

Postsecondary Teaching and Learning Development Needs:
Motivators and Barriers Associated With Participation in Educational Development

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Abstract

This study investigated instructor perceptions of motivators and barriers that exist with respect to participation in educational development in the postsecondary context. Eight instructors from a mid-size, research intensive university in south-western Ontario participated in semistructured interviews to explore this particular issue. Data were analyzed using a qualitative approach. Motivation theory was used as a conceptual framework in this study, referring primarily to the work of Ryan and Deci (2000), Deci and Ryan (1985), and Pink (2009). The identified motivators and barriers spanned all 3 levels of postsecondary institutions: the micro (i.e., the individual), the meso (i.e., the department or Faculty), and the macro (i.e., the institution). Significant motivators to participation in educational development included desire to improve one's teaching (micro), feedback from students (meso), and tenure and promotion (macro). Significant barriers to participation included lack of time (micro), the perception that an investment towards one's research was more important than an investment to enhancing teaching (meso), and the impression that quality teaching was not valued by the institution (macro). The study identifies connections between the micro, meso, macro framework and motivation theory, and offers recommendations for practice.

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I dedicate this work to Sue Vajoczki (1966-2012), a close colleague, a devoted leader, and a trusted mentor. I remember Sue for her enthusiasm for educational development and student learning.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Educational development, for the purposes of this study, is defined as ongoing activities undertaken by instructors at postsecondary institutions to enhance teaching and learning (Gibbs, 1996; Jenkins, 1996). The field of educational development has grown substantially since its establishment in the 1960s. For example, Gibbs (2013) notes that in the 1970s, there only existed roughly 30 educational developers (most of whom were part-time) in the United Kingdom, whereas now, there are thousands of individuals employed as educational developers in the UK, with more than £100M invested annually into teaching development. Similar trends in growth exist in other countries such as Canada, United States, and Australia (Gibbs, 2013). Even with this growth in educational development, however, a common problem at teaching and learning centres across the globe is generating authentic interest in and attendance at educational development opportunities aimed to enhance teaching and learning experiences (Neal & Peed-Neal, 2010).

There are several reasons to explore the dearth in instructor participation in educational development. Some of these reasons are political, while others are situated in cultural contexts of academic institutions. One particularly important reason to examine this issue more closely is because quality in teaching and learning can be enhanced through instructor participation in educational development opportunities (Chism & Szabó, 1997; Sorcinelli, Austin, Eddy, & Beach, 2006).

Accordingly, this is a study of instructor perceptions of motivators and barriers that exist with respect to participation in educational development. Instructors

are defined as any person involved in teaching, specifically in this context, at the postsecondary level.

Educational development is seen as a priority for postsecondary institutions, as is evidenced by the fact that nearly every Canadian postsecondary institution has a unit devoted to enhancing teaching and learning (Simmons, 2010b). Similarly, in the past decade, there have been more than a dozen new senior academic positions focused on teaching and learning, for example, associate vice-presidents and vice-provosts (A. Ahmad, personal communication, November 26, 2014). This restructuring at the senior administrative level of Canadian postsecondary institutions broadly demonstrates increased and ongoing institutional support and encouragement for enhanced quality of teaching at Canadian postsecondary institutions (Rogers, 2000).

Not only does the mandate to enhance quality stem from within postsecondary institutions, but there are external drivers of quality enhancement as well. For example, some of these external drivers include other stakeholders such as university students, their parents, and future employers (Ralph, 1998). These groups are demanding high quality teaching and learning experiences in Ontario's universities (Council of Ontario Universities, 2012). Further, the provincial government of Ontario is a major driver of quality enhancement in postsecondary education (Higher Educational Quality Council of Ontario, 2015; Ministry of Training, Colleges, and Universities, 2013)

One way to achieve a higher quality of education in the postsecondary system is to expose instructors to new approaches to instruction, assessment, and classroom

experience (Knapper, 2013; Wilkerson & Irby, 1998). Often, this is the role of educational developers within teaching and learning centres (Cook & Kaplan, 2011). A perceived problem, however, is that there is a general lack of instructor participation in educational development (Neal & Peed-Neal, 2010; Office of the Auditor General of Canada, 2012). The aim of this qualitative research project is thus to explore the factors—both motivators and barriers—that influence the decision to participate in educational development.

Background of the Problem

As mentioned above, there are political forces in play with respect to participation in educational development. The *Annual Report of the Office of the Auditor General of Ontario* (2012) makes several recommendations to increase instructor participation in development opportunities. These recommendations are based on reviews of three of the 20 publicly assisted universities in Ontario, specifically University of Toronto, Brock University, and University of Ontario Institute of Technology. The first recommendation in the document with respect to increasing educational development opportunities is as follows:

To help ensure that administrators and students have sufficient information to make informed decisions, and that all faculty members receive the necessary feedback to maintain or enhance teaching quality, universities should... ensure that faculty, including sessional faculty, periodically receive constructive feedback on their teaching effectiveness, and encourage faculty to undertake any necessary professional development. (p. 281)

A second similar recommendation from the same document states:

To help ensure that all faculty members provide effective classroom instruction, universities should work with faculty to encourage greater participation in professional development activities and implement procedures to ensure that faculty who would benefit from additional teacher training are formally encouraged to participate in these activities. (p. 285)

One particular issue that is not well addressed in the Auditor General's report is what specifically constitutes *participation* in educational development. The report indicates that there is no "evidence that instructors had been provided with specific guidance or sought assistance from the universities' teaching and learning centres" (p. 275). This statement makes the assumption that educational development only occurs in universities' teaching and learning centres. My belief is that educational development can, and does, occur beyond the walls of teaching and learning centres. The data from the present study support this as well. This is to be further discussed in chapters 4 and 5.

At McMaster University¹ where the current research is focused (a medium sized, research-intensive postsecondary institution in south-western Ontario), recent evidence has indicated that the teaching and learning centre should revisit the professional development opportunities it offers to ensure that content is aligned to instructor needs (McMaster University, 2003, 2008). Specifically, in the *Refining Directions* strategic mandate document (McMaster University, 2008), the university president commended McMaster for being an innovator in education, but stated that we should "not be content with the status quo" (McMaster University, 2008, p. 3) and that McMaster must continue to innovate and provide supports for instructors to

¹ Permission has been acquired from McMaster University to be named in this study.

enhance teaching and learning. The first goal set out in this visioning document was to “provide an innovative and stimulating learning environment where students can prepare themselves to excel in life” (McMaster University, 2008, p. 3). One potential source for this support may come from the teaching and learning centre.

Current program and service options offered at other postsecondary teaching and learning centres have been beneficial in determining standards of practices in terms of educational development structure and content delivery (Grabove et al., 2012; Lee, 2010); however, these practices are not always generalizable across contexts (Gibbs, 2010). At McMaster, a perceived problematic issue (as described by an external review of the teaching and learning centre) has been generating participation from instructors in professional development opportunities to improve teaching and learning. Conversations with counterparts at other similar institutions indicate that this problem is not specific to the context of McMaster, and therefore the results from this research may provide beneficial suggestions to other postsecondary organizations that face similar issues related to participation.

Researcher Positioning

For the past 7 years, I have worked at McMaster University as an Educational Developer. My work involves interacting with instructors and graduate students, either in one-on-one or group settings, to establish ways of enhancing their teaching. I have been involved in the development of educational development programming, such as workshops on teaching and learning, short courses, and the development of an educational development certificate program for postsecondary instructors. Another aspect of my role at McMaster University is to engage in research on teaching and

learning. My areas of research focus (in addition to the present research) include community-engaged education, students as partners in curriculum development, and knowledge translation of teaching and learning research. My interest in this study, therefore, is to identify motivators and barriers to participation in educational development that may shape the way that programming is offered through the teaching and learning centre at McMaster University.

Statement of the Problem

The vast majority of university educators are experts in their disciplinary areas and take academic positions at institutions of higher education to engage in research and to teach within their fields (Gaff, 2002). Many of these individuals, however, have no formal training in effective pedagogical approaches for teaching and learning (Clark, Moran, Skolnik, & Trick, 2009; Fletcher & Patrick, 1998; Gaff, 1975; Simmons, 2011a). Instructors and faculty members face enormous pressures in their positions, including academic research, grant applications, graduate student supervision, service to the institution, teaching, and work-life balance, to name a few (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004). In fact, data collected by the Office of the Auditor General indicates that, on average, instructors in Ontario spend less than one hour per year in formal educational development such as workshops offered by teaching and learning centres (Office of the Auditor General of Canada, 2012). This corroborates previous findings that formal educational development is a low priority for many instructors (Skeff et al., 1997).

In most cases, university educators may choose to participate voluntarily in educational development since it is not generally mandated by institutions (Caffarella

& Zinn, 1999; Steinert et al., 2006). Therefore, some instructors opt to engage in educational development opportunities, while others do not. It is not always clear what the motivators and barriers to instructor participation in educational development are. This study attempts to uncover various facets of motivation and explore the perspectives of intrinsically motivated participants (i.e., those who participate in educational development for inherent satisfaction and genuine interest in teaching and learning) and participants who are extrinsically motivated (i.e., those who participate in order to attain a separable outcome, such as promotion, improved student evaluation, etc.) (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Purpose of the Study

The objective of the present research study was to understand instructor perceptions of motivators and barriers to participation in educational development opportunities.

Study Question

Participants in this qualitative study were invited to participate in semistructured interviews to answer the following broad research question: What are the motivators for and barriers to participation in educational development opportunities at a postsecondary institution? The interview guide is presented in chapter 3. The interview guide included probing questions and opportunities for open dialogues as it pertained to participation in educational development.

Rationale

There are compelling reasons for conducting this research at the present moment. Some of the reasons described below include an expectation of new

instructor and faculty hires in the near future, the higher education context in Ontario with a focus on enhancing quality in postsecondary education, the continued growth of postsecondary teaching and learning centres, and anecdotal evidence that I have observed as an educational developer within a postsecondary teaching and learning centre.

New Instructor Hires

First, there is an expectation of a significant number of new instructor or faculty hires in the near future. In the decade leading up to 2010, it was expected that the Canadian faculty cohort would see a turnover of two-thirds of its members through retirement (Council of Ministers of Education, Canada [CMEC], 2005). Also, it was expected that there would be a growth of 10,000 faculty members in new positions in Canada (CMEC, 2005; Rae, 2005). In reality, the elimination of mandatory retirement in most Canadian jurisdictions resulted in decreased professor retirements. In 2010, the 65+ population of postsecondary educators grew by 118.5% over the previous 14 years (Canadian Association of University Teachers, 2010). This has essentially delayed the expected turnover of postsecondary educators meaning that a high faculty turnover may occur in the coming decade.

Educational development literature demonstrates that education training programs can enhance new instructors' abilities to effectively teach and to adopt student-centred approaches (Rodgers, Christie, & Wideman, 2014). As such, providing the growing number of newly hired postsecondary educators in Canada (and, in fact experienced educators, too) with training opportunities could help meet the learning needs of a growing student population.

Higher Education Context in Ontario

As mentioned, the Auditor General's (2012) report on "University Undergraduate Teaching Quality" makes connections between enhanced teaching quality and instructor participation in educational development. The report refers to a study involving 22 universities across eight countries, which revealed that "students judged that professors who had received training in teaching had improved in areas such as enthusiasm, organizational ability and rapport with students" (Office of the Auditor General of Ontario, 2012, p. 284). Two of the five recommendations in the report make direct reference to enhancing and encouraging "greater participation in professional development activities" (p. 285).

Additionally, in the autumn of 2013, the Council of Ontario Universities (COU) initiated a province-wide event co-hosted by COU, the Council of Ontario Educational Developers (COED), and McMaster University titled the Faculty Engagement in Educational Development (FEED) Summit to bring together broad representation (e.g., senior administrators, educational developers, faculty members, and students) from Ontario universities to discuss the issue of participation in educational development.² The event was initiated as a result of audits (performed by staff from the Office of the Auditor General) at three different Ontario teaching and learning centres that revealed that participation rates in educational development activities were low, as perceived by the auditor general.

At the FEED Summit meeting, it became apparent that Ontario postsecondary institutions and educational development units should broaden the definition of

² It should be noted, for posterity, that at the time of the FEED Summit, I was the co-Chair of the Council of Ontario Educational Developers.

educational development (COED, 2014). In particular, a point was raised that educational developers were creating their own local languages at different institutions with respect to definitions of educational development and associated activities. Approximately 4 weeks after the FEED Summit, COED hosted its annual meeting, and devoted the entire day to consider broadly (a) what educational development is, (b) why instructors engage in educational development, (c) where educational development can occur, and (d) how educational development happens in different contexts.

A resulting document from COED (2014) stated,

While formal educational development activities are one way for faculty to develop their teaching skills, there are many less formal development opportunities. For example, participation in departmental curriculum committees, mentoring and coaching, personal reflection, researching teaching and learning, communities of practice, etc. (p. 3)

Therefore, there is an ongoing movement to expand the definition of educational development beyond the definition provided at the beginning of this document.

Finally, the issue of educational development at the postsecondary level appears to be of significant interest to the Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario (HEQCO). Over the past 5 years, there have been no fewer than 10 research projects funded by HEQCO to investigate issues related to educational development in Ontario's postsecondary sector (HEQCO, 2015). Some of this research has focused on educational development programs for new faculty and instructors (Gregory & Cusson, 2013; Miles & Polovina-Vukovic, 2012; Rodgers et al., 2014), the impact of

multi-institutional training programs and networks (Dawson et al., 2014), and the breadth of educational development opportunities (Britnell et al., 2010). The mandate of HEQCO, as indicated on its website, is to “bring evidence-based research to the continued improvement of the postsecondary education system in Ontario” (HEQCO, 2015, para. 2), and one way it has attempted to achieve this mandate is through supporting research about educational development practices.

Based on the aforementioned literature, it is clear that the Auditor General of Ontario, the Council of Ontario Universities, and the Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario agree that educational development is an area of importance in the Ontario context.

Quality Movement in Higher Education

Recent calls from both the local and the provincial level aim to enhance teaching and learning in the postsecondary realms. For instance, McMaster University’s president indicated in a visioning document that the institution should work toward “reconceiving undergraduate education” (Dean, 2011, p. 14).

At the provincial level, the establishment of the Ontario Universities Council on Quality Assurance (or Quality Council) in 2010 was followed by the implementation of the Institutional Quality Assurance Process (IQAP) in 2012. The role of the Quality Council is to assure the quality of all programs leading to postsecondary degrees, including new undergraduate and graduate programs, and for overseeing the regular audit of each university’s quality assurance processes.

Both these examples speak to the importance placed on elevating the quality of postsecondary education, both at the institutional level and the provincial level.

Continued Growth of Teaching and Learning Centres

In addition, there has been a continued and steady growth of teaching and learning centres in universities (Lee, 2010; Taylor & Bedard, 2010). Not only does nearly every Canadian postsecondary institution now have a teaching and learning centre (Simmons, 2010b), but there has also been growth in other aspects, as well. For example, there are more types of programming now offered, increased numbers of staff at these centres with varied backgrounds to support teaching and learning in different disciplines, and improved budgets to support this work (Lee, 2010).

The vision of many centres is to be nationally and internationally recognized for their work in educational development and support (e.g., Brock University, 2010; McGill University, 2011; McMaster University, n.d.; University of Waterloo, n.d.).

