-0.289
Student to Student Interaction	0.091	212	0.00	14.81	15	6	25	-0.065	-0.513
Institutional Support	0.1	212	0.00	20.06	21	6	30	-0.367	-0.527
Affordances	0.084	212	0.00	18.17	18.5	5	25	-0.398	-0.085
Instructor-to-Student Interaction	0.094	212	0.00	18.01	18	9	27	-0.233	0.347
Course Design/Development / Teaching	0.085	212	0.00	17.97	18	9	25	-0.08	0.002
Self-Efficacy Scale	0.034	212	0.20	89.02	89	58	123	0.048	-0.371
Organization	0.166	212	0.00	17.82	18	8	21	-0.823	0.632
Differentiation	0.131	212	0.00	21.87	23	9	28	-0.559	-0.21
Reactive -Generative	0.06	212	0.06	22.23	23	6	35	-0.17	-0.777
Communication	0.150	212	0,00	10,43	11	2	14	-0.906	0,176
Search	0.177	212	0.00	12.16	13	6	14	-1.154	0.840

First, the dataset was controlled by checking the box-plot graphic and item transposition, and five participants' responses were deleted from the analysis. As a result of the normal distribution analysis, it was determined that these values fitted the normal distribution when the closeness of the mean-median and the requirement that the kurtosis and skewness were between ±1.5 (Tabachnick, Fidell, 2013). It was

decided to apply normal distribution analyzes, and appropriate parametric tests were computed (George, Mallery, 2010).

- **Research Question 1: What is the level of online instructors' satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy in emergency remote teaching?**

When the descriptive statistics were examined, it was revealed that instructors were moderately satisfied with emergency remote teaching (x = 89.04). The item "I am accessible to students in online courses" had the highest mean score (m = 4.37) while "I am satisfied with students' motivation in online courses" item received the lowest mean score (m = 2.4).

In the present study, the Internet self-efficacy level of the instructors was moderate (x= 84.53). The item with the highest mean score was "I can use the Internet to find good information about topics that are important to me" (m = 6.34). The item "I can use blogging as an effective way of connecting with others" had the the lowest mean score (m = 3.67).

- **Research Question 2: What is the relationship between online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy?**

Table 5: The Correlation Analysis

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Instructor-to-Student Interaction	r	1											
	p												
2. Affordances	r	.395**	1										
	p	0.000											
3. Institutional Support	r	.324**	.331**	1									
	p	0.000	0.000										
4. Student-to-Student Interaction	r	.490**	.498**	.381**	1								
	p	0.000	0.000	0.000									
5. Course Design	r	.423**	.511**	.323**	.546**	1							
	p	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000								
6. OISM	r	.674**	.743**	.717**	.785**	.724**	1						
	p	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000							
7. Organization	r	.155*	.223**	0.096	.222**	.295**	.260**	1					
	p	0.024	0.001	0.162	0.001	0.000	0.000						
8. Differentiation	r	.143*	.265**	0.115	.163*	.293**	.259**	.697**	1				
	p	0.038	0.000	0.094	0.018	0.000	0.000	0.000					
9. Reactive	r	.139*	.177**	0.095	0.100	.214**	.191**	.637**	.572**	1			

	p	0.044	0.010	0.169	0.145	0.002	0.005	0.000	0.000				
10. ISS	r	.145*	.238**	0.117	.165*	.294**	.253**	.861**	.810**	.889**	1		
	p	0.035	0.000	0.089	0.016	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000			
11. Communication	r	-0.012	0.091	0.071	0.083	.160*	0.108	.639**	.479**	.616**	.764**	1	
	p	0.857	0.186	0.306	0.231	0.020	0.117	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		
12. Search	r	.151*	.272**	0.086	.192**	.322**	.266**	.773**	.625**	.530**	.750**	.465**	1
	p	0.028	0.000	0.214	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0,000	

***p<.05 , **p<.01**

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to determine whether there was a relationship between Internet self-efficacy and online instructor satisfaction levels. The results of the correlation analysis revealed that there was a positive relationship between the participants' Internet self-efficacy and instructor satisfaction at a moderate level. The detailed statistical data was presented in the appendix. The correlation analysis showed that Student-to-student Interaction and OISM (r = .785), Organization and ISS (r = .861), Differentiation and ISS (r = .810) and Reactive and ISS (r = .889) had the strongest positive correlation. Also, ISS had a positive correlation with Communication (r= ,764) and Search (r= ,750).

The Effects of ISS on OISM

The effects of the subscales of ISS on instructor satisfaction, which was the dependent variable, were examined with a multiple regression model, and the results were shown below.

Table 6: The Variables affecting OISM

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.264[a]	0.070	0.065	3.32

SPSS started the analysis with zero variables and continued by adding the factors of the Internet self-efficacy scale one by one to the model, keeping those with significant effects in the model. This process continued until no variable could contribute significantly to the model. The Internet self-efficacy scale dimension (Organization) was eligible to be included in the model in the table above. SPSS presented one model. Model R square shows that the Organization factor explains 6% of instructor satisfaction.

Table 7: Regression Analysis Results

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(	2.493	0.207		12.	0.0
	O	0.136	0.034	0.264	3.9	0.0

Model	R	R Squar	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0	0.086	0.082	0.987

According to the regression analysis results, the constant value was 2.496. This value was the mean score of instructor satisfaction that individuals would receive without the Organization subscale of the ISS. The beta coefficient was 0.136, which showed how much it would change the OISM. Accordingly, it can be said that the Organization dimension increases the instructor satisfaction by 0.236 times positively since the t value of the coefficient was found to be significant (Sig=0.000).

Course Design was also eligible in the model. The model showed that Course Design explained the Internet self-efficacy with 8%.

The ANOVA of the model was presented in Table 8. The model had only the Course Design dimension, and it was significant when the F value of the model was 19.858, and the P-value was 0.000. According to the regression analysis results, it can be interpreted that the Course Design factor increased ISS positively by 0.513 times. Since the t-value of the coefficient of the Course Design was significant (Sig=0.000), the coefficient was statistically significant.

Table 8: ANOVA of Regression

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19.361	1	19.361	19.858	0.000[b]
	Residual	204.736	210	0.975		
	Total	224.097	211			

a. Dependent Variable: Internet Self Efficacy (ISS)

b. Predictors: (Constant). Course Design

Table 9: The Effects of ISS on OISM

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	**(OISM)**	2.651	0.176		15.024	0.000
	(ISS)	0.123	0.033	0.251	3.758	0.000

To analyze the effect of ISS on OISM, a linear regression model was established. According to the model, the Internet self-efficacy variable had a statistically significant effect on instructor satisfaction. The beta value of the self-efficacy (ISS) variable showed how much it changed instructor satisfaction (IOSM). Accordingly, it can be said that the ISS variable increased OISM by 0.123 times.