Anecdotal Evidence

In my work as an educational developer at McMaster University, I often hear comments from instructors indicating that they were interested in attending educational development opportunities, but in the end did not, often citing that they did not have time, or something more pressing came up. This suggests that some instructors, at least, want to engage in educational development, but barriers may prevent their participation. A deeper, more rigorous exploration of why educators either choose to participate (or, equally importantly, choose not to participate) in educational development opportunities is necessary.

The results from this research may allow those working in postsecondary teaching and learning centres to serve the needs of instructors more effectively with respect to their educational development requirements. For example, if particular

logistical barriers are identified, such as timing or format (online versus face-to-face) of educational development opportunities, these can easily be overcome. These strategies can be shared with other educational developers via publications, conference presentations, or casual conversations.

Previous Related Studies at McMaster University

This particular study is not the first of its kind at McMaster University. Within the teaching and learning centre, I have been focusing my research on understanding instructors' educational development needs, desire, motivators, and barriers to participation for the past 5 years.

A previous related study conducted at McMaster University sampled a large proportion of the faculty population through an online survey that was distributed to all full-time, permanent instructors at the institution, yielding 248 respondents with a response rate of 14% (Knorr, McCurdy, & Vajoczki, 2010). The focus of the survey was on educational development needs with particular attention paid to delivery methods and topics of interest. The data showed that 90% of respondents indicated interest in participating in events offered by the teaching and learning centre; however, this figure does not represent the uptake that is seen at events, and therefore part of what I would like to accomplish in the present study is to more deeply understand the reasoning behind this discrepancy.

A second, follow-up study at McMaster University investigated educational development needs more deeply through six semistructured focus group interviews involving 29 university faculty participants (Knorr & Vajoczki, 2010). The focus group participants self-identified through the online survey and volunteered to

participate. The resulting population primarily consisted of a group of individuals who the authors would describe as active and engaged postsecondary instructors. While a large data set was collected from the focus group interviews, I recognize that the participants did not adequately represent the general population. The focus group data indicated a need and desire for a formalized educational development program. I do not know, however, what would motivate or prevent faculty members from participating in such a program. This, therefore, is what the current research is intended to accomplish.

Theoretical Framework

Motivation theory will be used to frame this project. The notion of motivation has been examined by philosophers and scholars since the times of Plato (Cooper, 1984), and continues to be studied (primarily by psychologists) to this day (see, for example, Petri & Govern, 2013; Pink, 2009). The *Oxford English Dictionary* (2014) defines motivation as “the reason or reasons one has for acting or behaving in a particular way.” These reasons may be intrinsic (i.e., inherently enjoyable or interesting) or extrinsic (i.e., doing something in order to obtain a desired outcome). Ryan and Deci (2000) suggest that there are two forms of extrinsic motivation. The first is perhaps the more traditional view of extrinsic motivation, which they refer to as external regulation, which is associated with compliance, resentment, disinterest, and resistance. For example, instructors may strategically participate in educational development in a year that they qualify for tenure to demonstrate to the tenure and promotion committee that they are actively working to enhance their teaching.

The second form of extrinsic motivation is more active and agentic, where the motivation is accompanied by “an attitude of willingness that reflects an inner acceptance of the value or utility of a task” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 55). For example, educators may willingly participate in educational development, not because they have an inherent interest in improving their teaching (i.e., intrinsically motivated) but rather because their interests lie in helping their students to gain deeper knowledge in their courses.

Alternatively, there may be intrinsic motivation factors at play. Pink (2009) suggests that there are three intrinsic motivators that may play a greater role than “carrots and sticks” (i.e., extrinsic motivators), and these are autonomy, mastery, and purpose. Autonomy is the desire to be self-directive. Mastery is the longing to improve at things that matter or are relevant. Purpose is the yearning to do something in service for the betterment of the world. For example, in the university context, it could be generalized that academics pursue their disciplinary research for the intrinsic reasons as described by Pink. If I were to map Pink’s intrinsic motivation model on to a traditional university research professor position, I would say that research is typically independent and self-directed (autonomy); it is meaningful and relevant to themselves and those in their field (mastery); and it is purposeful in gaining a deeper understanding of how things work, which normally has positive implications for the world (purpose).

Motivation for educators to participate in educational development may exist in either an intrinsic or extrinsic form, but a third possibility is a combination of the two. For instance, the active agentic form of extrinsic motivation (i.e., an attitude of

willingness) as described by Ryan and Deci (2000) seems to bear some commonality with the notion of purpose as described by Pink's model of intrinsic motivation, and it may be difficult to understand fully whether the motivation is extrinsic or intrinsic in its roots.

Not only was I interested in what motivates instructors to participate in educational development, but I was also interested in barriers to participation. In my search of literature and discussions with colleagues who specialize in psychology, I could not identify a barrier theory (i.e., a theoretical framework that discusses why people choose *not* to do something). Deci and Ryan (1985), however, present a model of amotivation, which they describe as lacking an intention to act or engage. Amotivation can result from not feeling competent in a particular activity, not valuing it, or not believing the activity will yield a desired outcome (Deci & Ryan, 1985). University instructors who perceive or identify barriers to participation in educational development may face elements of amotivation.

Motivators and barriers to educational development, as identified by university instructors, will be examined through the remainder of this thesis through the lenses of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as amotivation.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The objective of this research project is to understand factors that influence or prevent instructors from participating in educational development. The ultimate outcomes of this research will have an impact on the educational development programs that are offered through the teaching and learning centre at McMaster University, therefore the boundaries of this study will be limited to research

participants from McMaster University. That being said, some of the results of this research may resonate with educational developers from other institutions, and it is possible that the presented insights or recommendations from this particular study may be applied to other contexts.

Some of the limitations that exist in the present study include sample size and personal biases. The sample size of this study was limited to eight participants, which of course cannot possibly represent the entire extent of perspectives in relation to participation in educational development. Limiting participation to eight instructors, however, allowed me to select at least one instructor per Faculty at McMaster University and provided a manageable data set consistent with qualitative studies using in-depth interviews (Creswell, 2012).

Qualitative methodologies inevitably introduce personal bias not only into the planning and methodological design (e.g., development of interview instrument, selection of participants), but also in the analysis and publication of the data. These biases were managed by field-testing the interview questions for refinement, randomly selecting participants, and member checking to ensure the accuracy of data collected prior to analysis. Further, analyses of data from this study were triangulated with previously published data. In addition, I verified my interpretations of the data with my supervisor. Some additional methodological limitations are discussed in chapter 3.

Outline of the Remainder of the Document

In chapter 1, I have presented a perceived problem of low participation rates by instructors in educational development and the growing need to ensure high

quality educational opportunities at the postsecondary level. I have also shown how I will analyze the collected data from this study through the theoretical framework of motivation.

In chapter 2 of this document, I will highlight some of the historical and current literature with respect to educational development, as well as some of the known motivators and barriers with respect to participation in educational development.

Chapter 3 presents the methodological approaches employed in the present study, with specific emphasis on the methodological rationale, recruitment process, interview procedure, and qualitative data analysis techniques. Further, I discuss ethical considerations and limitations to the research approach.

Chapter 4 reports on the qualitative data collected from research interviews with instructors. Data are presented in categories, which are more broadly presented in themes (major themes being motivators associated with participation in educational development and barriers associated with participation in educational development).

Finally, chapter 5 is a discussion of the results and the implications for practice, theory, and further research. I make recommendations based on findings from the literature and my interpretations of the data.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter explores some of the historical context of educational development from its origins to present understanding based on a review of the literature and models derived by professional organizations dedicated to educational development in postsecondary education, namely, the Professional and Organizational Development [POD] Network in Higher Education. The chapter continues to explore literature surrounding known motivators and barriers to participation in educational development. Based on my searches, however, there is little that is actually published on this particular topic.

Although institutions of higher education have existed in North America for over 350 years (e.g., Harvard University established in 1631, Université Laval established in 1663, Yale University established in 1701), teaching and learning centres remain a relatively new branch within the postsecondary educational setting (Centra, 1978; Wilcox, 1997). Formalized centres that specialize in fostering improved teaching and reflective practice have existed for approximately 40-50 years (Lee, 2010; Wilcox, 1997). Many of these centres began in the 1960s and 1970s and consisted of just one or two individuals to support the teaching and learning activities of an entire campus. The first of such centres was established in the United States at the University of Michigan in 1962 (Cook & Kaplan, 2011; Lee, 2010), and in Canada, the first teaching and learning centres was created at McGill University in 1969 (Taylor & Bedard, 2010), with several other universities following in the 1970s (Grabove et al., 2012; Simmons, 2010a).

Today, the landscape has shifted to a state where nearly all Canadian postsecondary institutions have a centrally funded and centrally supported unit on campus to support the improvement of faculty teaching and student learning (Taylor & Bedard, 2010). Although the specific mission statements of each of these individual units vary from institution to institution, educational development remains at the core of the operation of teaching and learning centres.

What Is Educational Development?

The general purpose of educational development refers to ongoing professional learning for educators (also commonly referred to as staff development or professional development) (Lawler & King, 2000). Educational development may include training educators before beginning their roles as instructors or in their early years of teaching, but it also refers to ongoing development opportunities for improving and enhancing professional aspects throughout their careers.

Educational development has evolved considerably since the inception of the first teaching and learning centres. As is evidenced in the literature and in the field, there is significant ambiguity in the language and definitions surrounding educational development (Ouellett, 2010; Taylor & Bedard, 2010). The professional community of educational developers remains undecided with respect to terminology in this field (COED, 2014). Educational development is commonly referred to as academic development in Australia and the United Kingdom (Taylor & Bedard, 2010), while in the United States, it is commonly referred to as faculty development or professional development (Ouellett, 2010). There are slight differences in these terms; some based on historical circumstances, while others are local or contextual differences. Some of

these differences are outlined in the next section. The most common term in Canada to describe activities to enhance teaching and learning is educational development, and so this will be the language used for the remainder of this document.

Models of Educational Development

While numerous models for educational development exist, I will only discuss two here. The Bergquist and Phillips model of educational development, as it was one of the first in the field (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975b) is worthy of consideration. A more recent model is described by the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD Network, 2007).

Bergquist and Phillips Model of Educational Development

In the mid-1970s, Bergquist and Phillips (1975a) identified that “piecemeal efforts to improve college and university teaching have generally proven ineffective” (p. 117) such as one-time attendance at workshops or lectures on improving postsecondary teaching. In response to this, they proposed a model for educational development (which they called faculty development) that comprised three distinct areas: (a) instructional development, (b) organizational development, and (c) personal development (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975b). They wrote about the importance of the interconnected nature of this model, and the necessity to draw connections among the three areas.

Instructional development. Bergquist and Phillips (1975b) refer to instructional development as programming that aims to improve instructional methods and incorporate teaching technologies to elevate student evaluation of teaching. Instructional development requires that instructors consider four factors

when developing their teaching approach: (a) the teaching style of the instructor, (b) the learning style of the students, (c) the content of the course, and (d) the educational environment in which the course takes place. Instructional development, as proposed by Bergquist and Phillips, aims to achieve compatibility among these four criteria. They also indicate that instructional development should “contain elements which have immediate application to the primary function of the faculty member, instruction in the classroom” (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975b, p. 19) so that educators can apply their newly acquired skills without delay.

Organizational development. Bergquist and Phillips (1975b) view organizational development through a change and resistance lens. They suggest that educators who participate in educational development often return to their department and face “barriers of scepticism, suspicion, and open hostility” from their colleagues (p. 141). In an effort to overcome these challenges that are embedded within the organizational culture, organizational development as viewed by Bergquist and Phillips is designed to improve team building, decision making, and conflict resolution. Team building can be addressed through team exercises based on Tuckman’s (1965) four stages of group formation, including forming, storming, norming, and performing. Exercises may include activities on group process or group perceptions; specific examples of these are offered by Wallen (as cited in Bergquist & Phillips, 1975b, pp. 147-155).

Further, Bergquist and Phillips (1975b) state that effective decision making is a skill that can be learned, much like learning to become an effective teacher. Two decision-making theories that they recommend are based upon consensus decision-

making, since it aligns well to decision-making processes of most academic institutions. Conflict can be viewed from two opposing perspectives: one that focuses on disorder or destruction, and an alternate perspective of development, opportunity, and growth (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975b). Bergquist and Phillips suggest the STP approach to conflict management, one which examines the relationships among the *situation* (i.e., environment), the *target* (i.e., outcome), and the *proposal* (i.e., action).

Personal development. Bergquist and Phillips (1975b) argue that through instructional development and organizational development educators may re-examine their own life goals, and that these development opportunities may have a significant impact on family life and relationships with colleagues. Thus, Bergquist and Phillips suggest a three-pronged approach to personal development, involving (a) life planning, (b) personal growth, and (c) supportive and therapeutic counselling. In life planning workshops, participants identify “relevant personal feelings, attitudes, values, and experiences, and use them as part of the decision-making process” in their roles as educators (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975a, p. 205). Personal growth workshops allow participants to explore new dimensions of personal life and resources as a result of their participation in an educational development program. Bergquist and Phillips stipulate that participation in an educational development program may cause participants to reexamine their own life values or goals. This new perspective may produce feelings of isolation, and so, as a part of their personal development model, supportive and therapeutic counseling is an important proactive element (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975a).

Some elements of the Bergquist and Phillips model continue to persist in the Canadian context of educational development, while some elements have naturally evolved. For example, instructional development continues with the aim to improve instructional methods; however, the end goal is no longer focused on student evaluation of teaching, but rather the student learning experience and achievement of intended learning outcomes (Biggs & Tang, 2011; Hussey & Smith, 2003). With respect to personal development, the focus has shifted from one's personal life (i.e., life planning and therapeutic counselling) to be more on developing oneself as a professional in the field, such as enhancing supervisory skills and writing skills (POD Network, 2007).

POD Model of Educational Development

A more recent model for educational development is proposed by the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD Network). Like Bergquist and Phillips, the POD Network (2007) suggests that educational development (again, originally termed faculty development) consists of three major areas, including (a) faculty development, (b) instructional development, and (c) organizational development. There is inherent confusion with the nomenclature of these subcategories, since the original broad term proposed by POD was faculty development, but there was also a subcategory with the same title. Although these terms seem like they may align with the definitions proposed by Bergquist and Phillips (1975b), there are some notable differences as described below.

Faculty development. Faculty development as proposed by the POD

Network is much broader than the model proposed by Bergquist and Phillips, which focused primarily on the improvement of in-class instructional methods. The POD model of faculty development is centred very much on the faculty member, and is aimed at improving the faculty member in a number of holistic ways, including their role as an educator, a scholar, and person.

The POD model of educational development gives rise to more contemporary thoughts of faculty development (POD Network, 2007). For example, this model includes the development of teaching skills, such as class organization, evaluation of students, in-class presentation skills, questioning, and all aspects of design and presentation. A second focus of faculty development considers faculty members as scholars and professionals (POD Network, 2007). Programming within this realm may include skills to improve scholarly writing (grants and manuscripts), supervise students, or engage in committee work. The third focus of faculty development as proposed by the POD Network centres on the faculty member as a person, and aims to develop what many consider “soft skills,” such as time management, interpersonal skills, or other skills that might improve one’s well-being.

Instructional development. In contrast to the model suggested by Bergquist and Phillips, the POD Network (2007) proposes that the focus of instructional development is on improving the institution as a whole. Through the structured and intentional design or redesign of a course or curriculum, the goal of enhanced student learning will be realized, and effectively improve the institution. The POD Network indicates that “the philosophy behind [instructional development] is that members of

the institution should work as teams to design the best possible courses within the restrictions of the resources available” (para. 8).