- **Research Question 3: Do online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy differ according to some independent variables (gender, years of teaching English experience - traditional and online education and the highest educational degree)?**

a. Gender*:*

Table 10: Gender Differences in the Online Instructor Satisfaction

	Gender	N	Mean	Std Deviation	t	df	p
Instructor to Student Interaction	Male	48	3.13	0.54	2,149	211	*0.033
	female	165	2.96	0.47			
Affordances	Male	48	3.76	0.85	1,212	211	0.227
	female	165	3.60	0.77			
Institutional Support	Male	48	3.39	0.96	0.401	211	0.689
	female	165	3.33	0.85			
Student to Student Interaction	Male	48	2.89	0.84	-0.758	211	0.449
	female	165	2.98	0.73			
Course Design	Male	48	3.61	0.64	0.189	211	0.85
	female	165	3.59	0.58			
OISM	Male	48	3.35	0.57	0.795	211	0.428
	female	165	3.28	0.49			

An independent sample t-test was conducted to determine whether the participants' levels of satisfaction differed according to their genders. The data revealed a statistically significant difference between genders regarding Instructor-to Student Interaction subscale (t=2.15, p=.04, p<.05). While female participants' satisfaction in instructor-student interaction was 2.96, male participants' satisfaction in instructor-student interaction was 3.13. According to the results, males showed a more positive attitude of satisfaction from the instructor to student interaction than females.

The participants' mean scores in Affordances, Institutional Support, Student to Student Interaction, Course Design subscales and overall OISM according to their gender was not statistically significant (p>05).

Table 11: Gender Differences in Internet Self-efficacy

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p
Communication	Male	48	5.42	1.64	1.044	210	0.298
	Female	164	5.15	1.58			
Search	Male	48	6.16	0.87	0.668	210	0.505
	Female	163	6.05	1.01			
Organization	Male	48	6.10	0.98	1.173	210	0.242
	Female	164	5.91	0.98			
Differentiation	Male	48	5.63	1.08	0.953	210	0.342
	Female	164	5.46	1.09			
Reactive	Male	48	4.99	1.39	2.974	210	*0.003
	Female	164	4.29	1.44			
ISS	Male	48	5.56	1.03	2.03	210	*0.044
	Female	164	5.21	1.02			

Similarly, an independent sample t-test was applied to determine whether the participants' levels of the Internet self-efficacy and its subscales differed according to their genders or not. According to the results, the difference between the participants' self-efficacy levels in the Reactive subscale was statistically significant ($t=2.97$, $p=.003$, $p<.05$). The male participants' mean score was higher than female participants in the Reactive subscale.

The mean score of the male participants was higher than the female participants. Male participants' internet self-efficacy approaches were more positive than female participants. There was not any statistically significant difference ($p>05$) between male and female participants in Communication, Search, Organization and Differentiation subscales.

b. Years of teaching English experience - traditional and online education

Table 12: The Years of Teaching English in Traditional Setting

	Teaching	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
Instructor-to-student Interaction	1-3 years	11	2.80	0.44	2.337	0.075
	4-10 years	73	2.90	0.48		
	11-16 years	64	3.05	0.50		
	More than 16 years	65	3.07	0.48		
Affordances	1-3 years	11	3.91	0.66	1.029	0.381
	4-10 years	73	3.53	0.71		
	11-16 years	64	3.70	0.86		
	More than 16 years	65	3.65	0.83		
Institutional Support	1-3 years	11	3.41	0.96	0.403	0.751
	4-10 years	73	3.33	0.84		
	11-16 years	64	3.42	0.79		
	More than 16 years	65	3.26	0.98		
Student-to-student Interaction	1-3 years	11	2.84	0.56	1.201	0.311
	4-10 years	73	2.94	0.81		
	11-16 years	64	2.87	0.68		
	More than 16 years	65	3.10	0.79		

Course Design	1-3 years	11	3.60	0.56	0.884	0.45
	4-10 years	73	3.56	0.52		
	11-16 years	64	3.54	0.57		
	More than 16 years	65	3.69	0.68		
OISM	1-3 years	11	3.30	0.46	0.491	0.689
	4-10 years	73	3.24	0.47		
	11-16 years	64	3.31	0.52		
	More than 16 years	65	3.34	0.55		

A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to determine whether the participants' satisfaction levels differed according to years of teaching English face-to-face. According to the one-way ANOVA test results, it was determined Instructor to Student Interaction, Affordances, Institutional Support, Student to Student Interaction, Course Design subscales and the overall OISM scores did not display statistical significance according to years of teaching experience (p>05).

Table 13: The Years of Online Teaching English

	Online Teaching	**N**	**Mean**	**St. D.**	**F**	**p**
Instructor-to-Student Interaction	Less than one year	34	3.00	0.44	0.083	0.969
	1-5 years	176	2.99	0.50		
	6 - 10 years	1	3.00	.		
	More than ten years	2	3.17	0.00		
Affordances	Less than one year	34	3.38	0.74	1.861	0.137
	1-5 years	176	3.68	0.79		
	6 - 10 years	1	4.20	.		

	More than ten years	2	4.20	1.13		
Institutional Support	Less than one year	34	3.24	0.86	2.005	0.114
	1-5 years	176	3.38	0.86		
	6 - 10 years	1	1.50	.		
	More than ten years	2	2.83	2.12		
Student-to-Student	Less than one year	34	2.88	0.70	0.58	0.629
	1-5 years	176	2.98	0.77		
	6 - 10 years	1	3.20	.		
	More than one years	2	2.40	1.13		
Course Design	Less than 1 year	34	3.42	0.47	2.398	0.069
	1-5 years	176	3.63	0.60		
	6 - 10 years	1	4.00	.		
	More than ten years	2	2.90	0.71		
OISM	Less than one year	34	3.18	0.44	0.913	0.436
	1-5 years	176	3.32	0.52		
	6 - 10 years	1	3.11	.		
	More than ten years	2	3.09	0.60		

The results of the one-way ANOVA test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in Instructor to Student Interaction, Affordances, Institutional Support, Student to Student Interaction and Course Design subscales and overall OISM scores according to the duration of online teaching time (p>05).