Organizational development. The intention of organizational development as suggested by the POD Network (2007) is to build capacity within the institution (and its subcomponents), with a particular focus on professional development for key decision makers, including chairs, deans, and senior management. The philosophy is that a strong organizational structure that pays particular attention to teaching and learning will give rise to a strong educational experience for the students. This type of development may include activities such as team-development training or specialized training to support faculty-level curricular decisions. Other components of organizational development often deal with personnel issues involving faculty members, such as faculty evaluation and reward mechanisms (e.g., tenure and promotion), and governance structures, among others (POD Network, 2007).

While the structure of the POD model appears to be quite rigid, the network is explicit in specifying that an educational development program must be flexible to meet the needs of the institution and participants, and stay within the confines of the resources available (POD Network, 2007).

The POD model differs from the Bergquist and Phillips model in that it takes a proactive stance to organizational development and curricular change with educational development opportunities being offered both early and ongoing through an educator’s career (POD Network, 2007), whereas the Bergquist and Phillips model was more reactive to the perceptions of colleagues who chose not to participate in educational development opportunities, as previously mentioned (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975b).

Important Definitions

As is evidenced with the two aforementioned examples, there are striking differences in language and definitions used to describe educational development. To establish clarity and consistency for the remainder of this paper, educational development refers to activities undertaken by instructors at postsecondary institutions to enhance teaching and learning (Gibbs, 1996; Jenkins, 1996). As mentioned, the term educational development has several monikers, including academic, professional, and faculty development (Ouellette, 2010; Taylor & Bedard, 2010). Personally, I find the term faculty development inaccurate, since not all people who participate in educational development are faculty members. For instance, in the McMaster University context, often instructional staff members at postsecondary institutions engage with teaching and learning centres as their staff roles may be tightly connected to teaching and learning. Similarly, not all postsecondary educators are university faculty members. To create a more inclusive term, I use the language of *instructors* in this document to refer to any person involved in teaching (specifically in this context, at the postsecondary level). This could include faculty members, contract instructors, sessional lecturers, and staff members with a teaching and learning capacity to their role, such as course coordinators and instructional assistants. For the purposes of this thesis, teaching assistants are not included.

Known Motivators and Barriers to Participation in Educational Development

A review of existing literature was conducted to determine what was published with respect to motivators and barriers to participation in educational development. To begin, I recognized that many of the keywords I planned to search

had numerous synonyms, so I generated a chart of the keywords I wished to search with their synonyms (see Table 1).

The literature search began with academic databases such as Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), Education Research Complete, and Google Scholar. Various combinations of the keywords shown in Table 1 were used to explore previously published literature (including books, journal articles, theses, government documents) with respect to motivation and barriers to participation in educational development. These findings will be discussed below.

A recently published quantitative study examined instructors at four different institutions in the United States and looked at motivators and obstacles to participation in faculty development (Lowenthal, Wray, Bates, Switzer, & Stevens, 2013). Results indicated that the most motivating factors for engaging in educational development were receiving a stipend and being offered release time to complete educational development. On the other side, time and competing priorities were the top two obstacles to attending educational development across all four institutions (Lowenthal et al., 2013).

In other studies of clinical educators, motivating factors such as personal and professional growth, self-improvement, relevant topics, and the opportunity to network with colleagues were identified (Steinert et al., 2010). Barriers to participation included volume of work, lack of time, and perceived lack of financial reward, but it was reported in these studies of medical professionals that these barriers did not prevent participation (Steinert et al., 2006; Steinert et al., 2010)

Table 1

Synonyms for Keyword Searches in Academic Databases

Primary key words				
	Motivator	Barrier	Educational development	University
Synonyms	Incentive	Inhibitor	Faculty development	Postsecondary
	Support	Impediment	Staff development	College
	Enhance	Roadblock	Professional development	Higher education
	Promote	Hindrance	Teaching development	Tertiary education
	Influence	Obstacle	Workshops	

In a separate unrelated study of medical educators' participation in faculty development (Skeff et al., 1997), barriers to participation included a tendency to underestimate the need for teaching enhancement, a lack of belief that educational development would lead to change, and a general belief that teacher training is unrelated to teaching excellence.

Through my literature search, it was rare to find scholarship that referred to motivation to participate in educational development. Skeff et al. (1997), however, briefly mentioned motivation:

Many clinical teachers have a strong motivation to do an excellent job simply because of their commitment to and enjoyment of teaching.

However, many faculty do not perceive a need to improve, or do not see their potential for improvement. This attitude may reflect their lack of knowledge that methods can be helpful rather than lack of interest in excellent teaching. (p. S57)

Although this quotation does not speak directly to the point of motivation to participate in educational development, it does refer to what can be implied as an intrinsic desire to be an effective educator, which could act as a motivator to participate in educational development. Additionally, it speaks to the notion of a barrier to participation of being unaware of the need or possibility of improvement.

In the next section, I will align some of these previously identified motivators and barriers to motivation theory as described by Deci and Ryan (1985), Ryan and Deci (2000), and Pink (2009).

Connection Between Known Motivators and Barriers to Participation in Educational Development and Motivation Theory

In order to visualize the theoretical framework as a whole, Table 2 was created. The table assembles the theories of amotivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985), extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000), and intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). Very brief definitions of these terms (and the relevant subcategories for extrinsic and intrinsic motivation) are included. Additionally, some known motivators and barriers to educational development from the literature have been included in this table. The examples from the literature have been appropriately assigned to each of the categories of motivation.

Summary

Although much is known about human motivation, and there exists an extensive literature about educational development, there is a gap with respect to motivation to participate in educational development. As evidenced by my review of related literature, very few studies have examined this issue in a scholarly fashion. As a member of the educational development community in Ontario, and Canada more broadly, a pervasive issue that seems to face teaching and learning centres is low participation rates in educational development opportunities. Lowenthal et al. (2013) report a similar finding in the United States.

Some extrinsic motivators to participation in educational development have been reported in the literature, such as stipends, release time, and certifications (Lowenthal et al., 2013; Skeff et al., 1997). Similarly, some intrinsic motivators have been identified, such as commitment and enjoyment of teaching, and personal or

professional growth (Skeff et al., 1997; Steinert et al., 2010). A number of barriers or obstacles to participation in educational development have also been reported, with the most common barriers being lack of time (Feist, 2003; Lowenthal et al., 2013, Steinert et al., 2010) and competing priorities (Lowenthal et al., 2013).

From the outset of this study, it was my belief that there was more to be learned about motivators and barriers to participation in educational development. Results from this study will allow me to paint a broader picture of motivators and barriers to participation in educational development. In chapter 5, I present a table similar to Table 2, but with additional examples that have resulted from this study.

The present study aims to understand instructors' perceptions about decisions to participate in educational development, and barriers preventing participation.

Table 2

Motivation Theories, Brief Definitions, and Examples From the Literature

	Amotivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985)	Extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000)		Intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009)		
		External regulation	Active and agentive	Autonomy	Mastery	Purpose
Definition	Low perceived competence or non- relevance	Extrinsic rewards or punishments	Attitude of willingness and inner acceptance of the value of task	Desire to be self- directive	Longing to improve at things that matter or are relevant	Yearning to do something for the betterment of the world
Examples from literature	No need for teaching development (Skeff et al., 1997) Lack of belief that educational development would lead to change (Skeff et al., 1997)	Stipend to participate in educational development (Lowenthal et al., 2013) Release time (Lowenthal et al., 2013)	Network with colleagues (Steinert et al., 2010)	Relevant topics for development of self (Steinert et al., 2010)	Personal and professional growth (Steinert et al., 2010)	None reported

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

The present study examining instructor perceptions of motivators and barriers to participation in educational development took a qualitative approach. In-depth interviews were chosen as the data collection tool as a means to gather rich, detailed information.

Research Methodology and Design

As Creswell (2012) indicates, “qualitative research is best suited to address a research problem in which you do not know the variables and need to explore” (p. 16). In the study design, I was interested in exploring the perceptions of university instructors with respect to motivators and barriers they faced when considering their participation in educational development. A number of methodological approaches were considered for this research, including grounded theory design, action research design, and phenomenographic design. Through a deeper investigation of these methodologies, I realized that my research questions and proposed design did not align well to any specific qualitative research framework. I, therefore, elected to adopt a research design would take a basic or generic qualitative approach.

Qualitative research allows researchers to develop research questions in broad or general ways in order to deeply understand the perspectives of their participants without binding the design and analysis by constraints or norms of a more specific qualitative methodology (Creswell, 2012). In qualitative research, a small number of participants are selected and are invited to participate in interviews or an observational protocol (Creswell, 2012; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data are often collected through the transcripts of conversations or observational fieldnotes that the

researcher records. Sometimes the data could include images or media items. These data are then analyzed to describe the central phenomenon as it relates to the research question(s) (Creswell, 2012; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

There are two approaches to qualitative research: inductive and deductive. Very simply, an inductive approach begins with researchers collecting data, examining the data for patterns, then developing a theory based on their findings (Saldaña, 2013). A deductive approach is similar, but opposite to an inductive approach; first researchers begin with a social theory or hypothesis, then collect and analyze data, and finally determine whether their hypothesis is supported or not (Saldaña, 2013). In this work, I used an iterative coding approach that hovered between inductive and deductive methodologies. To elaborate, I have positioned this research within a theoretical framework (i.e., motivation), which might lead one to believe that I am using a deductive approach. I did not, however, set out to prove or disprove motivation theory, rather I collected interview data to understand a phenomena: why individuals choose to participate in educational development or not.

Freeman (1998) offers a methodical approach applicable for my particular context. He suggests that it is acceptable in qualitative coding to begin with initial (or a priori) broad categories then develop codes within the categories. I followed the model as suggested by Freeman for this research.

In the case of this study, I audio recorded interviews, and had them professionally transcribed. These transcripts, along with the accompanying audio files, formed the basis for my analysis. In addition to audio recording the interviews, I

kept brief fieldnotes to capture my thoughts or participants' phrases I wanted to probe further in the interview. I also noted participants' gestures or physical demonstration of emotion that would not be captured through the audio recording.

As noted in chapter 1, two previous studies have been conducted at McMaster (by myself with colleagues) exploring educational development needs and perceptions. These studies used survey designs whereby all permanent, full-time instructors were invited to participate (Knorr et al., 2010) and focus group design wherein participants from the survey study were invited to participate (Knorr & Vajoczki, 2010). The survey design was chosen to broadly understand instructors' needs and preferences with respect to participation in educational development. Results from that study provided a high-level overview of instructor needs; however, it became apparent that a deeper understanding of instructor needs would be beneficial in designing educational development programming. The follow-up study used focus groups as a method to gather a deeper sense of instructor needs pertaining to educational development. Results from the focus groups left unanswered questions about personal motivations and barriers to participation in educational development, which led to the current study.

The present study is a follow-up analysis to explore some of these issues in detail through one-on-one interviews. Because I anticipated a diversity of individual responses, I felt that the best data collection tool would be one-on-one interviews. I do not believe the depth of the results I achieved through the interviews would have been possible using an alternative tool, such as a survey or reflective journaling. The semistructured nature of the interviews also invited the opportunity to probe or take

the conversation in slightly different directions to better understand each participant's perspective.

In sum, interviews allowed the investigation of faculty perceptions around the particular research questions more fully than we previously understood through our previous research (Creswell, 2012).

Selection of Site and Participants

McMaster University was selected as the site for this particular research for a variety of reasons. First, this is the institution where I am employed, and results from this research can inform recommendations that can be implemented at this particular site. Second, because I am familiar with the context and culture of McMaster, I was able to easily converse with participants with respect to the McMaster framework and environment regarding educational development. Third, McMaster University was chosen as a site for pragmatic purposes. It was convenient for me as a researcher to conduct face-to-face interviews without having to travel to different institutions. Creswell (2007) identifies the above reasons as appropriate considerations in site selection; however, he and others offer cautionary notes when using this approach. For example, Glesne and Peshkin (1992) question approaches that examines participants "within your own backyard--within your own institution or agency, or among friends or colleagues" (p. 16). They argue that studying participants who have a close connection may compromise the value of the data. In order to avoid recruiting friends or close colleagues as participants, I devised a random selection process, which is outlined below.

Interview participants were recruited from the McMaster University faculty

membership. I opted to use a random selection process to obtain participants for the study in an attempt to obtain a broad participant base. I had a concern that if I put out a general call for participants to volunteer to be part of my study, I may have ended up with a population of highly motivated and dedicated instructors with whom I had interacted previously through my work or who had previous frequent encounters with educational development through the teaching and learning centre. I did not feel that particular population was representative of the rest of the instructor population.

Additionally, I was concerned that a general call would not generate representation from across McMaster's six Faculties (Business, Engineering, Health Science, Humanities, Science, Social Sciences). It was important to me that I interviewed a participant from each of the six Faculties so I could hear a range of comments from across the institution. Furthermore, two of the six Faculties (Health Sciences and Science) were significantly larger than the remaining four Faculties. Because of this discrepancy, I interviewed two participants from each of the larger Faculties. This gave me a total participant count of eight.

To select the participants from each Faculty randomly, a stratified sampling process was employed (Patton, 2001). Stratified sampling allowed me first to subdivide the potential participants into subpopulations based on their Faculty appointment, and then randomly select from the subgroups. More specifically, a database of all faculty members was obtained from the institution. The database was separated into six separate worksheets, each representing one Faculty. Each of the faculty members on the worksheet was assigned a number. A function through

Microsoft Excel randomly listed all faculty members in each worksheet. I chose to contact two potential participants per Faculty, assuming that one of the two would either not respond, or not be available to participate. The risk involved with this approach was that two instructors from a Faculty would agree to participate. This did not happen in the case of any of the six Faculties.

An additional risk with this recruitment approach was that it had the potential to take significant effort and time to recruit eight participants. I decided early on, therefore, that should an individual decline or not respond within 7 days, I would assume that they could not participate and I would attempt to contact the next random participant in the Faculty list. This would continue until all eight interview subjects had confirmed their participation in the study. The initial 12 randomly selected individuals (two from each Faculty) were contacted via email and invited to participate in the 60-minute interview. Happily, seven of the eight participants were confirmed within 5 days of my initial email invitation. The eighth participant took an additional 3 weeks to recruit because four out of five of the initial people I contacted from the Faculty of Health Sciences declined to participate in the study. In total, 19 individuals were invited to participate in this study, and eight were selected to participate (see Table 3).

Due to the sample size for the study (eight participants), I was aware that demographics of the subjects were not likely to be representative of the entire McMaster faculty population. It was my hope, however, that through the selection method, a diversity of participant perspectives would be represented.

Table 3

Number of Participants Contacted Showing Number of Days to Complete Recruitment

(by Faculty)

	Number of individuals contacted	Number of participants selected	Number of days to confirm participation
Business	2	1	0
Engineering	2	1	0
Health Sciences	6	2	27
Humanities	2	1	2
Science	4	2	2
Social Sciences	3	1	5
<i>Total</i>	<i>19</i>	<i>8</i>	

The only demographic data collected from eight participants were the Faculty to which they belonged, number of years teaching (not including teaching assistantships), and sex (see Table 4). Through my recruitment process, I was successful in recruiting one or two instructors from each Faculty at McMaster, with a spectrum of teaching experience, ranging from 7 to 23 years. Five males and three females participated in the study. The data were not closely analyzed for gender differences, however, to maintain clarity in writing—particularly in chapter 4—I have used gendered pronouns throughout the remainder of this document.