Table 14: The Years of Teaching English in Traditional Setting and ISS

	Teaching	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
Communication	1-3 years	11	5.40	1.85	1.727	.163
	4-10 years	73	5.48	1.46		
	11-16 years	63	4.87	1.71		
	More than 16 years	65	5.63	1.09		
Search	1-3 years	11	5.90	0.91	1.108	.347
	4-10 years	73	6.23	0.95		
	11-16 years	63	5.95	1.11		
	More than 16 years	65	6.06	0.89		
Organization	1-3 years	11	5.76	1.08	1.205	.309
	4-10 years	73	6.11	0.92		
	11-16 years	63	5.82	1.09		
	More than 16 years	65	5.93	0.92		
Differentiation	1-3 years	11	5.71	0.90	0.702	.552
	4-10 years	73	5.61	1.01		
	11-16 years	63	5.44	1.16		
	More than 16 years	65	5.38	1.13		
Reactive	1-3 years	11	4.84	1.74	0.819	.485
	4-10 years	73	4.60	1.41		
	11-16 years	63	4.31	1.42		
	More than 16 years	65	4.35	1.49		
ISS	1-3 years	11	5.44	1.15	1.16	.326
	4-10 years	73	5.45	0.95		
	11-16 years	63	5.15	1.10		
	More than 16 years	65	5.23	1.03		

It was determined that Reactive, Communication, Search, Organization and Differentiation subscales did not display any statistically significance according to the duration of teaching face-to-face or online (p>05).

c. The Highest Educational Degree

Table 15: The Highest Educational Degree and OISM

	Degree	N	Mean	Std.	F	p
Instructor-to-student Interaction	Bachelor's degree	72	2.95	0.46	0.406	0.667
	Master's degree	123	3.02	0.51		
	Doctorate	18	3.02	0.51		
Affordances	Bachelor's Degree	72	3.62	0.75	0.541	0.583
	Master's degree	123	3.67	0.81		
	Doctorate	18	3.47	0.83		
Institutional Support	Bachelor's degree	72	3.42	0.84	1.817	0.165
	Master's degree	123	3.34	0.88		
	Doctorate	18	2.99	0.88		
Student to Student	Bachelor's degree	72	2.94	0.76	3.157	***0.045**
	Master's degree	123	3.04	0.71		
	Doctorate	18	2.57	0.92		
Course Design	Bachelor's degree	72	3.62	0.53	3.087	***0.048**
	Master's degree	123	3.63	0.60		
	Doctorate	18	3.27	0.71		

The difference in “Student to Student Interaction” subscale was statistically significant (F=3.16, p=.04, p<.05). The participants with a doctorate had a higher rating in Student-to-Student Interaction. Also, there was a statistically significant difference in Course Design based on the educational status of the participants (F=3.09, p=.04, p<.05). The participants with a master's level of education had higher mean scores than the participants with a bachelor's and doctorate in satisfaction in Course Design related items.

The participants’ mean score with the bachelor’s degree was 2.94 in student-to-student interaction satisfaction. The student-to-student interaction satisfaction level of participants with a master’s degree was 3.04, while the participants’ mean score with doctorate degrees was 2.57. According to the results, the differentiation came from the participants with the master’s and doctoral degrees. Considering the arithmetic averages, it was determined that the participants with a master’s degree had a more positive approach relating to Student-to-Student Interaction than those at the doctoral level.

It was determined that Course Design subscale differed according to the highest educational degree, and it was statistically significant (F=3.09, p=.04, p<.05). The Course Design satisfaction of the participants with the undergraduate education level mean score was 3.62, the graduate education level 3.63, and the doctoral education level was 3.27.

It can be understood that the differentiation arose from the participants with a master’s degree. Considering the arithmetic averages, it was determined that the participants at the graduate education level showed a more positive approach to Course Design satisfaction than those with both bachelor and doctorate degrees. In addition, it was seen that the participants with a bachelor’s degree exhibited a more positive approach to course satisfaction than those at the doctoral level.

Table 16: The Highest Educational Degree and ISS

	Degree	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
Communication	Bachelor's degree	72	5.10	1.62	.702	.497
	Master's degree	122	5.32	1.56		
	Doctorate	18	4.94	1.70		
Search	Bachelor's degree	72	5.92	1.01	1.431	.242
	Master's degree	122	6.15	1.00		
	Doctorate	18	6.19	0.68		
Organization	Bachelor's degree	72	5.83	1.8	0.812	.445
	Master's degree	122	6.02	0.91		
	Doctorate	18	5.96	1.01		
Differentiation	Bachelor's degree	72	5.53	1.07	1.344	.263
	Master's degree	122	5.54	1.05		
	Doctorate	18	5.10	1.30		
Reactive	Bachelor's degree	72	4.33	1.52	0.727	.484
	Master's degree	122	4.55	1.41		
	Doctorate	18	4.24	1.50		
ISS	Bachelor's degree	72	5.21	1.11	0.871	0.42
	Master's degree	122	5.37	0.98		
	Doctorate	18	5.11	1.07		

According to the one-way ANOVA test results, there was no statistically significant difference in Internet self-efficacy among participants with different educational backgrounds.

4.2. Qualitative Data

- **Research Question 4: What are the online instructors' perceptions of satisfaction with online teaching and Internet self-efficacy?**

The analysis of the interviews with instructors was carried out by using thematic analysis. The researcher transcribed all the interviews and the transcripts were read carefully. The codes were created for recurring themes. For the coding part, NVivo 15.1 Qualitative analysis software was used. To ensure the coding process's validity and reliability, a second coder, an expert of the field, also coded the transcripts without seeing the first coder's notes. To report the data by protecting the anonymity of the interviewees, personal data from the transcripts were excluded. Only years of experience in teaching information were kept when the interviewees mentioned it. Interviews were analyzed for keywords, phrases and constructs. Themes were extracted from the dataset of the responses.

The qualitative research design was included to examine the issues in detail and from different aspects. Therefore, semi-structured interview questions were asked, and some follow-up questions were added when necessary.

The first question was, "*What effects has online education had on your current teaching practices? What are the strengths and weaknesses of online education?*" This was a general question to see their approach to online education from a broad perspective. This question also provided the interviewees the chance of evaluating the current situation critically.

The second question was, "*What is a priority issue to impact the quality of online teaching?*" In the current study, one of the aims was to make some suggestions to improve the quality of online teaching. Therefore, the interviewees were asked directly for their suggestions which need to be prioritized in online language teaching.

As the third and fourth ones, "*What do you think about your satisfaction in online education? How have you been comparing your online and face-to-face teaching satisfaction? What is the most dissatisfying part for you? What do you find the most and least satisfying about online teaching from a personal and professional basis?*" the question set was directed. Online English instructor satisfaction was the essence of the study, and these questions were planned to inspect the satisfying and dissatisfying aspects of online teaching. That question also uncovered personal differences. To reveal the expectations, "What have you considered as the most necessary support from your institution for online education? was also asked.

Some questions about using the Internet were also included in the interview questions. Some of them were:

"What do you think about your Internet use? Do you think you are a good user of the Internet? How does using the Internet affect your teaching? Have you taken any support to use the Internet more effectively? What are some new Web 2.0 tools that you integrate into your teaching? What has changed during online teaching in terms of using social networking sites, searching on the Internet, or using blogs to share information?

As the final questions, interviewees were asked for their suggestions to improve online instructor satisfaction. This item also showed the individual differences because some answers were related to institutional support while some of them pointed out the need of improvement in teaching-related factors.

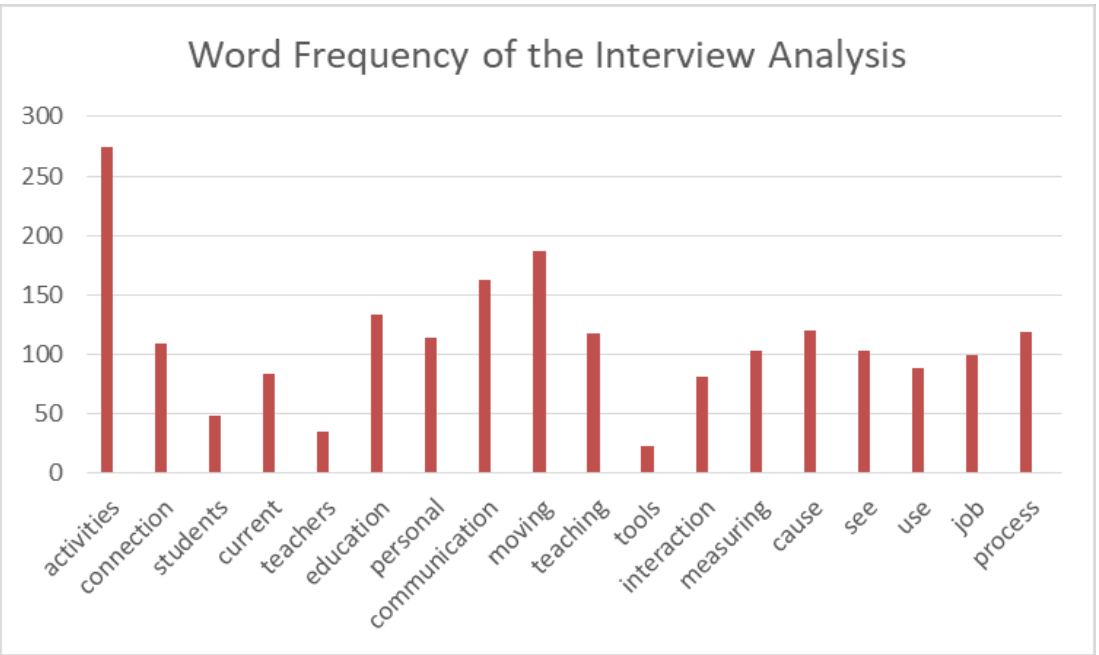


Figure 2: Word Frequency of the Interview Analysis

The main themes were "classroom management, time management, digital tools, professional development, institutional support and suggestions to improve online teaching".

Table 17: Analysis of the Interviews

THEMES	CODES
Online Classroom Management	*Interaction, student-student interaction* *Communication, connection* *Monitoring* *Learning process* *Testing, reliable testing,*
Time Management	*Online Workload* *Working hours* *Workload, overtime, flexible working hours* *Saving time*

Online Professional development	*Training, technology-based guidance*
	Research on ELT
Online Educational Tools	*Searching for sources*
	Online tools, online learning platforms
	Following trends in ELT
	Educational technologies
	Software and applications
Institutional Support in Online Education	*Financial support, providing equipment*
	Budget for premium online teaching tools
	Guidance and training
	Faculty support, peer sharing-caring, administration support
Suggestions to improve online instructor satisfaction	*Using distance educational sources*
	Online adaptable materials, online integrated course books
	Adjustable programming
	Space for personal life, the separation between workplace and home

One of the major themes emerged as classroom management. All of the interviewees mentioned the difference in online classroom management. They expressed that they were concerned about student interaction. Two interviewees clearly stated that there was no problem with instructor-to-student interaction, but student-to-student interaction was limited which caused teacher-centered lessons like lectures.

> ***Interviewee 1*****:** *"Limited student interaction is the least satisfying thing about online teaching."*
>
> ***Interviewee 2:*** *". In online teaching, student interaction is limited, and lessons are more teacher-centered and similar to lecturing. Student re is low during online classes.*
>
> ***Interviewee 6:*** *"…the breakout rooms are functional; they do not create the ideal environment both for teachers and students to observe each other or mingle."*

The third interviewee mentioned that his English classes had been interactive and student-centered in face-to-face lessons, but he could not have an interactive online class. He stated that:

> "*The lack of interaction between students reduces my motivation as a teacher. Sometimes we cannot see students' faces and hear their voices for many reasons. In Face-to-face lessons, student interaction is higher, and the lessons are student-centered mostly. Online teaching student interaction is limited, and lessons are more teacher-centered and similar to lecturing. Student participation is low.*"

The other theme was time management, and all of the interviewees had problems with time management because of schedules and workload. Five of them stated that they got many emails during the day, which caused overtime and extra workload.

> ***Interviewee 6:*** *"Sometimes we get many emails after the working period and it causes overload on use. Planning is vital; otherwise, we get overwhelmed. When we have extra flexible working hours, we cannot separate our profession from daily life, and it affects our other roles and responsibilities."*

On the other hand, two interviewees expressed that online teaching and working from home helped save time because their institution lessened the workload, and they started to have fewer meetings.

> ***Interviewee 3:*** *"Time saving is the satisfying thing of online teaching. My quality of life increased, and it affected my satisfaction."*
>
> ***Interviewee 4:*** *"Most satisfying thing: to be able to work from home without having to use public transportation in the morning."*

Digital tools emerged as one of the main themes because all interviewees mentioned the benefits of digital tools in online language teaching. Three of them expressed that online teaching encouraged them to follow the trends, and it was an outstanding contribution to their profession. They said they were learning new tools and integrating them into their lessons.

Professional development was also another theme, and it was related to digital learning. The interviewees expressed that they were also learners of online education at the same time. All of the interviewees got some online education training and

participated in some extra seminars. They stated that online teaching promoted their professional development because they had to search for new topics while experiencing a new teaching mode.