Instrumentation

The interviews were designed to be semistructured, with an interview guide of questions containing particular topics to be covered. The interview guide was developed to be tightly aligned with the study's overall research questions. The majority of the interview questions explored the varying perspectives related to motivators and barriers pertaining to participation in educational development opportunities.

The guide went through several iterations, and was field tested with three colleagues: two from McMaster (who were not involved as participants in this study) and one colleague from another Canadian teaching and learning centre. I received feedback from my supervisor as well on the order and phrasing of the questions. I requested feedback on the scope of the questions, as well as the number of questions that could be managed in a 60-minute interview.

Table 4

Demographic Data for Study Participants

Faculty	No. years teaching	Sex
Social Sciences	7	Male
Engineering	8	Male
Science	10	Male
Science	13	Male
Health Sciences	14	Female
Business	15	Male
Health Sciences	18	Female
Humanities	23	Female

The following questions comprised the interview guide. The questions that appear subordinate to the numbered questions were additional probes that were used in the event that the information was not provided in the original response. Not all participants were asked all subordinate questions.

1. How many years have you been teaching at the postsecondary level, not including teaching assistantships?
2. Since you began your career as an educator, can you identify the training, mentors, and resources that have helped you in your teaching?
 - What made these things helpful?
 - What other things turned out not to be helpful?
3. Do you participate in educational development activities (either through the teaching and learning centre, or otherwise)? If so, how often?
 - *If yes*: Why do you choose to participate in educational development?
 - *If yes*: What types of activities do you tend to participate in? Consider content or format of delivery, for example.
 - *If no*: Why do you choose not to participate in educational development? Would you like to participate more? What types of barriers do you encounter when it comes to participating in educational development?
4. What would motivate you to get more involved in educational development?
 - What do you think the teaching and learning centre could do to encourage you to participate more in educational development?
 - Why would you like to become more involved in educational development activities? Probe: intrinsic vs extrinsic.

5. What influences your decision to participate in educational development?
 - Individual influences? Departmental influences? Institutional influences?
 - Does the extent to which you feel teaching is valued by your department or McMaster affect your decision to participate in educational development?
6. What educational development opportunities would you have appreciated as a new faculty member?
 - Additional probes: mandatory, optional, recognition
7. What educational development opportunities would you appreciate now?
 - Additional probes: mandatory, optional, recognition
 - Describe the ways that the teaching and learning centre could best support your teaching? (Can you describe what that might look like?)
 - We have talked about what would have been helpful with respect to educational development at the beginning of your career and now. Is there anything that may have been helpful at another juncture of your career?
8. Is there anything else that you'd like to share today?

Data Collection and Recording

Sixty-minute interviews were scheduled with the participants at their convenience and occurred between November 11, 2013, and December 13, 2013. Participants were given the option of conducting the interview in their own office space or coming to my office space to interview in a private room. There was an equal split between interviews in participants' office spaces and interviews in my office space.

Each interview began with informal introductions, followed by a reciting of a prepared script that addressed the purpose of the study, a working definition of the term “educational development,” the Letter of Information describing their rights as a participant, and a reminder that the interview would be audio recorded for transcription purposes. Finally, participants were asked to sign a consent form to allow their data to be analyzed for the purposes of the present study, and they were invited to leave their email address with me if they wished to receive a summary of the study results within the following 12-18 months.

After the above processes had been completed, the recording began. I opted to use two recording devices such that in the event that one device failed I would have a back-up recording. During the interviews themselves, topical trajectories and tangents were explored as needed. In order to capture any data with respect to body language or non-verbal cues, I recorded brief fieldnotes that served to later remind me of this information. When the interview was complete (typically 45-60 minutes), I stopped the recording and thanked the participant for their time. I informed them that the audio recording would be transcribed within the next 48-72 hours, and the participant would receive an email from me with the transcription as an attachment. They were invited to review the transcript for accuracy before it would be analyzed.

Next, the audio files were uploaded to my computer, where I used free audio editing software (Audacity®) to trim the ends of the conversation so only the interview questions and responses were included in the audio file. These files were then uploaded to Rev.com, an online transcription service that had been pre-approved by both the Brock University and McMaster University Research Ethics Boards. At

the time of the preparation of this document, Rev.com charged US\$1 per audio minute; an extremely reasonable rate. Therefore, a 50-minute interview cost US\$50 to transcribe. Transcriptions were typically received within 24 hours.

Once each transcript had been received, I listened to the audio recording and followed along the written transcript to make any necessary corrections and to strip any identifying information that might compromise the identity of the participant. These transcripts were then sent to the participants for their approval before the analysis took place.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data were analyzed in the methodological fashion as described by Creswell (2012) whereby I first read through the written transcript (while listening to the audio file). During this initial listening process, I made marginal notes to identify any themes or codes that could apply to various quotations. Next, I used qualitative data analysis software (Atlas TI, version 19) to go through an open coding process. Codes were identified and assigned to passages as I read through the transcripts. Often multiple quotations could be applied to the same passage.

The coding process was repeated for all interviews, one by one. Then, once I had coded all eight interview transcripts, I began at the beginning again, rereading the transcripts (while listening to the audio recordings) to ensure that I had not missed coding any relevant passages.

Two initial a priori broad categories (Freeman, 1998) were used to sort the codes: (a) motivators to participation in educational development and (b) barriers to participation in educational development. Initially, there were 19 codes within the

motivator category and 12 codes within the barrier category. Some codes were later consolidated for reporting purposes based on similarity or where a natural pairing could occur. The tables with the identified motivators and barriers appear in chapter 4.

As I was coding the data, another category emerged, which I titled “Training and development of teaching practices.” There were nine codes within this category. Several other codes emerged through the analysis process that did not fall within the three aforementioned categories. These were lumped into an “Other” category; there were 19 codes in this particular category. Because the codes in the “Training and development of teaching practices” and “Other” category fell outside the scope of the research questions related to this project (i.e., did not directly inform motivators or barriers to participation in educational development), these data have been reserved for future analysis and dissemination.

Next, I consolidated all the quotations from particular codes and tallied up the number of quotations that were in each code, and sorted the codes first by category (i.e., motivators, barriers, training, and other), then by number of quotations per code in descending order. The tabulated frequency counts served as a guide or indication of the most prevalent issues that were shared by the participants.

Open coding analysis of the interview data revealed over 200 individual quotations from the eight interviews that could be thematically categorized into factors that motivated instructors to participate in educational development. Similarly, there were 85 quotations associated with barriers to participation in educational development.

Limitations and Methodological Assumptions

Some of the methodological design issues that may have threatened this study included selection threats, experimenter effect, and experimenter bias. Each of these is discussed briefly below.

Because of the relatively small number of participants that I interviewed in this study, *selection threats*, or selecting participants who are not representative of the sample population, can result in skewed data (Creswell, 2012). In order to deal with this, I intentionally used a stratified sampling process (a form of random sampling) to limit bias. A follow up study with a larger participant pool would be merited to confirm the findings from this study.

The *experimenter effect*, also known as the Rosenthal Effect, occurs when small often unconscious cues by the experimenter can alter or influence the participants' response (Rosenthal, 1966). These cues could be tone of voice, facial expressions, or gestures. Although the experimenter effect is nearly impossible to eliminate completely, it is important as a researcher to be aware that certain body language can influence the data (such as a furrowed brow or crossed arms), and attempt to use both verbal and body language to create a trusting interview environment and avoid using body language that may suggest any sense of judgement. Creswell (2007) offers suggestions to minimize the effect that an interviewer may have on a participant, such as using an ice-breaker to get to know the participant, memorizing interview questions to minimize losing eye contact, and avoiding excessive note taking during an interview to be more present in the interview. I was able to employ these recommendations in the interviews I conducted.

It is critical that these same techniques are employed in each of the interviews to maintain consistency (Creswell, 2007).

An additional tactic that I employed during the interview process was to simply listen to what participants had to say, and acknowledge their comments with a simple head nod, not with the intention that I necessarily agreed with what they are saying, but to acknowledge that I heard what they were saying. Furthermore, I tried not to let comments surprise me or incite a physical response. A final strategy that I used, when interviews were located in my office area, was that I made sure the interview took place in a neutral location (such as a meeting room) and specifically not in my office, where I would have been sitting behind a desk. Positioning myself behind a desk could have created a sense of power, which may have affected participants' responses to my questions.

Experimenter bias is a subjective bias toward results that are expected by the researcher. It occurs from the inability of human beings to be completely objective toward their data (Creswell, 2012). The result is most often deliberate or unintended interpretations of data or subject responses. In other words, in a qualitative interview, researchers will hear what they want to hear or what they think they should hear. Experimenter bias was addressed in this study through member checking, whereby participants had the opportunity to read the interview transcripts for accuracy before the data were analyzed. Additionally, by checking my interpretations with another researcher, in this case, my supervisor, I was able to ensure I was not misreading the data.

There exists a bias in selecting to examine these data through a theoretical framework. In this study, I chose to use motivation theory to frame the data. Had I selected an alternative theoretical framework, the way in which I interpreted the results may have differed.

Establishing Trustworthiness

Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe four methods with which one can judge qualitative research. These are credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability.

The purpose of credibility is to demonstrate the research project has been designed to maximize the accuracy of identifying and describing the research questions at hand. Credibility has been established in this study in a number of ways. First, selection of participants was through random sampling (within Faculties). Random sampling helps to ensure that any unknown influences are evenly distributed within the participant group (Shenton, 2004). Second, triangulation of informants has been employed whereby I have randomly selected participants from different Faculties to ensure there are representative voices from across the campus. Third, I have engaged in detailed conversations with my supervisor and colleagues discussing interpretations of the data. Shenton (2004) refers to this as “peer scrutiny of project” (p. 67). By employing these methods, they have helped to ensure that my perspective as a researcher does not overshadow the participants’ voices.

Dependability recognizes the changing conditions in what is being studied, as well as necessary alterations to the study design to achieve a better understanding of the data. To attain dependability in this work, I have been explicit with the

recruitment process, data collection, and data analysis such that another researcher could repeat the same study using the same research design. Unlike quantitative research, though, it would not be expected that similar results would necessarily be reached due to varying contexts or different researchers conducting the analysis, for example.

Confirmability involves revealing the collected data for inspection. In other words, the reader of the research should be able to examine the data (or a selection of the data) to “confirm” the interpretations. Confirmability has been addressed in this research by providing evidence from the data (i.e., quotations) to support any claims made. Data are presented in chapter 4 of this document.

Transferability considers how the results of a qualitative research study can be applied to other settings or contexts. To establish transferability in this study, I have provided background context of the site, institution, and participants (e.g., demographic information). Readers of this research may find this research useful if their context or environment is similar. It should be noted, however, that in qualitative studies where there are typically few participants and where the research is limited to a single site it is often impossible to demonstrate that results and conclusions are applicable in other contexts.

Member checking was used to enhance trustworthiness of the data. As mentioned above, I corrected the audio transcripts and identifying information was removed from the file (such as Faculty or departmental affiliations, names of colleagues, etc.). These documents, which ranged from 20 to 30 pages (6,500 to 11,000 words), were sent to the participants. Participants were asked to read their

transcript for accuracy, and to ensure that nothing they said could be misconstrued. Finally, participants were invited to contact me for an additional conversation if there was anything else they felt they wanted to say or clarify. None of the participants had any significant comments with respect to the transcripts (but did note a few typographical errors).

Ethical Considerations

Individual risks associated with this particular study were low and unlikely to affect participants in a negative way. Because I selected research participants through purposeful random sampling whereby I approached potential participants and asked them to join my study, it is possible that the participants may have felt pressured to accept or they may have felt awkward declining my invitation. I specifically and intentionally chose to contact potential participants via email so they would not feel coerced to accept my invitation as they might in a phone call or face-to-face situation, and so they had ample time to consider their participation in my study. The language of the email was invitational and voluntary.

Some individuals may have felt that I specifically approached them because they have been labelled as a person who does not participate in educational development through the teaching and learning centre. In my letter of invitation, I was explicit that I was conducting an investigation of educational development needs and ideas and that all perspectives were valued, regardless of their past participation in events offered by the institutional teaching and learning centre. Additionally, the letter of invitation indicated that their name was randomly selected from a list of faculty members in their particular Faculty, and this was meant to ease any concerns

that the participants were targeted based on their level of participation in educational development opportunities.

Due to the small sample size that I used for this study, participants may have felt that they may have been identifiable if their age, gender, years of teaching at the postsecondary level, and other demographic details were collected and reported. All participants and their data remained (and will continue to remain) confidential. In all cases, I removed any identifying information to the best of my ability, and only reported very basic demographic information (Faculty to which they belong, gender, number of years teaching) in tabular format.

It was made clear at the beginning of each interview that if any of the questions made participants feel uneasy, or induced stress or pressure, they could choose not to answer and the interviewer would move on to the next question. They could also discontinue their participation at any time.

In order to ensure that I considered all facets of ethical issues, ethics clearance was obtained from both the Brock University Research Ethics Board (#13-009) and the McMaster Research Ethics Board (#2013 189).

Restatement of the Area of Study

This study was designed to explore instructors' perspectives of motivators and barriers to participation in educational development. The methodology and data collection were intentionally designed to collect evidence to answer the research questions at hand, and chapter 4 will reveal the data that help to answer these questions.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

This research study was designed to understand university instructors' perceptions of what factors motivate them to engage in educational development, and of equal importance, to understand some of the barriers that prevent them from participating in educational development. Previous research has shed light on some of the factors that motivate or prevent instructors from participating in educational development (Knorr et al., 2010; Knorr & Vajoczki, 2010), but the aim of the current study was to understand more deeply some of these factors. An in-depth, semistructured interview process using a predetermined series of questions was thus chosen to investigate participants' perceptions with respect to their involvement in educational development. Qualitative analysis using an open coding strategy was performed on the interview transcripts.

The remainder of this chapter will present findings from this analysis. The first half of this chapter will focus on factors that motivate instructors to participate in educational development, while the latter half will focus on barriers that exist around participation in educational development.

Motivating Factors Associated With Participation in Educational Development

Motivating factors with respect to participation in educational development are reported below. They are presented in the theoretical framework described in chapter 2. First the intrinsic motivators are presented, using the classification of intrinsic motivators described by Pink (2009), namely autonomy, mastery, and purpose. This is followed by a presentation of extrinsic motivator data, framed in the context of active and agentic extrinsic motivators and external regulation of extrinsic

motivators (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Autonomy as Intrinsic Motivation

Pink (2009) indicates that autonomy, or the ability to be self-directive, is a key element to being motivated. Participants in this study reported that autonomy, or being able to choose their involvement in educational development, was an important aspect to their decisions to participate. Three particular areas were identified as autonomy as intrinsic motivation. These were (a) self-identified intrinsic motivation, (b) interest in and enjoyment of educational development, and (c) passion for education and satisfaction in teaching.

Self-identified intrinsic motivation. Each of the eight participants in this study reported that they were generally and authentically intrinsically motivated to participate in educational development, either in the formal or informal sense. Through the interviews, it was apparent that participants took their role as instructors very seriously, and wanted to be able to offer the best learning experience for their students as possible. One participant stated that he participates in educational development simply because “I want to be a good teacher.” Another participant indicated that she chose to be involved in educational development because she was intrinsically motivated to be effective in her role. In the participant’s words, “Speaking in the context of evidence-informed practice, if you’re motivated to be effective then you want to be doing what works. I think that motivates me [to participate in educational development].”