> ***Interviewee 5:*** *"With online education, we as teachers needed to learn new tools. It has been an enriching experience for me as a new instructor."*
>
> ***Interviewee 7:*** *"We have to learn new things about online teaching nowadays, but it also contributes to our professional development because we use technology as the main tool, and we experience something new."*
>
> ***Interviewee 4:*** *"Most satisfying thing, professionally, to be able to integrate online tools in my classes and realize that there are hundreds of them."*
>
> ***Interviewee 2:*** *"It is also an opportunity to develop yourself as a teacher. It provides flexibility to integrate different teaching tools, and you can adapt your activities accordingly. Online education forces us to learn new things and I think this is really satisfying."*

Institutional support was the other theme created by analyzing the qualitative data. During the semi-structured interviews, guidance and support were discussed. All of the interviewees agreed that they needed guidance and support from their institutions. That support could be both financial and professional. They stated that having equipment like a good computer and good Internet connection were requirements to be provided by the institutions. One idea was having financial support for some premium online teaching tools so that instructors can benefit from them more efficiently. On the other hand, three interviewees mentioned that they got enough support from their coordinators, who tried to adjust workload and guided instructors when they needed. They said they also had online groups to share experiences and materials for online teaching. It was time-saving and they got peer support, which helped them feel more motivated even though they struggled sometimes.

> ***Interviewee 3:*** "*… also our level coordinators were understanding when things went wrong. It was a relief to have people eager to give support."*
>
> ***Interviewee 2:*** *"Institutions must give some support. They need to provide computers and a good internet connection and some online training about*

using digital tools. They need to plan programs and schedules carefully to decrease workload."

Lastly, all the interviewees were asked to suggest improving instructor satisfaction with online teaching. Course books with online components and online ready-to-use materials were related to course design. Also, they stated that instructors needed to keep learning and to update their existing knowledge by attending seminars and specific online courses for English language teaching.

Interviewee 2: *"In online education, measuring students' knowledge is the hardest part. Testing must be improved."*

Interviewee 5: *"Adapting existing materials to digital platforms would decrease the workload. We need to have adaptable teaching materials that we can use in the classroom and online at the same time. Material development can be really helpful, and teachers can have different options to use in the lessons. When you have sources like those, you feel more satisfied."*

Interviewee 6: *"We need to improve ourselves as educators to catch the trends and get updated information. There are great MOOCs for CPD. I recommend Future Learn MOOCs and following educational Twitter accounts to get support from borderless staff rooms."*

Interviewee 1: *"I definitely suggest being exposed to less screen time except for teaching hours, because sitting in front of the computer for checking papers, giving feedback, having meetings and having extra duties is already tiring, so it might be better for teachers to limit their screen time, and try to develop themselves if they need more practice and speed."*

Interviewee 7: *"…instructors should be encouraged and supported financially to use pro-version of the digital tools that can be helpful for teaching."*

Interviews helped explore the instructors' perspectives, attitudes, and evaluation of overall satisfaction. Both common ideas and individual differences were revealed. It can be seen that interviewees think about the advantages and disadvantages of online teaching. The EFL instructors stated that language teaching requires interaction, which can be limited in an online classroom setting. Interaction and assessment were two of the main concerns mentioned under student-related

factors. Also, they mentioned adaptation of classroom management techniques, inevitable changes in course design, and integration of online tools. Those elements were teaching-related factors of satisfaction. Finally, interviewees mentioned professional development, technical support, and arranging workload as institution-related factors.

To conclude, the findings of the quantitative analysis indicated some significant differences concerning independent variables. Also, Internet self-efficacy and online instructor satisfaction were found in correlation with each other. Therefore, the findings pointed out their positive impact on each other. In the qualitative findings, the interviewees' general attitude was positive, which was in parallel with the quantitative result, which statistically showed a moderate level of satisfaction. The interviews also explained the dimensions of the instructor satisfaction concept. There were some statements about student and teaching-related factors. Also, institutional support appeared as another main concern of instructors. Their recommendation for increasing the quality of education was also related to teaching and institution-related factors.

4.3. Summary

The data obtained from surveys and interviews were analyzed, and this chapter presented the results. The findings were shown in tables and graphics. Each research question was responded to by providing the analysis of the data. The quantitative data were used to answer research questions one, two, and three, while research question four was analyzed through qualitative data. Those results were discussed and compared to the literature in the "Discussion" chapter.

5. DISCUSSION

In the previous chapters, the need for investigating online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy, reviewing the literature contributing to the online education research area are explained. The methodology of the present study is described to explain details of participants, data collection tools, and analysis of the data. The results and statistics are presented in the previous chapter. This chapter summarizes the findings from each research question and compares them to previous research studies covered in the literature review. Interpretation of the findings is also provided to make the comparison between current and previous studies meaningful. This section does not include numerical data or tables given in the previous chapter.

5.1. Research Question 1

This study found out that the satisfaction level of the online EFL instructors was at a moderate level. Also, online instructors' Internet self-efficacy level was found as moderate.

It can be claimed that they had a satisfying online teaching experience and there were some parts to be improved. This result is similar to Bakotić's (2016) study, which found higher satisfaction related to positive feelings to their profession and advantegous working conditions. The moderate level of EFL instructors' satisfaction can result from the flexible working environment and being more independent in material development. This interpretation can also be supported by the analysis of the qualitative data. In the interview analysis, it was observed that instructors who had not experienced online teaching before had a positive attitude towards online teaching by identifying its advantages. Also, instructors commented on the issues to be improved, and it showed that online teaching could be a continual option. This outcome is also similar to Yapar (2018) in being an ideal option for traditional education.

5.2. Research Question 2

This question aimed to identify the correlation between online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy. The correlational design showed that they had a positive correlation at a moderate level. Organization and Course Design subscale dimensions were found as the most influential ones. Therefore, the findings can be interpreted that Internet self-efficacy can increase satisfaction. Durmuş (2014) also had a similar result that positive Internet self-efficacy beliefs increased the success in performing Internet-based tasks. Bolliger and Wasilik (2009) also reported a positive correlation between technology use and online instructor satisfaction. The research study by Fredericksen et al. (2000) also confirmed a significant positive relationship between those concepts. The positive correlation found in the present study can offer some improvements for increasing satisfaction in online teaching. For instance, providing technical support and training can positively impact online instructors' satisfaction. Previous literature research (Watson, 2006) also confirmed that claim because that study also revealed that attending Internet-based workshops increased the confidence levels. Tabata and Johnsrud (2008) had a similar finding that using educational technologies promoted the acceptance of faculty members towards online teaching. Consequently, this research question indicated a positive correlation that online training and Professional development could be a part of instructors' contentment developments.