It was clear from all the participants in this study that they want to be effective instructors, and they want their students to succeed. It is this feeling that provides

them with the intrinsic motivation to participate in educational development.

Interest in and enjoyment of educational development. Four of the eight participants in this study indicated on multiple occasions in the interviews that part of their motivation for participating in educational development stemmed from a genuine interest in teaching and learning. For example, one participant noted,

When I was beginning [teaching...] I had a strong interest in [educational development]. ... I would say that my level of interest [in enhancing teaching] hasn't really changed. I'm still interested in the same level. I don't think that's going to change going forward.

Another participant spoke of his enjoyment of educational development, stating, "I like [educational development], I enjoy it, I've always enjoyed it and I can see areas where I'd like to learn more how to do it."

An authentic interest in and enjoyment of educational development was a strong motivating force for participation in educational development opportunities.

Passion or satisfaction for educational development. The ideas of passion for education and achieving satisfaction with teaching were two motivating factors that often arose together and seemed to be connected in the minds of the participants; therefore, these types of comments were coded together. Passion for education and satisfaction with one's teaching were significant factors to motivate participants in this study to participate in educational development. One participant noted that being pleased with his teaching performance makes him feel quite good.

Well, I do [participate in educational development for] satisfaction. I think maybe it's because I do a lot of teaching and there's no worse feeling than

giving a poor performance, even if it's one lecture. Doing a lousy job can really bring you down. Doing a great job though can really, really lift your spirits.

Another instructor indicated that feeling satisfied with his teaching was a motivating driver to be engaged in education development. He stated, "I think that the aspect of satisfaction is a big component in why I'm interested in [teaching and educational development]."

In one particular interview, I asked a participant about the types of educational development in which she had previously engaged. Her eyes lit up, and she spoke at great length about researching new teaching approaches, learning from colleagues, and trying new techniques in her classroom to engage her students and deepen their learning experiences. After she had spoken for some time, I mentioned to the participant that my sense from her narrative was that she was passionate about enhancing her teaching, to which she simply replied, "Yes. Yes, I am."

The way in which this last participant told her story made clear to me the importance and power of autonomy as a motivating force to incite participation in educational development. Her quotation also speaks to the idea that educational development need not be formalized (e.g., a workshop or program offered through a teaching and learning centre). The ways in which instructors engage in informal educational development (e.g., referring to scholarship of teaching and learning literature, engaging with colleagues in discussions regarding teaching and learning, etc.) is an area that requires future research, which I discuss in chapter 5.

Mastery as Intrinsic Motivation

Pink (2009) describes a second element of intrinsic motivation called mastery.

Mastery is the urge or desire to get better at something that matters to an individual. A motivating force to participation in educational development for participants in this study was the desire to become better instructors. Two areas were identified as mastery as intrinsic motivation: (a) the desire to improve teaching, and (b) the desire to stay current with new teaching approaches and techniques.

Desire to improve teaching. Many of the participants identified a motivating force to participation in educational development was their desire to improve their teaching, or become more effective instructors. When asked about what has motivated her participation in educational development, one participant remarked,

You want to be effective right? You don't want people to just like you. You actually want to be effective and be able to have an impact. What you're doing having an impact in a positive way. ... You really have a big impact on how [students] may go out and see the world, so you want to make sure that your teaching is accurate and effective.

This instructor went on to say how she typically refers to educational literature to research ways that she can improve her teaching.

Another instructor who has more than 15 years teaching experience remarked that for her, "at this point [in my career] it's [being] motivated to do fine-tuning." She had spoken earlier in the interview about the great strides she had made in enhancing her teaching early in her career, but now that she had more experience, her focus was on implementing small changes to further develop her instruction.

Remain current with innovative teaching practices. A motivating factor to participation in educational development was the desire to stay current with new

teaching approaches, techniques, or research. One participant mentioned that she takes an evidence-based approach to her teaching, and her teaching and assessment strategies largely came from scholarly literature with respect to teaching. She remarked, “if I’m having to teach [students content in my discipline] I’d rather teach them properly instead of making something up, right?” Another participant indicated that staying current with new educational approaches was part of her motivation and ongoing development as an instructor. Specifically, she said, “I think to me it’s always to continuously improve and to stay up to date.”

Motivation to become a more effective instructor, or to develop a sense of mastery in teaching, played a large role in choosing to engage in educational development.

Purpose as Intrinsic Motivation

Purpose, as defined by Pink (2009), is the “yearning to do what we do in the service of something larger than ourselves” (p. 219). For university instructors, this may be participating in educational development in order to do what is best for their students, the university, or society. Two categories were identified as purpose as intrinsic motivation: (a) a personal sense of need to participate in educational development, and (b) a desire to improve the student learning experience.

Bears a personal sense of need for educational development. One reason why participants chose to engage in educational development was because they felt a need to ensure that students achieved success in their courses. These participants cited educational development as a possible way to enhance student success. One participant said,

To me, teaching is very, very personal. It's a real reflection on myself as an individual and so if I'm not effective at it, if I'm not doing what I need to do or have students achieving the results I want them to achieve, then I see it as a failure on my part, not on theirs. In that sense, yeah, I want to be a good teacher because it's inherently a part of who I am and what I want to be.

The above quotation nicely describes how one individual found motivation to participate in educational development, using Pink's concept of purpose, or yearning to do something that has benefits beyond one's self.

Another participant had recently been hired as a teaching professor. At McMaster University, teaching professors are full-time permanent professors who are hired primarily as course instructors with a higher teaching load, and have service appointments comparable to other research professors; however, they have little to no research expectations. This particular individual who had recently been hired into the teaching professor position indicated his participation in educational development was now, more than ever, "driven by personal need," due to the nature of his role as a teaching professor.

Desire to improve the student learning experience. Some of the participants in this study spoke about their desire to improve the student educational experiences. They indicated that this desire served as a motivating factor to participate in educational development. At one point in a particular interview, I asked why an instructor was motivated to improve the student learning experience, and he responded,

because I care about my students. There is no question about it. To me, I'm

student oriented. Research, we serve at the largest community when we do the research, but the immediate ones are the students, [who] are very important, too. So I do care a lot about my students and about their own development. I do it for them.

I particularly like this quotation because not only does it provide rationale for purpose in educational development (i.e., he cares for his students), but it also refers to purpose in research, which benefits the community beyond the university (i.e., society).

Active and Agentic Extrinsic Motivation

Ryan and Deci (2000) describe one type of extrinsic motivation as active and agentic, where the extrinsic factor is accompanied by “an attitude of willingness that reflects an inner acceptance of the value or utility of a task” (p. 55). In the context of educational development, although instructors may not be intrinsically motivated to engage, they may engage because they feel it is the right thing to do. Three extrinsic motivating factors were categorized in the active and agentic grouping: (a) student feedback on teaching, (b) high quality teaching being valued by the institution, and (c) departmental specific educational development.

Gather student feedback on teaching. One of the greatest motivators for enhancing teaching came from student feedback. In some cases, student feedback led instructors to participate in formal educational development, for example, through the teaching and learning centre, but more often, student feedback resulted in critical personal reflection about teaching approaches and personal development.

One of the participants recalled a story when students needed additional resources. This incident motivated him to engage with the teaching and learning centre to develop materials that responded to student needs. He told me, “my students complained, they used to complain that I don’t have any materials for them available for class, so I developed my own teaching materials.” In this case, the students acted as an extrinsic motivator for the instructor to react in a manner where he was willing to engage in educational development.

An approach to gathering student feedback that was employed by some participants in this study was simply to ask their students for comments. Some participants indicated that they ask for informal feedback throughout their courses, while other participants prefer to wait until each course is complete to get student feedback. One particular instructor said,

I find that it can be really useful to talk to students after the fact because then, they’ve got no skin in the game anymore and they also have more perspective. They’ll give you pretty frank, honest commentary. ... I would say in terms of student feedback, that’s been the most useful.

Participants commented that student feedback motivated them to engage with the teaching and learning centre through consultations or workshops, converse with colleagues, or go to the literature to determine how to change their teaching to respond appropriately to student feedback. Additionally, many participants commented that informal comments from and conversations with students had a greater impact on their teaching development than formal educational development through a teaching and learning centre or similar.

Believe that teaching is valued. An extrinsic motivator to participate in educational development for many of the participants in this study was when they sensed that the institution valued high quality teaching. Some examples of when participants felt willing to engage in educational development was when they observed their department chair participating in educational development, or when they felt as if their department chair was thankful that they had engaged in opportunities to enhance their teaching. One participant remarked that she felt an institutional value toward teaching within her department. When asked directly how she sees the institution valuing teaching, she commented, “because I’m in an academic department, I get lots of opportunities that are easily accessible. Our department does a lot of [educational development] and we have our academic rounds once a week.” Departmental specific educational development served as a motivator for other participants as well, as evidenced in the following section.

Engage in department specific educational development. A third form of active and agentic extrinsic motivation to participate willingly in educational development was when educational development occurred within one’s own department. One participant indicated that when educational development opportunities were brought to a department he noted that “more people saw [educational development] favourably and actually came to one of the sessions. I think that led to an increase in attendance.” My interpretation of this comment was that this participant could not imagine some of his colleagues leaving the department to attend educational development opportunities, but when the opportunities came to the department, they were willing to participate.

External Regulation as Extrinsic Motivation

Ryan and Deci (2000) define external regulation as behaviors that are performed to “satisfy an external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency” (p. 61). External regulation can be a motivating factor to participation in educational development in contexts where there may be rewards or punishments. Notable categories of external regulators that emerged from the data included (a) institutional pressures; (b) tenure, promotion, and merit; and (c) accreditation.

Respond to institutional pressures and leadership. Institutional pressure was identified as an external regulator. In some cases, participants were not motivated by seeking a reward, but rather by avoiding a punishment or consequence. For instance, one participant noted that he felt pressure from his department to engage in educational development to enhance teaching in his program in order to attract more students. He commented, “there’s always pressure [to enhance teaching]. One of the big pressures in the [Faculty] is that [our department has] relatively low enrollments. There is pressure to try and identify what aspects of the [our program] could be enhanced.” At a time where it is common to hear of departments having to close their doors because of low enrollment, this strikes me as a significant pressure on instructors.

Most participants in this study commented on the ways leadership affected their decisions to participate in educational development opportunities. Leadership comes in many formats, but it was commonly noted that attitudes and beliefs from chairs and senior administrators had an impact on participants’ motivation to participate in educational development. One individual mentioned that social

pressure and the power differential between her and her department chair triggered her to participate in educational development. Meanwhile, another participant noted that “if the chairs buy in more into teaching then I think [participation in educational development] will filter down to the faculty members.”

The data presented here demonstrate how the institution and leaders within the institution, such as senior administrators, deans, and chairs, can have a significant impact on motivation to participate in educational development.

Achieve Tenure or Promotion

Although tenure and promotion were not noted as primary reasons for participating in educational development, six of the eight participants mentioned rewards or tenure as elements that contributed to their motivation to participate in educational development. One participant noted, “at [this institution] you really can be denied tenure on the basis of bad teaching. At other institutions, if you’re a world class researcher and a really bad teacher, you might get through. [Here] you’re not going to get through.”

Another extrinsic motivating factor to participate in educational development was for the purpose of maximizing annual merit increases in salary. The participant stated, “Your teaching evaluations obviously matter for [career progress and merit]. ... I think that motivates me to participate in [educational development].”

These two examples from the data clearly demonstrate reward as external regulation that motivates participation in educational development.

Required for accreditation. Accreditation or certification was identified as an externally regulated motivating force for participation in educational development. Some clinical instructors need to engage in a particular number of educational development hours annually in order to maintain their registration with a professional group (e.g., College of Family Physicians of Canada, College of Nurses of Ontario). Specifically, a participant indicated, “it is a competency, so I have to demonstrate to my college ... what am I doing every year to show how I’m enhancing my teaching.” Another participant stated that a certificate of participation in educational development would be a motivating factor for reasons such as “augmenting one’s teaching dossier or preparing to apply for academic jobs.”

External regulators can be convincing extrinsic motivators, whether they serve to reward an individual for their participation in educational development, or they serve to avoid undesirable consequences.

Summary of Motivators to Participation in Educational Development

Table 5 summarizes the various motivation categorizations, and the codes that were identified within each of these categories. The number of quotations associated with each category is listed. The categories have been arranged in accordance with the theoretical framework applied to this study. Namely, intrinsic motivation types as described by Pink (2009), being autonomy, mastery and purpose, and extrinsic motivation types—active and agentic, and external regulation—as described by Ryan and Deci (2000).

Table 5
Categories of Motivator Quotations

Category	Frequency
Intrinsic motivation – autonomy	
Self-identified intrinsic motivation	16
Interest in educational development	14
Passion or satisfaction for educational development	12
Intrinsic motivation – mastery	
Desire to improve teaching	11
Remain current with innovative teaching practices	4
Intrinsic motivation – purpose	
Bears a personal sense of need for educational development	4
Desire to improve student learning experience	2
Extrinsic motivation – active and agentic	
Gather student feedback on teaching	25
Believe that teaching is valued	9
Engage in department specific educational development	3
Extrinsic motivation – external regulation	
Respond to institutional leadership	27
Achieve tenure or promotion	10
Required for accreditation	6

Motivators That Can Be Both Intrinsic and Extrinsic

Two categories that were not easily situated in the above framework, but were cited frequently as motivators to participation in educational development are (a) colleagues as motivators to enhancing teaching, and (b) leadership in teaching. These were not mapped onto the framework that appears in Table 5, because I believe these categories could exist as either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation.

Colleagues as motivators to enhance teaching. The second most frequently noted source of motivation to enhance teaching came from colleagues. Interactions with colleagues tended to group around three themes, including (a) being impressed with colleagues' teaching approaches or practices, (b) wanting to consult with colleagues about their perceptions or experiences, and (c) struggling with a teaching issue.

Participants interviewed in this study were keenly aware of colleagues in their departments and across the institution whom they admired for their teaching approaches and from whom they could learn. In some circumstances, individuals would approach their colleagues to inquire further about replicating particular teaching styles, while in other cases, it was more of a self-reflective observation and subsequent implementation into their teaching practice. One participant remarked, "I've been incredibly impressed with [my current colleagues and] their attention to teaching and learning issues in a ways that I never really saw in [my former Faculty]. Yes, it's been really quite amazing." Another participant said, "I've learned much about pedagogy from my colleagues." These quotations speak to the incredible resource that instructors have among each other. These data demonstrate that

educational development was achieved through observations of colleagues' practices (i.e., watching them teach).

A second common reason for interacting with colleagues—including teaching assistants—with respect to educational development was for consultative purposes. Colleague consultation was used when considering individual elements within a course (e.g., assessments), the course as a whole, and the entire program.

I do talk to my colleagues a lot about goals, learning goals, and how to connect the courses as part of the program. [I] keep in contact with colleagues to make sure that what [I teach] connects logically to a follow-on course and also, to related courses that would be providing foundational material that would enable later courses, the combined product of those courses prepares students for the next stage.

The above instructor has demonstrated his motivation to engage with other colleagues in conversations around enhancing teaching and learning, which has positive impact on students in the course and the program.

The participant below recognizes the power of decision making as a group, and has initiated meetings to discuss teaching and learning in her program.