5.3. Research Question 3

The demographics were found as the influential factors on instructor satisfaction. Hagedorn (2000) also indicated that demographics such as age, gender, and years of teaching experience were remarkable. In the current study, gender showed some statistically significant differences in subscale dimensions. There was a statistically significant difference between female and male participants in terms of Instructor-to-Student Interaction, and the male participants' attitude toward interaction with students was more positive than female participants. Unlike Topchyan and Woehler (2021) and Murray and Cunnigham (2004), this study found that male participants had a higher score in factors related to the interaction between instructors. The inconsistency in the literature can result from changing gender roles

in society. While the assigned roles to genders have been changing, the perceptions and expectations of females and males can be divergent in different contexts.

The current study did not find years of experience as a significant variable on instructor satisfaction. Both face-to-face and online teaching experience durations were compared, and the participants had a large range. However, no matter how they taught, years of experience were not significant. This was also similar to the previous research literature by Wise (2019). In parallel with the present study's findings, that study did not find any correlation between years of teaching experience and instructor satisfaction, as well. Howe et al. (2018) investigated the effect of years of face-to-face and online teaching experience and found only online teaching experience as an influential factor. In contrast, Arbaugh et al. (2001) concluded that teaching experience was the most influential variable on satisfaction. Cherry and Flora (2017) had a similar finding that years of experience positively affect online instructor satisfaction. Kennedy (2015) also confirmed the positive and strong relationship. It can also be claimed that years of experience can show differences in online or face-to-face teaching environments. It can significantly affect some instructors while others do not evaluate their satisfaction from the experience aspect.

The participants' educational background was included as one of the personal factors. It was aimed to investigate the effect of the highest degree by comparing participants with a doctorate or master's degree to a bachelor's degree. The student-to-student interaction subscale dimension had a significant difference, and participants with a master's degree had the highest mean score in the Student-to-Student Interaction subscale, and also participants who held a doctoral degree had a higher rating than bachelors in that dimension. It can be interpreted that different educational backgrounds impacted their satisfaction from other dimensions. In other words, those participants spent more years on their education and it can make showing empathy to students easier. It may mean the interaction pattern among students is adequate for those participants. This can also be interpreted from the professional development aspect. Barksdale et al. (2011) confirmed that in their study by suggesting the need to continue professional development for all instructors with different titles. Those findings were consistent with Dartento's study (2014) on satisfaction and its relation with career development.

Internet self-efficacy showed differences between male and female participants in the "Reactive" subscale dimension. The male participants had a significantly higher level of self-efficacy in that dimension. This dimension consisted of items related to using blogs and sharing some information on the Internet. Therefore, it can be assumed that the male participants felt more efficient while publishing posts or sharing their ideas on the Internet. Also, the overall Internet self-efficacy scores of the participants showed a remarkable difference with gender. Male participants had a higher level of ISS than female participants. However, the results of another research in literature (Joyce, Kirakowski, 2014) did not show any remarkable difference between genders. On the other hand, the study by Torkzadeh and Dyke (2002) confirmed that male participants had a higher Internet self-efficacy score after participating in the training program. In addition, Sırakaya et al. (2014) reached a similar difference between higher scores of male participants than females.

The gender difference in Internet self-efficacy may have several reasons. For example, habits of using the Internet have been known as a difference between genders, such as playing computer games or being a member of an online social group. Liang and Tsai (2008) also suggested a positive correlation between high Internet self-efficacy and a tendency to use the Internet. Sırakaya et al. (2014) also reported a positive correlation between a longer duration of Internet usage and higher Internet self-efficacy.

In the present study, years of teaching experience were not determined to influence Internet self-efficacy. It can be assumed that teachers have been using educational technologies in their face-to-face classrooms and both less experienced and veteran instructors are used to integrating the Internet-based practices. Also, it has been discussed that novice teachers have a more positive attitude towards using the Internet in lessons. Surprisingly, the findings of that study showed that the Internet self-efficacy of the more experienced teachers was not at a low level. This is inconsistent with Joyce and Kirakowski's study (2014), whose participants were named as digital immigrants had a decreasing Internet self-efficacy. The difference may result from changing habits of using the Internet in daily routines. Also, Sırakaya et al. (2014) concluded that the tendency to participate in online courses positively correlated with higher Internet self-efficacy levels.

The highest educational degree did not have a significant effect on Internet self-efficacy. Participants with bachelor's and master's degrees or a doctorate did not have meaningfully different scores. In contrast, Gültekin et al. (2020) reported that academicians had higher Internet self-efficacy. This result can also be explained by using the Internet for different daily operations. Participants can be considered confident and self-sufficient users of the Internet.

Self-efficacy is necessary to conduct the scenarios successfully (Bandura, 1994). In the present study, self-efficacy has been discussed from the Internet use perspective. The participants identified themselves with higher Internet self-efficacy, which was also similar to previous research. The higher level of self-efficacy demonstrated a positive correlation with teaching in unfamiliar contexts (Brown, 2018). Experiencing a new teaching mode may lead to effectively using searching, organizing, or sharing skills. Inevitably, Internet has become one of the essential components of an individual's life and the majority can use it properly according to their purpose.

5.4. Research Question 4

The analysis of the interviews provided a deeper understanding of the participants' online teaching experience. Both challenges and rewards were identified from the participants' perspectives. All of the interviewees mentioned the advantages of online teaching, such as being flexible and reducing time spent on school. They had a positive attitude because they stated that online teaching was the only way to protect the health of teachers and students at the same time. The interview results are also supported by relevant research (Gacs et al., 2020).

When it comes to the challenges, overtime and extra workload were some challenges of online teaching. It may be an outcome of organizational planning problems because online teaching has different dynamics than traditional teaching. Course planning, grading the online assignments, and even contacting students take much more time than face-to-face teaching. Gay (2016) also stated the challenges of online teaching as extra workload and unplanned working hours. Conceição's (2006) findings also confirmed that the course development and delivery required more time and endeavor than a campus-based course. Adapting to the new types of assignments and following the email or notifications would cause extra working

time. As Tobin et al. (2015) suggested, some strategies to put standards and scaffolds should be offered to the online instructors. This may decrease the workload at least for the assessment of assignments. Therefore, it should have been considered that changing the teaching habits would have required spending time.

The interviews spotlighted that collaboration was one of the support that can reduce the stress of the new teaching environment. Having faculty social groups for helping one another and working with understanding coordinators were mentioned as the institutional support. The previous research also mentioned that external support was a requirement for having qualified online instructors (McGee, Windes, 2017). Also, faculty support can accelerate the involvement process into innovation (Hinson, LaPrairie, 2005).