The other thing I do is I have a council. I've set up a group that I meet with regularly that's interprofessional. ... We meet four times a year to talk about how can we take [teaching and learning] up a level [in our program]. ... I had to set up some kind of consultation team because you can't [make these types of decisions] on your own in your own office by yourself, I don't think.

A third reported reason for consulting with colleagues was when participants were faced with an issue or problem that they did not know how to resolve. One instructor provided some examples of conversations he had had with colleagues on topics related to teaching and learning. He stated, “What I find a challenge is the level [of disciplinary content] and that’s where I turn to colleagues. So what is the appropriate level of material? Where do you run the risk of leaving students behind?”

What these quotations demonstrate is that colleagues, not only within one’s department, but also more broadly across campus, were a primary source for enhancing and further developing teaching practices. For this reason, it is most useful to categorize this as both intrinsic and extrinsic. It is extrinsic, because sometimes there is a master teacher who is a colleague that an instructor observes. This seems like an extrinsic motivator. Taking the step to engage in a conversation regarding teaching and learning with that particular master teacher strikes me as an intrinsic motivation.

Leadership in teaching. Not only did current leaders have an impact on motivations to participate in educational development, but so did the desire to be a leader in education. A reported motivator for participating in educational development for some instructors is because they have held, currently hold, or strive to hold leadership roles at the institution. One participant stated, “I’ve always held leaderships in the roles in the department. I was [a departmental] chair for 7 years. I’ve always been at tables where we’re talking about how to engage faculty and to do things like that.” A different participant who was earlier in her career questioned, “what are the opportunities we’re creating for people and how do we enhance

learning and teaching?” To me, the last quotation shows leadership potential with respect to educational development.

Another reported reason for participating in educational development was based on being in the role of teaching professor. Two instructors in this study were teaching-stream faculty. These instructors felt that because of their roles they ought to be leaders in teaching and this provided them with motivation to participate in educational development. One of the teaching-stream instructors remarked, “At some point, I think there’s a responsibility on teaching professors to sort of be part of the vanguard in the revolution that is on its way.” In a separate interview, a research professor commented on the role of teaching-stream faculty, and said, “There are people who are full-time, dedicated, and are on a teaching track. In my mind, they should be leaders, they should be attending sophisticated [educational development] stuff and be the leader for other people within their Faculty.”

Based on comments from both teaching stream and research faculty, there exists a common understanding that teaching-stream faculty should play a leadership role in educational development. Perhaps the teaching-stream faculty themselves act as a motivating force to encourage others to participate in educational development.

Leadership had an impact on participation in educational development. The motivation to participate sometimes came from holding a particular role. In this case specifically, it was holding a position as a teaching-stream professor. Further, as evidenced by the data, motivation to participate in educational development can come from the desire to be a leader.

Until now, I have presented data that relate to motivations to be involved in

educational development. It is clear that participants in this study were motivated in many ways and yet did not participate as much as one might therefore expect because they also encountered countering forces in the form of barriers that obstructed their participation. In the next section, I turn to barriers identified in the data that hinder participation in educational development.

Barriers Associated With Participation in Educational Development

The same analysis process was employed to explore barriers related to participation in educational development. In total, the data revealed 85 quotations that could be themed as barriers to engagement in educational development. The categories were then clustered into four different groups: (a) amotivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985), which is an element of the theoretical framework applied to this research; (b) personal barriers; (c) department or Faculty imposed barriers; and (d) institutional barriers. Each of these categories will be elaborated upon below.

Amotivation

Amotivation, as described by Deci and Ryan (1985), is a state of lacking an intention to act or engage. Amotivation can result from not feeling competent in a particular activity, not valuing it, or not believing the activity will yield a desired outcome (Deci & Ryan, 1985). There were four groupings of data that could be categorized as amotivation: (a) the perception that teaching is not valued, (b) the achievement of full professorship or tenure, (c) the sense the training offered was not specific enough, and (d) simply not being interested in the topic of educational development.

Perception that teaching is not valued. A commonly referenced barrier to participation in educational development was the perception that teaching was not

valued by the institution. This is in direct contrast to the aforementioned motivator to participation in educational development, citing a sense of institutional value for teaching.

Four of the eight participants remarked that high-quality teaching was not appropriately rewarded through the tenure and promotion process, while others spoke of this particular issue more in generalities. One participant claimed, “for a rational person, actually, it doesn’t make sense to invest in something that at the end of the day is not going to pay off,” indicating that there won’t be any personal reward for enhancing teaching.

Another participant noted that for “all the [teaching innovations] that I’ve done over the years, my colleagues sometimes think I’m nuts because this is not what is most valued.” What these quotations exhibit is that particular perceptions exist with respect to the value placed on teaching. These quotations demonstrate that some individuals who engage in educational development believe that teaching is not valued at the institution, yet some continue to participate despite their belief that teaching is not valued. The quotation presented here conveys a lack of purpose for participation in educational development, since it is not something that is perceived as valued.

Interestingly, three of the four participants who identified teaching *not* being valued as a barrier to participation in educational development also made comments about McMaster University valuing high quality teaching as a motivator for participation in educational development, suggesting internally contradictory views within participants. This example demonstrates the complexity and struggle

instructors face when choosing to participate in educational development.

Achievement of full professorship or tenure. In the years leading up to tenure, a faculty member's job is not secure. They must first prove their research and teaching abilities. Several participants shared their perspective, however, that once tenure is attained, faculty members achieve secure employment, and therefore, need not be concerned about their teaching, since they cannot lose their job for being "a lousy teacher," as one participant stated. Another participant asked, "If a tenured professor has been here for 20 years and they get bad teaching evaluations, what can be done about it? I don't know!" Participants felt that once tenure is achieved, there is the potential for apathy toward teaching, which could impose a barrier to participation in educational development opportunities.

Training is not specific enough. Another reported barrier to participation in educational development was when opportunities were offered but those opportunities did not meet the needs of the instructors. One participant noted that early in his teaching career he was "looking for [educational development], but as I mentioned, the stuff I went to at that time was too broad. I felt it wasn't a useful baseline for me." In fact, this created a long-term barrier to educational development offered through the teaching and learning centre for this particular individual; he has not returned to any offerings since those early days. He did, however, find other ways to enhance his teaching outside the teaching and learning centre.

Not interested in educational development topics. A barrier that arose for some of the participants was simply not being interested in the particular educational development topic that was being discussed. One participant spoke about trying to

engage in educational development early on in his career, then being turned off because he was not interested in the specific subject matter that was presented. He commented, “I don’t really care about academic dishonesty as an issue. I see this as very straightforward; there’s rules, there’s procedures [sic]. It’s not something I feel I needed to work through.”

Another topic or format that two participants raised as disengaging was examining scholarly literature. One individual stated, “What I am not interested in is very academic papers on education. That’s no use to me at all.”

These two examples demonstrate that if the specific topic that is covered in an educational development activity is uninteresting to an individual it can have a lasting influence on motivation to participate in future educational development.

The four categories of barriers presented here (i.e., teaching not valued, achievement of tenure, training not specific, and no interest in topic) speak to the idea of amotivation posited by Deci and Ryan (1985). The concept of amotivation would suggest that if there is no obvious value, then it does not make sense to spend time on educational development.

Personal Barriers to Participation in Educational Development

The analysis of this data identified two barriers that were classified as personal barriers to participation in educational development. The most commonly reported barrier to engaging in educational development was lack of time. A second barrier that was raised by two individuals in the study was that educational development could pose a psychosocial risk.

Time as barrier. The most commonly reported personal barrier to

participating in educational development was the idea that there simply was not enough time. Something that I noted to be particularly interesting when discussing the issue of time with the participants was that there was a fairly common physical reaction. For example, participants might hunch their shoulders and begin to appear anxious. Some participants conveyed a sense of guilt; they felt bad for not participating in more educational development than they did. Although this sense of guilt may not be evident in the quotations below, it was a common reaction I noticed in the interviews.

One participant noted, “I find myself being keen to want to learn and just not having the time, and I always assume that that’s the case with everybody else.” Many of the participants shared this type of sentiment. Another individual identified his barrier: “Time constraints. That’d be the only constraint I have ... so, it’s just a matter of time juggling.”

One participant in particular had considered the issue of time in a different manner. She remarked that:

Time is a function of other things, right? Time is just the symptom. That’s not really the problem, that’s the symptom. It’s all the competing priorities. At a university it’s the competing priorities of the research that you need to do, applying for funding, the papers that you need to write, the teams that you need to build and that you need to work with, the partnerships that you have. It’s always this dance between what’s the priority and if the education hat is the smallest amongst all those priorities then the symptom becomes time but

it's really a function of time. [Time] is not available because you set your priorities somewhere else, right?

These results are consistent with what the literature reports about barriers or hindrances to participation in educational development. Time is the culprit. The last quotation reveals something interesting, though. Perhaps the issue is not time, but rather priorities.

Psychosocial risk. A barrier that was mentioned by two participants in the study was that workshops they had either been to in the past or that they had seen advertised could put them in a position where they may have felt uncomfortable, either with the format or with what they might be asked to share about their teaching experiences. One participant noted that, "I find the various things that [the teaching and learning centre] does rather new age-y. ... I don't know how else to explain it other than that." This participant later went on to refer to past experiences in workshops as "too touchy-feely." A different participant shared, "I don't know that I need to sit around in the group and discuss how my classes went this week or to talk about my feelings in the classroom." As educational developers, the message we need to be aware of is to consider how a sensitive or affective approach to educational development may create barriers to participation for some people.

Departmental or Faculty Barriers

Barriers to participation in educational development opportunities were identified at the departmental and Faculty level of the institution. The first barrier described here is the perception that instructors believe that departments and Faculties value research excellence over teaching excellence. The second barrier discussed in

this section is financial.

Research before teaching. The most commonly reported barrier to participating in educational development was that participants felt that disciplinary research was more valued by their department or Faculty than educational development. Therefore, it was generally thought that more time and energy should be placed on one's research program rather than enhancing one's teaching.

This particular category of barriers was further subdivided into three subcategories. The first subcategory identifies the perception that research trumps teaching. The second subcategory is that the notion of "research before teaching" is engrained in the culture of graduate education. The third subcategory is that research before teaching is something that is perpetuated from the "system," or in other words, occurs at the systemic level of the institution. This final subcategory will be discussed in the next section that addresses barriers to participation in educational development at the institutional level.

The first subcategory is where instructors identify for themselves that "teaching is the poor cousin to research," as indicated by one participant. A second participant stated, "I have to [teach, but] once it's over with I can get on with my research." A third participant had the following perspective:

Let's be blunt here, at research schools, teaching excellence is not necessary to succeed at the institution. You can do a reasonable job. What does that mean? You do the bare minimums [*sic*], you make sure that your students are satisfied, that they learn something, but you don't go above and beyond. You are going to succeed. You will get your tenure. So teaching excellence, on the

other hand, someone can go out of their way, attend all the [teaching and learning centre] workshops, go to all these conferences and seminars and have the students worship them and kiss the ground they walk on, but they come up for tenure with no publications, or only one or two publications, where the expectation is seven or eight, you're out.

The sentiments and perceptions offered in the above quotations were expressed by nearly all of the participants in this study. Interestingly, this is in contradiction to data presented earlier where some participants identified that a motivator to participate in educational development was when they sensed that teaching was valued. This relationship will be discussed further in chapter 5.

The second subcategory of barriers connected to the idea of research before teaching illustrates that the hierarchy of research superseding teaching is prevalent within the graduate school culture, and this idea can be entrenched early in one's career. One early career instructor noted, "Ph.D. programs... tell their students that all you have to do is research, publish, publish, publish. Publish and you are saved. Publish, and you will get tenure. Teaching is secondary." This same participant went on to say, "I was given advice very early [in graduate school] that teaching was probably the wrong route to go, to *not* get experience in teaching, that it was more important to publish and finish the dissertation as quickly as possible." Other participants in this study shared similar experiences with respect to messaging that was conveyed in their graduate school experiences.

As mentioned above, the barriers associated with research before teaching at the institutional level will be discussed in the next section that focuses on institutional

or systemic barriers to participation in educational development.

Financial barrier. An additional departmental or Faculty level barrier is one that relates to finances. Some comments were made that it is expensive to participate in some forms of educational development (e.g., educational conferences and associated travel expenses). Simply put, one instructor stated, “resources for [participation in educational development] are limited or non-existent.” Another participant mentioned that he thought it might be a barrier that financial incentives are not offered in return for instructors’ participation in educational development.

These data indicate that some people may be more motivated to participate in educational development if extrinsic incentives were offered, such as funding for conferences.

The sentiments expressed within these quotations indicate that there are very strong messages conveyed by both departments and Faculties indicating that research is a priority over teaching. This is likely to pose a barrier to participation in educational development since instructors are typically in subordinate positions relative to their department chair or Faculty dean, and therefore are pressured to respond to cultural norms.

Institutional Barriers

A number of barriers to educational development were perceived and identified from the level of the institution. These include (a) perceptions that research is more valued than teaching (this same issue was discussed previously at the departmental and Faculty level), (b) geographical barriers to participation, (c) technological barriers to participation, and (d) poor promotion of teaching and learning events.

Research before teaching. Although this barrier was listed previously in the departmental or Faculty barriers to participation in educational development, there were also barriers associated with the perception that research was valued over teaching at the institutional level. One participant claimed, “The system does not see [teaching] as a priority. It is more important that I produce X, Y, and Z than [teach well]. Instead, therefore [teaching is] down the totem pole.” Another participant simply stated, “[the] university values research dollars. That’s not a secret.” There were a number of additional similar comments as those mentioned here from six of the eight participants, indicating that this is a perception that might be held widely across this institution.

Geographical barriers. Another reported institutional barrier included difficulty accessing formal educational development opportunities. Some instructors are located away from the main campus and therefore need to travel to access these services. Other on-campus instructors reported that educational development opportunities often competed with their schedules. Even if an educational development event was scheduled to take place immediately before or after another meeting, some participants noted it was difficult or impossible to get across campus to attend said event. Last, instructors are generally offered a great deal of autonomy and flexibility with their physical presence on campus. Of course it is necessary for instructors to be present for teaching and meetings, but often much of their other work can be done from home or remotely. Similarly, in the era of ever-expanding technology, more and more high-quality, high-enrolment courses are being offered online. In turn, this means that much of the course instruction can occur remotely. As more teaching moves to online environments, it may reduce the necessity for instructors to be physically present on

campus. Some participants in this study mentioned that they would not make a special trip to campus to participate in an educational development opportunity. They would, however, participate if they happened to be on campus and available.

Technology as barrier. Technology was identified by several participants in this study as a barrier to participation in educational development. One struggle that a participant noted, “it seems to me that it’s more about changes in technology than it is about pedagogical orientation.” Her frustration stemmed from the fact that some of the educational development sessions that she had attended had been more focused on how a particular technology functions, rather than how an instructor might employ a particular technology to enhance student learning.

Another barrier to participation with respect to technology was the perception that some of the educational technologies supported or promoted by the teaching and learning centre were seemed to be fun gadgets rather than educational tools. One participant stated, “I’m not a big fan of gimmicks.” He offered the examples of iClickers and SmartBoards as gimmicks, which he thought were fun toys for students, but would not improve learning in his courses.

Poor promotion of teaching and learning events. The final barrier to participation in educational development presented here is the perception that teaching and learning events were poorly promoted. One participant mentioned that he did not know what types of educational development opportunities were offered. He asked, “What’s out there? Does Mac give courses on teaching already?”

Another participant conveyed that messages about educational development opportunities were being shared, but reacting to these messages may be low on a

person's priority list. He said:

[Educational development opportunities] have to be promoted better than that. The thing about it, these general emails usually get deleted. ... Why do we say they get deleted or ignored? It's not because people are not interested. The thing is that when you receive an email coming from the [teaching and learning centre], it will be probably in a list of another 15, 20 emails that require your immediate attention, and that's what people do, immediate attention. They say, "Yes, I'll get to that ... I'll read it later in the day," and what have you, but guess what's going to happen?

The implied answer to this participant's quotation is that the email from the teaching and learning centre gets forgotten.

The quotations presented here offer an interesting story. The first individual is not aware of opportunities to engage in educational development, but would like to, while the second individual is aware, but the promotion of the opportunities (e.g., email) is not enough incentive to warrant immediate attention.

Summary of Barriers to Participation in Educational Development

In a similar way that the motivator categories and codes were displayed in tabular format, the categories and codes associated with barriers to participation in educational development are presented in Table 6. The number of quotations associated with each category is listed. The barrier categories identified did not align as closely to the theoretical framework as the motivator categories. The first category presented, however, is the category of amotivation, as described by Deci and Ryan (1985). The framing of the remaining barriers will be discussed further in chapter 5.

Table 6

Categories of Barrier Quotations

Category	Frequency
Amotivation	
Teaching is not valued	16
Tenured, full professors	5
Training is not specific enough	4
Not interested in topic	2
Personal Barriers	
Time	15
Psychosocial risk	3
Departmental or Faculty Barriers	
Research before teaching	9
Financial barrier	6
Institutional Barriers	
Research before teaching	8
Geographical barrier	7
Technology as barrier	6
Poor promotion of events	4

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have presented data representing both motivators and barriers associated with participation in educational development, predominately arranged in the theoretical framework that was presented in chapter 2. Next, in chapter 5, I will present my interpretations of what these data mean for enhanced practice, and how some of these data may offer new insights into theory. I will also explore future related research opportunities.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This work has explored postsecondary instructors' perceptions of various factors that either motivate or hinder them from participating in educational development. It is important for educational developers working in university teaching and learning centres to be aware of who we engage through our work and why they seek to engage with us. Similarly, it is important to know why instructors choose *not* to engage with our unit. Through semistructured interviews and qualitative data analysis, this study has attempted to uncover some of the underlying reasons why instructors either choose to—or choose not to—participate in educational development.

In chapter 3, I outlined the methods used in this study. A purposeful sampling process was used to select one or two participants from each of McMaster's six Faculties, for a total of eight participants for 45- to 60-minute interviews. The interviews were recorded and transcribed.

The codes developed from the transcripts fell into two categories: motivators to participation in educational development and barriers to participation in educational development. A brief overview of the motivators to participate in educational development will be presented first, followed by a similar overview of the barrier data.

Overview of Results

The top motivator to engage in educational development was based on feedback that instructors heard from their students, either informally through discussion or formally through course evaluations. In other words, instructors listened to their students' comments regarding how a course could be enhanced, and then instructors sought educational development (either on their own or from the teaching and learning centre) to respond to student feedback and ultimately enhance their courses. Second, instructors identified personal reasons to be involved in educational

development, such as general intrinsic motivation, an authentic interest in educational development, or a passion for teaching. Third, participants identified motivators within their own academic department, such as colleagues. Often, participants reported that they were motivated to participate in educational development because they had colleagues who they admired for their teaching, or who were simply willing to talk about teaching and learning issues with them. Finally, participants reported institutional motivating factors, such as obligation to enhance their teaching based on messaging from university senior administration or university policies (such as those related to tenure and promotion).

Some of the barriers to participation in educational development that were reported included personal constraints, such as not having enough time to engage in development opportunities. A second category of barriers that emerged was barriers imposed at the departmental or Faculty level. The predominant remark made by participants was that they felt that their department valued research over teaching, and therefore participation in educational development would not be a valuable use of time. This linked closely to a third category of barriers that was perceived at the institutional level. Some participants reported that they felt that teaching was not valued by the institution, which is interesting because, in stark contrast, many of these same participants felt there was institutional pressure to enhance their teaching. The discussion below will examine the data in the context of the theoretical framework that was laid out for this study. In addition, I will examine how these data align with other theories used in the higher education context.

Discussion

Through the analysis of the data, it became apparent that the source of motivators and barriers stemmed from various levels, from the personal to the

institutional, paralleling a commonly cited framework in organizational and educational development contexts that refer to various levels at which impact can be assessed, namely micro, meso, macro, and mega (Dysthe & Steinar Engelsen, 2011; Hannah & Lester, 2009; Poole, 2009; Simmons, 2011b; Weston, Winer, Berthiaume, & Timmermans, 2010). In the context of an academic environment, the micro level typically refers to how an individual is affected, while the meso level considers impact at the departmental or Faculty level. The macro level examines the institutional level of impact, and the mega level explores the level beyond the institution, such as the provincial, national, or international context.

The analysis of the data in the present study has revealed that motivators and barriers associated with decisions to participate in educational development can be aligned to these four different levels. At each of these levels, it is interesting to consider the source of the motivator or barrier. As I discuss the alignment to the established levels, as previously described by Poole (2009), Simmons (2011b), and Weston et al. (2010), I will also consider the etiology (i.e., the source or cause) of the motivators and barriers.

Micro Level

At the micro level, instructors experience motivators and barriers to participation in educational development at a personal or individual level. Biggs and Tang (2011) acknowledge in their book *Teaching for Quality Learning at University* that university teaching can be very personal in its nature. Instructors are often responsible for developing and offering a course and they often assume a sense of ownership over their course and the associated materials they have developed (Welsh, 2000). Furthermore, university courses are most often taught by a single instructor per course and are contained within the walls of the classroom (physical or virtual);

therefore teaching can be quite a private affair. Because of this private nature of teaching, coupled with the fact that the primary players in the teaching and learning process are the instructors and students, it is logical that several of the identified motivators to participation in educational development come from the micro (i.e., the individual) level.

With respect to the micro level of impact, instructors' intrinsic motivation, interest, and passion for enhancing education can direct them toward educational development opportunities with the intended goal of improved student learning.

At the same time, there are some barriers to participation in educational development at the micro level. These include an instructor not having adequate time to devote to educational development opportunities. There is a great demand on instructors' time, including their own research, the graduate students they are supervising, and the other service or committee work in which they are involved. Another reported barrier at the micro level is the sense that educational development is overly sensitive, or too "touchy feely" as one participant phrased it. This can create a psychosocial barrier to participation in educational development.

The source of the motivators and barriers at the micro level are the instructors themselves. The data suggest that instructors are highly self-motivated to be involved in educational development. This is evident through what they do—or what they *want* to be able to do—in their own classes, which according to these data, is rooted in interest, passion, or desire to improve teaching. The source of the barriers at the micro level is also dependent on the individual instructor. For example, time is an element that is managed by instructors, and to a certain extent, they can choose where they spend their time (e.g., teaching vs. research vs. service). If, for instance, instructors dedicate most of their time to research, which is commonly rewarded in the academic

context (see, for example, McMaster University Tenure and Promotion Policy, 2012), then there is less time left for service, teaching, and educational development. This, therefore, creates a perceived time barrier to participation in educational development.

Meso Level

At the meso (i.e., departmental or Faculty) level, motivation to participate in educational development can come from meso level leaders (e.g., directors, chairs, deans), or the desire to achieve one of these administrative positions. Likewise, motivation to participate in educational development can come from one's colleagues, either within one's own department or across the institution, by observing colleagues' approaches to teaching and learning. Discipline-specific educational development within the department (perhaps in conjunction with the teaching and learning centre) can also serve as a motivator to engage in educational development. For example, an educational developer could attend a department meeting to discuss teaching strategies specific to a particular discipline. Sometimes this was something that participants had experienced in the past, but more often it was something that participants wished was more commonly available.

As an inspiring force unto themselves, students serve to motivate instructors to participate in educational development. The primary factor that motivates instructors, according to this research, is formal or informal feedback that instructors receive from their students that inspires instructors to seek support to enhance their teaching. Previous literature exploring influencing factors at the micro, meso, macro, and mega levels of the institution have not typically included students as influential factors. In this research, however, in multiple cases the data suggested that student feedback to the instructor was a very strong motivating factor to seek out educational development opportunities to improve the student learning experience. Emerging

research suggests that the role of students will appear more commonly in the micro, meso, macro, and mega frameworks (Simmons, in press).

Barriers identified at the meso level included the perception that research was valued more than teaching by the department and Faculty, and therefore this created an obstacle to engaging in educational development. The second meso level barrier was a financial barrier, insofar as not having adequate financial resources to attend off-campus educational development opportunities.

In considering more closely the source of motivation or barrier at the meso level, it seems to be connected to people with whom instructors have a close connection (e.g., their students, colleagues, departmental chairs, Faculty deans). This is what Roxå and Mårtenson (2009) define as one's *significant network*. These are people with whom one connects on a regular basis, engages in significant conversations, and places value or trust in their opinions. It appears, therefore, that members of one's significant network have a significant impact on one's decision to participate in educational development.

Macro Level

There were two motivators that were identified at the macro (i.e., institutional) level. The most prominent of these was tenure and promotion. Part of one's eligibility for tenure and promotion at McMaster is based on the creation of a teaching portfolio. Among other elements, the portfolio must include a section on how instructors are enhancing their teaching through educational development activities. This serves as a clear extrinsic motivator to engage in educational development.

The second macro level motivator had to do with leadership. Motivation could be responding to leaders within the institution who promote high quality teaching and learning, such as the president, provost, or Associate Vice-President,

Teaching and Learning. Another way that leadership was recognized as a motivator for educational development was the desire some participants expressed to be leaders in teaching. This desire may be due to the nature of their particular role, such as being teaching professors, or it may have been due to the fact that they wanted to become administrative leaders (e.g., chairs, directors, deans, etc.), and they believed that participating in educational development would help them achieve their leadership goals.

Most of the factors identified at the macro level were, in fact, barriers to participation in educational development rather than motivators. Seven out of the eight participants in this study indicated they believed that leaders within the institution viewed research success (e.g., publications, research grants, etc.) as more important than teaching success (e.g., NSSE scores, teaching awards, etc.). Further, there was a very strong sentiment amongst six of the participants that the institution generally did not value high quality teaching. Another significant barrier to participation in educational development at the macro level was for those who had already achieved tenure. For these participants, there was *not* a strong incentive to engage in educational development opportunities, since it would not affect the permanency of their role; however, they recognized that focusing on research would have a positive impact on their success and their annual salary increments (known as career progress and merit).

I qualify these three aforementioned barriers as significant because they are embedded within the culture of research-intensive institutions, and I believe that because of this enculturation, they are difficult barriers to overcome. These are also the barriers that were most commonly cited in the interviews with the participants in this particular study.

There were some additional macro level barriers. Some of these were directly associated with the teaching and learning centre, such as poor promotion of events or instructors not being available to attend educational development opportunities (i.e., scheduling conflicts, geographical limitations). Another reported barrier that was associated with the teaching and learning centre was that the educational development that was being offered through the centre was not specific enough to instructor's needs. As an educational developer, these types of barriers are ones that we in teaching and learning centres have the ability in which to react. For instance, we can offer educational development at more convenient times, or even online.

Mega Level

In the present study, there were no motivators or barriers to participation in educational development identified at the mega level. This does not come as a surprise, since the mega level refers to factors that exist beyond this institution. The focus of this project was predominantly within the boundaries of the university; however, the lack of identified mega level motivators or barriers to participation in educational development opens the door to questions that could be explored in future research to examine this issue more closely outside one's own institution. This could be within one's discipline beyond the institution (e.g., discipline-specific education conferences) or more general educational development at a provincial, national, or international level (e.g., interdisciplinary education conferences, or general educational development opportunities).

Up to this point, I have demonstrated the alignment between motivators and barriers and the micro, meso, macro, and mega framework as well as the alignment between institutional roles and factors affecting motivators and barriers to participation in educational development. Next, I will discuss how these motivators

and barriers align with pre-existing theories of motivation.

Connection to Motivation Theory

In their review on motivation, Ryan and Deci (2000) write about the two predominant categories of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. Classic descriptions of these terms define intrinsic motivation as doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable and extrinsic motivation as doing something because it leads to a distinguishable outcome.

Table 7 presents the micro, meso, macro framework in the leftmost column. The right hand columns present the motivation frameworks previously discussed in this work (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Bridging these two frameworks are the motivators that were identified in this study, which appear in the central column.

In chapter 4, I categorized intrinsic motivators according to Pink's (2009) model. Each intrinsic motivator was assigned to autonomy, mastery, or purpose, whichever category I felt it most suitably belonged. In reality, I believe that some intrinsic motivators can cross boundaries between these different categories, and therefore, I have indicated this in Table 7.

With the progression through the micro, meso, macro framework there is a natural shift from intrinsic to extrinsic motivation. In the middle zone (i.e., at the meso level), there is an intersection that combines both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (see Table 7). This demonstrates that intrinsic motivators seem to be associated at the individual or personal (i.e., micro) level, whereas extrinsic motivators are more typically associated with institutional (i.e., macro) level.

There were two motivators that were categorized as "both," meaning they could be either intrinsic, extrinsic, or both. Specifically, these were (a) connections with colleagues, and (b) the desire to be a leader in teaching and learning. What is interesting to note about these two motivators is that they are both based on close connections to

other people. Intrinsic motivators were generally more individual and personal motivators, and did not necessarily include connections with others. This aligns with previously published theories that indicate that intrinsic motivators are more autonomous than extrinsic motivators (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivators took more of a top-down approach from the macro level; for example, tenure and promotion that comes from university policy. What these data suggest is that this close connection with others can serve as a predictor of where intrinsic motivators intersect with extrinsic motivators; further research will be needed to substantiate this connection.

Connection to Intrinsic Motivation

Pink (2009) describes three different categories of intrinsic motivation: autonomy, mastery, and purpose. As described in chapter 2, autonomy is the desire to be self-directive. Mastery is the longing to improve at things that matter or are relevant. Purpose is the yearning to do something in service for the betterment of the world. In an analogous manner in which I categorized intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, I similarly categorized each motivator to Pink's model of intrinsic motivation, either autonomy, mastery, purpose, or some combination thereof. There was not a tight alignment between the micro, meso, macro framework and Pink's model. It was revealed, however, that autonomy was most closely related to the micro level, whereas purpose was more closely connected to motivators at the meso level where there were interactions between the instructor and students or the instructor and colleagues.

Table 7 captures the alignment and interactions among the frameworks and motivation theories described above. It should be noted that some areas of Table 7 could not be completed because it was not possible to associate particular motivators within the theoretical framework. Specifically, Pink (2009) subdivides intrinsic motivation into three categories (autonomy, mastery, and purpose), therefore by definition, the extrinsic motivators could not be classified using this model.