The participants highlighted that the transition period was a bit challenging for most of the instructors and specifically for those who had not felt adequate in using the Internet for educational purposes. Therefore, they highly suggested that technical support should be provided and extra support like providing a better computer or paying for the premium version of the software should be considered by the administrators. Franker (2016) suggested that institutions invest in resources for online faculty preparation. The participants also confirmed that they had been provided some training focusing on effective online teaching. Acosta-Tello (2015) mentioned the necessity of having technical knowledge and using software for online teaching. Still, the institutions should analyze the individual differences and needs for planning those training by considering the various experiences of online instructors (McQuiggan, 2007; Meyer, 2013).

Professional development was another theme of the interviews, and EFL instructors emphasized the importance of following the newest developments and being a part of continuous learning. Interviewees stated that online teaching promoted professional development since they attended various workshops and training. As Edgar (2020) reported, learning and teaching simultaneously can enhance the language instructors' positive attitude.

6. CONCLUSION

Unexpected changes happened in 2020, and the spread of Covid-19 have made educational operations conducted mostly online. Even though the literature suggests that online education has a complex structure and needs careful planning, there was not enough time to prepare the most suitable plan through the immediate precautions. Consequently, some points to be investigated have come out as research topics to increase the quality of online language education.

The purpose of this study was to explore English instructors' satisfaction with online teaching and their Internet self-efficacy during online teaching. The current study also suggested that satisfaction has a complex structure depending on various factors in parallel with the previous research. These factors can be internal such as personal factors: age, gender, years of teaching experience, or external ones like institutional support, affordances, and faculty support (Bolliger, Wasilik, 2009). Therefore, their satisfaction was chosen as the basis of the present study by considering it one of the pillars of quality in online education.

This study analyzed the influences of personal factors such as gender, years of teaching experience, and educational background on those two concepts. As a personal factor, Internet self-efficacy was also examined whether it impacted satisfaction or not since using the Internet is fundamental for online education. Without directly asking their concerns and reflections on online teaching, the quantitative study might not have had a broader explanations; therefore, interviews were administered to investigate the instructors' online teaching beliefs, preferences, and pedagogical concerns. With the help of the interviews, the instructors' own experiences, thoughts, and possible suggestions were also included in the study. The obtained data were checked statistically and thematically with the mixed methods research method. Findings were discussed and compared to the literature to make meaningful interpretations. Some similarities and differences were revealed, and possible reasons behind those outcomes were evaluated.

As the target participants, English instructors teaching English at universities' English preparatory schools were chosen because they were teaching courses fully online for more than one year because of the obligatory precautions during the Covid-19 pandemic in 2020 and 2021. Most of them were experiencing online teaching as a new phenomenon.

The results suggested that demographics affected online instructor satisfaction and Internet self-efficacy at subscale dimension levels. Some similarities and differences among the groups according to those variables were observed. Findings indicated that instructors had a moderate satisfaction level. Generally, they were not against teaching online, but they emphasized the necessity of planning and institutional support. As one of the remarkable findings, English instructors mentioned the disadvantage of not using nonverbal communication in online classes. They also stated that interaction patterns were different in online, and they made them adapt their teaching habits. Similar to literature, it can be suggested that online language teaching can be a solution to eliminate barriers, which can be about cultural diversity or integrating Internet-based activities. As a consequence, it can be asserted that online language teaching can be advantageous for instructors if their needs are reviewed in accordance with their expectations through the dynamics of online education. Additionally, it can be beneficial for learners if the tools can be integrated well and a suitable course design can be offered.

6.1. Implications

When the ongoing circumstances and developments in technology are considered, it is expected that online education will be a part of higher education programs even after the pandemic. When the role of instructors is acknowledged, it can be asserted that their satisfaction plays a crucial role in reaching a higher quality in online education. Increasing the quality of online education is the primary goal of the institutions, and online instructors are one of the most important role players in that process. Institutions can support instructors by paying attention to the needs and expectations of the faculty. Therefore, when the instructors' perspectives, professional fulfillment, and expectations are ignored, achieving total success in online teaching will not be possible. Introducing new regulations in online education becomes a fundamental necessity.

6.2. Limitations of the Study

When comparing the total number of instructors in Turkish universities, it can be said that the current study had a relatively small group of target participants. Therefore, the sample may not be generalized for some points. The other limitation is severe pandemic circumstances. It cannot be estimated that participants managed to reflect their actual perceptions and expectations because they might have had some difficulties in their personal lives. As a result, the self-perceived notions might have shown differences in better conditions.

6.3. Recommendations for Future Research

In EFL research, instructor satisfaction is not a common topic; however, it is one of the domains of online education quality. Therefore, further research can be conducted with a larger number of participants. Also, Internet self-efficacy can be examined with pre-test and post-tests, which can be applied after technical training or workshop focusing on integrating Web tools. The participants were from different universities in Turkey, but the types of the institutions were not included as a variable. Therefore, future research can compare state and foundation universities by examining their institutional support, professional development options are and working conditions.

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APPENDICES

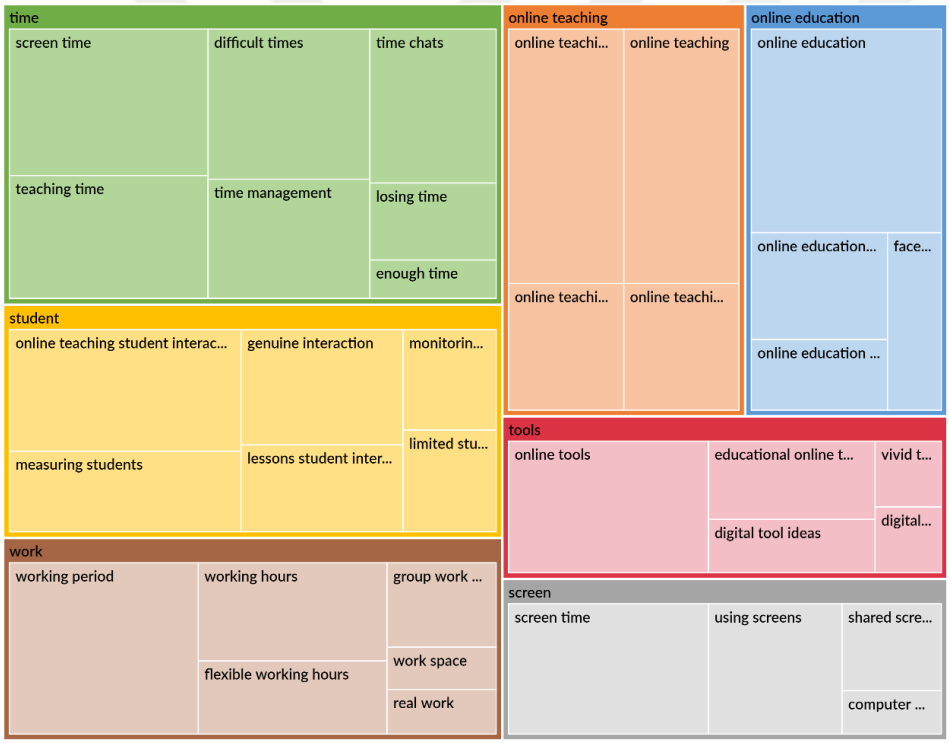
App A: The Interview Analysis and Frequent Words