Table 7

Alignment and Interactions Among the Frameworks and Motivation Theories

Framework of role influences	Motivators identified through this study	Motivation frameworks	
		Ryan & Deci (2000)	Pink (2009)
Micro	Self-identified intrinsic motivation	Intrinsic	Autonomy
	Interest in educational development	Intrinsic	Autonomy
	Passion or satisfaction for educational development	Intrinsic	Autonomy
	Remain current with innovative teaching practices	Intrinsic	Autonomy, Mastery, Purpose
	Bears a personal sense of need for educational development	Intrinsic	Autonomy, Mastery, Purpose
	Desire to improve teaching	Intrinsic	Mastery, Purpose
Meso	Desire to improve student learning experience	Intrinsic	Mastery, Purpose
	Interact with colleagues	Both	Autonomy, Purpose
	Desire to be a leader in teaching and learning	Both	Autonomy, Mastery, Purpose
	Gather student feedback on teaching	Extrinsic	
	Believe that teaching is valued	Extrinsic	
	Engage in department specific educational development	Extrinsic	
Macro	Respond to institutional leadership	Extrinsic	
	Achieve tenure or promotion	Extrinsic	
	Required for accreditation	Extrinsic	

Connection to Amotivation

Deci and Ryan (1985) describe amotivation as the “state of lacking an intention to act” (p. 31). Other literature in this particular area has exemplified amotivation as not valuing an activity (Ryan, 1995), not feeling competent to engage in an activity (Deci, 1975), or not believing the activity will yield a desired outcome (Seligman, 1975).

The barriers to participation in educational development identified in this study were categorized in the micro, meso, macro framework, in a similar manner that the motivators were categorized (see Table 8). Each of these barriers has elements of amotivation as described above. For example, participants who perceived that teaching is not highly valued by the institution may not value engaging in educational development (i.e., not value an activity). Another example is participants who identified that educational development training is not specific enough. These participants may be amotivated because they do not believe that engaging in educational development would yield a desired outcome.

A deeper understanding of amotivation with respect to participation in educational development provides some indication and reasoning as to why relatively low participation rates in educational development are observed in teaching and learning centres. Unfortunately, the teaching and learning centre at McMaster University does not document rates of individuals’ participation, so I cannot report this data, and it would further be considered contrary to educational development practice to do so.

Table 8

Institutional Level Framework and Barriers Identified in this Study

Framework of role influences	Barriers identified through this study
Micro	No time to participate Educational development is overly sensitive or emotional Not interested in topic
Meso	Research valued more than teaching Financial
Macro	Teaching is not valued Tenured, full professor Training is not specific enough Research before teaching ED opportunities are not convenient Poor promotion of events

In this section, I have discussed how the data from this research connect to established theories and frameworks. Specifically, without the participant data collected through this research, it would not have occurred to me to draw comparisons between the micro, meso, macro, mega framework and motivation theories. In the next sections, I examine implications for these theories and frameworks, as well as present implications for practice and opportunities for future research.

Implications

Results of this study reveal implications related to theory, practice, and future research. With respect to existing theory, I discuss how this research intersects with existing literature on theories of motivation. The findings presented in this research may challenge or change how existing practice is conducted. Some implications related to practice in the context of a teaching and learning centre are presented below. Finally, as with all research, new questions emerge as new discoveries are made. I will offer suggestions for potential follow-up research and what it might involve.

Implications for Theory

This study supports the framework that has been previously published by Poole (2009), Simmons (2011b), and Weston et al. (2010) in examining the various institutional levels which impact can be assessed and which naturally exist in the academic context, namely the micro (i.e., individual), meso (i.e., department or Faculty), macro (i.e., institution), and mega (beyond the institution).

A new element that rises from this research connects the existing micro, meso, macro, mega framework to motivation theory (i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Deci & Ryan, 2000; and amotivation, Ryan & Deci, 1985). Intrinsic motivations were further categorized in accordance to the model described by Pink (2009), including

autonomy, mastery, and purpose. A visual representation of the framework presented in this research overlaid with the motivation theory is presented in Figure 1. In the figure, the various levels (i.e., micro, meso, macro) are represented in the dark grey horizontal bar in the centre. At the bottom of the figure, a continuum of intrinsic to extrinsic motivation is shown, with intrinsic motivation on the left and extrinsic motivation on the right, and a zone in the middle where motivation could be either intrinsic or extrinsic (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This figure visually demonstrates that intrinsic motivators typically come from instructors themselves (micro level) or their colleagues (meso level, e.g., interest in educational development, desire to improve teaching ability). At the opposite end of the continuum are extrinsic motivators, which are often imposed by the institution (macro level, e.g., tenure and promotion). In the middle is a blend of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that are often associated with students or support staff (e.g., student feedback on teaching, department-specific educational development opportunities). This intersection with both types of motivation is consistent with motivation theory as described by Ryan and Deci (2000).

Intrinsic motivation as described by Pink (2009) is connected into this framework at the top of Figure 1. Autonomy is primarily associated with the individual instructor role (e.g., having a passion or satisfaction with educational development), and therefore appears at the micro level. Purpose is more closely related to the meso level (e.g., improving the student learning experience). Mastery can be seen across the entire intrinsic spectrum at both the micro level (e.g., improving one's own teaching), and at the meso level (e.g., engaging in departmental educational development). Pink's model does not extend to the far right of Figure 1 because his theory only examines intrinsic motivations.

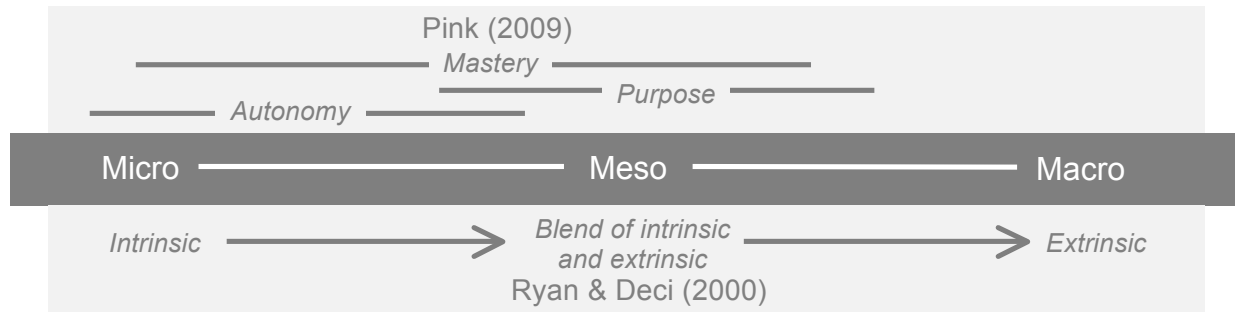


Figure 1. Sources of motivation to participate in educational development (in the dark grey bar), overlaid with theories of motivation (in the light grey bars) by Pink (2009) and Ryan and Deci (2000).

The ideas represented in Figure 1 may have implications beyond the context of educational development. This model may be useful in examining any decision made in the postsecondary environment in order to better understand the source of motivation behind a decision, as well as the type or class of motivation associated with it (e.g., intrinsic or extrinsic, or motivated by autonomy, mastery, or purpose).

Implications for Practice

Results from this study offer a number of considerations for changes to practice. These ideas emerge from the data in that they deal with the issues that were raised most frequently by participants, including (a) feedback from students as a motivating factor, (b) colleagues as a source of motivation for enhancing teaching, and (c) perceptions of institutional culture as a barrier to participation in educational development.

First, I will present some suggestions for gathering feedback from students. Next, I will discuss the important role that colleagues play in motivating participation in educational development. Finally, I will present some ideas regarding a need for a shift in culture in the academic arena that values educational quality.

Facilitate gathering of student feedback. In this study, the most commonly reported motivator to participate in educational development was comments from students. A recommendation that emerged from this finding is for teaching and learning centres to devise methods of facilitating the gathering of student feedback for instructors to consider.

There are a number of ways that student feedback can be gathered. An instructor may choose to work formally with their institutional teaching and learning

centre to collect midterm student feedback or midcourse feedback (Finelli, Pinder-Grover, & Wright, 2011; Springgay & Clarke, 2008). Often the feedback is then processed and analyzed by an educational developer, and a follow-up meeting is scheduled with the instructor to discuss the results and potentially direct the instructor to appropriate recourses, including educational development opportunities that may exist, either on campus, off campus, or virtually.

Other more informal methods of collecting student feedback exist, and may be more appealing to some instructors than midterm student feedback. For instance, Angelo and Cross (1993) present various classroom assessment techniques that can be used gather student feedback. Two such examples include the “One-minute Paper” (the instructor directs students to take one minute at the end of class to write an anonymous paragraph providing feedback to the instructor regarding their teaching) and “Stop, Start, Continue” (a short three-item survey asking students for feedback related to what the instructor should stop doing in their teaching, what new things the instructors should start doing, and what current teaching aspects are most helpful that the instructors should continue doing). Dozens of additional methods of collecting student feedback exist, which can either be sourced independently by instructors or through the assistance of others (e.g., educational developers, colleagues). The essential element here, though, is that action is taken to address the student comments.

It should be noted that educational development literature recommends that student feedback is collected midway through a course in order that an instructor has the opportunity to make appropriate adjustments to meet the needs of current students (Springgay & Clarke, 2008).

The student feedback offered through these and other methods may serve as motivators for instructors to enhance their teaching.

Colleagues. In this study, colleagues were reported as one of the most significant motivators for enhancing teaching. There were, however, no comments made from participants regarding formal opportunities for colleagues to converse about teaching and learning. While informal conversations are commendable and valuable, they only benefit those who take the initiative to engage in these types of encounters.

A local recommendation for practice at McMaster University, based on results of this study, is to research and implement opportunities for colleagues to interact and converse about teaching- and learning-related issues. Informal programs such as teaching mentors (Lennon, 2015) or teaching squares (Colgan & DeLong, 2015), pedagogical walk and talk (Brock University, 2010), or by simply providing a gathering space for instructors to connect with one another should be considered.

Williams et al. (2013) discuss the productive power that social networks can have on effecting change in higher education. By fostering the development of these networks around topics of educational development and by enhancing teaching quality, it may be possible to spark conversations regarding teaching and learning among instructors that may not have otherwise occurred. These programs could be implemented centrally through the teaching and learning and learning centre, or at the Faculty or departmental level.

Culture shift to value teaching. There are compelling reasons, as evidenced by the qualitative data in this study, that some elements within the culture of the

academic context need to change in order to prioritize educational development and enhanced teaching and learning quality. The data from this study report perceptions that the institution does not value teaching and that research is more important than quality education, which is problematic and creates barriers to participation in educational development. To change these perceptions, there needs to be a culture shift in the way that educational development is regarded. At McMaster University, there is strong support from senior administration (e.g., president and provost) to enhance teaching quality. I believe that where the culture shift needs to occur is at the Faculty and departmental (i.e., meso) levels. This is consistent with the work referred to earlier by Williams et al. (2013), discussing the importance of social networks within institutions of higher education to enable change. They claim that:

The meso-level in the model is essential to bridging the gap between the micro- and macro-levels, for although change agents can be found at all levels, individuals and CoPs [communities of practice] working at the micro-level often lack the power and access to macro-level leaders (and the attendant resources) required to implement change within larger cultural structures.

Those working at the meso-level (such as deans and department chairs) therefore have the potential to play a key role in bridging the gap between the micro and macro. (p. 55)

It will require significant work to allow this culture shift to occur. One way to hasten this process would be to encourage meso-level members (i.e., chairs and deans) to participate in micro-level networks so that ideas and conceptions can be shared across the boundaries between the micro and meso levels.

Connected to this notion of shifting culture to emphasize teaching and learning is current research in the province of Ontario on exploring teaching quality indicators at various levels within institutions (Doci, Meadows, & Goff, 2014; Wolf et al., 2014). Results from this important work are slowly emerging and may have implications for the ways in which teaching and learning are prioritized at the Faculty and departmental levels, but a shift in culture is likely to be a long process.

Implications for Future Research

One of the interesting ideas that has emerged in recent years in the educational development field and through this research is that educational development does not need to occur exclusively through institutional teaching and learning centres or formal workshops on enhancing teaching and learning. Opportunities for informal educational development, such as casual discussions between colleagues about teaching over a cup of coffee, or independently exploring educational development, may have just as much impact on enhancing teaching as formal educational development. I believe that a study to explore the various ways that instructors engage in informal educational development is critical at this point in time to demonstrate that informal educational development can have significant positive impact on teaching, and to shift the belief that educational development is something that is exclusively obtained through formal contexts.

A second area of research to explore is the mega (i.e., beyond the institution) level of educational development (Poole, 2009; Simmons, 2011b). The present study did not reveal much about how instructors seek to gain educational development beyond McMaster University; however, some comments were made about attending

discipline-specific or general education conferences, accessing scholarly educational literature, or other opportunities that may exist beyond McMaster. This new research would help to complete the micro, meso, macro, mega framework that I have referred to in this study. An interesting methodological approach may be to conduct this research while attending an education conference, such as the annual meeting of the Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (STLHE). This type of meeting is a natural gathering point for instructors who are engaging in educational development at the mega level. It may be possible to recruit and collect data that would further contribute to the theories presented in this study.

The model generated in this study as shown in Figure 1 was focused on exploring motivations and barriers to participation in educational development of individuals (i.e., the eight participants in this research). A third possibility for future research would be to apply the theoretical model generated in this study to an entire institution rather than individuals. This could allow one to explore institutional motivation for participation in teaching and learning. One possible research approach may be to interview individuals at the various levels of the institution (e.g., individual instructors at the micro level, chairs and deans at the meso level, senior administrators such as the provost and university president at the macro level). Conceiving even larger, one could fathom applying this model to an entire province or country, involving participants at several postsecondary institutions, to get a sense of provincial or national motivation for participation in educational development.

Due to the fact that educational development is a relatively new field (Lee, 2010; Wilcox, 1997), and particularly that research in educational development is

emerging as an area of scholarship (Boud & Brew, 2013), there are many possibilities for areas of research. The potential research projects I have listed here are particularly well connected to the present study and would offer new knowledge in this developing field.

Final Word

“I want to be a good teacher ... it’s a part of who I am” (Study participant).

This research has presented numerous motivators and barriers that instructors identified as factors that contributed to their decisions to participate (or not) in educational development. It is quite easy to categorize and code statements that identify these motivators and barriers. What is more difficult is to convey that each of the study participants (and in fact, each of the instructors who I have encountered in my career as an educational developer) truly want to be effective instructors. What I have learned from this research and through my own work is whether they like teaching or not, instructors want their students to succeed in their studies. Instructors do not want to fail in their role as educators.

The quotation at the beginning of this section represents the sentiment I perceived from each of the participants in this study, as well as from the instructors I have encountered in my profession. Being an effective postsecondary instructor is not about the hours that one invests into educational development workshops, consultation, or scouring the literature for new teaching approaches. It is much deeper than that.

I do not expect that the results from this work will have sweeping impacts on participation rates in educational development at McMaster University or beyond. They do, however, provide a deeper understanding as to why instructors choose to

engage in educational development. This work also gives a voice to those who face barriers to educational development: those who do not avail themselves of supports offered by teaching and learning centres. As educational developers it is important to understand the breadth and depth of these perspectives.

In reviewing the data and results from this study, it occurred to me that participation in educational development may not be about issues of time, motivation, or perceived value of teaching within the academic institution. It may be an issue of the intense amount of work and stress that university instructors and faculty members face on a daily basis. In order for the academy to be a sustainable endeavour, this is a critical issue that should be addressed.

This work has presented a new way to consider motivators and barriers to participation in educational development in the postsecondary environment through the lens of motivation while simultaneously considering the impact of the different levels of academic institutions (e.g., micro, meso, macro). The findings from this research are helpful not only to educational developers working in teaching and learning centres, but also to instructors who may find reassurance in knowing that they are not alone in their thoughts and perceptions regarding participation in educational development.

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