Frequent Word	Frequency	Similar Words used Together
activities	274	active, attention, business, catch, class, comfort, cooperation, course, development, education, end, energy, medium, office, part, participation, period, place, planning, practice, preparation, process, profession, relief, saving, search, share, shock, short, show, support, supporting, task, teaching, technology, test, testing, timing, training, usage, work, workload
process	119	adaptation, advance, assessment, attention, connection, consideration, decrease, development, education, eye, feedback, feeling, issue, knowing, language, learning, performance, planning, preparation, process, result, search, seeing, thinking, understanding, use, wake, work
measuring	103	addition, break, case, catch, day, end, enough, factor, first, hours, important, information, life, limit, lot, lots, majority, measuring, money, morning, much, overtime, period, relief, risk, school, space, test, time, year

interaction	81	ask, blog, break, carry, connect, contact, continue, group, handle, interact, interaction, issue, learn, level, network, reach, remind, see, share, show, sit, speak, teach, type, wrong
communication	163	adaptation, addition, ask, blog, break, burden, carry, catch, challenge, chat, communication, consideration, contact, continue, conversation, day, develop, device, exact, exam, form, hand, information, issue, keep, language, learn, lesson, level, mail, material, medium, network, phone, place, prepare, reach, remind, result, share, shift, show, solution, speak, teach, test, thanks, time, topic, turn, type, understanding, usage, version
personal	114	active, case, catch, cheat, computer, connection, day, draw, equal, face, factor, great, help, ideal, issue, job, learner, life, master, material, medium, miss, monitor, pain, part, personal, physical, possible, professional, relief, self, someone, student, tool, type, user
education	134	develop, development, developments, education, educational, educators, experience, knowing, learned, learning, lecturing, lesson, master, preparation, preparations, prepare, prepared, preparing, school, teacher, teaching, training

connection	109	catch, communication, connect, connection, contact, continue, continuous, join, know, mean, online, pair, related, remember, series, short
teaching	118	class, course, develop, education, educational, educators, learn, learned, learning, lecturing, lesson, prepare, teach, teaching

App B: Interview Analysis Example



App C: Permissions to Administer the Scales

App D: The Survey

2. Have you ever taught a fully (100%) online course with no face-to-face sessions at English preparatory school? *

   Mark only one oval.

   - ◯ Yes
   - ◯ No

3. Gender *

   Mark only one oval.

   - ◯ Male
   - ◯ Female
   - ◯ Other

4. What is the highest degree you obtained? *

   Mark only one oval.

   - ◯ Bachelor's degree
   - ◯ Master's degree
   - ◯ Doctorate

5. What is your faculty/instructor status at the institution where you teach? *

   Mark only one oval.

   - ◯ Full-Time
   - ◯ Part-Time or Adjunct

6. Your institution *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ State
- ◯ Private

7. How long have you been teaching English? *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ 1-3 years
- ◯ 4-10 years
- ◯ 11-16 years
- ◯ More than 16 years

8. How long have you been teaching courses online? *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Less than 1 year
- ◯ 1 - 5 years
- ◯ 6 - 10 years
- ◯ More than 10 years

9. What have you taught online? *

Check all that apply.

- ☐ Basic English - Main Course
- ☐ Basic English - Reading-Writing
- ☐ English for Academic/Specific Purposes

Online Instructor Satisfaction Survey

Please respond to the items below by using the following scale:
Strongly Agree (5) Agree (4) Neutral (3) Disagree (2) Strongly Disagree (1)

10. I am pleased with the quality of student work in online courses.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

11. I am satisfied with students' motivation in online courses.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

12. My interactions with online students are satisfying.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

13. My online students participate enthusiastically.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

14. I am satisfied with the convenience of the online learning environment.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

15. I feel that online courses provide a flexible learning environment.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

16. I feel that online courses allow students to access a wide range of resources.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

17. Online teaching allows me to reach a more diverse student population.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

18. At my institution, teachers are given sufficient time to develop online courses.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

19. My needs for training to prepare for teaching online have been met.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

20. I have adequate technical support from my institution.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

21. My institution provides the necessary technology tools (equipment and software) for teaching online.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

22. My online students actively collaborate.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

23. My students work well together online.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

24. My students appear to be part of an online community in the course.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

25. In online courses, every student has an opportunity to contribute.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

30. I do not get to know my online students well.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

31. I am satisfied that my students can access their online course from almost anywhere.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

32. My institution provides fair compensation or incentives for teaching online.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

33. I am satisfied with online teaching policies that have been implemented by my institution.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

34. My online students share resources with each other within the course.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

35. It takes a lot of time to develop an online course.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

36. Professional development or training for online teaching makes me experience a higher level of satisfaction with online teaching.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

Internet Self-efficacy

Please mark the number on how certain you are that you can perform each task described in the statement.
1: Not At All Confident
7: Very Confident

37. I can use the Internet to find good information about topics that are important to me.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

38. I can be very effective communicating using social networking sites like Facebook .

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

39. I can organize the information I find on the Internet so that it is coherent and answers specific questions.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

40. I can improve others' well-being through the use of hyperlinks.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

41. I can find important and interesting information by reading other people's blogs .

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

42. I can use the Internet to help me find good information about students and their development.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

43. I can use social networking sites as an effective way of connecting with others.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

44. I can use the Internet to answer my own questions in a productive way.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

45. I can use hyperlinks to find information that is important to me.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

46. I can offer other people important and interesting information by posting on the Internet.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

47. I can use the Internet to answer other people's questions in a productive way .

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

48. I can use hyperlinks to find information that is important to others.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

49. I can be very effective using blogging sites like blogger .

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

50. I can improve my own well-being through the use of hyperlinks.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

51. I can write blog posts that other people will read and be interested in.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

52. I can use blogging as an effective way of connecting with others.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not At All Confident	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Very Confident

53. Is there anything else you'd like to share about online teaching satisfaction? If you would like to take part in the open-ended questions part, please write your email. (It will remain completely confidential).

Thank You!

Thank your for your contribution.