Conceptualizing a Teaching Motivation Model for Faculty

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This paper presents a Teaching Motivation Model that conceptualizes motivation for faculty teaching. The model was informed by the self-determination theory, the self-control strength model, and the review of the literature on college teaching. The Teaching Motivation Model presents a more comprehensive account of faculty teaching motivation and group factors affecting faculty teaching motivation into three groups: environmental, individual, and institutional-level factors. Ongoing interactions between these mutually interrelated and influential groups of factors may either support or inhibit faculty engagement in a particular method of teaching. The model posits self-control strength, which plays a central role in faculty engagement in an intended form of teaching. Implications for research and practice are included.

Over the last 30 years, efforts to enhance student learning have resulted in a shift from a teaching paradigm to a learning one. Characterized by increased support for students in pursuing their goals, learning paradigms require frequent student performances shaped by timely and ongoing feedback from faculty to facilitate life-long learning (Tugg, 2003). Although the support for this shift has derived from U.S. based literature and research, higher education institutions (HEIs) worldwide have attempted to incorporate these innovative teaching methods (ITMs) amid much faculty resistance. Arguably, some faculty have adopted learning paradigm methods, leading the change in college teaching otherwise rooted in didactic lectures; however, not much is known as to what catalyzes motivation to embrace ITMs for these faculty members. To advance an understanding of faculty teaching behavior, we developed a Teaching Motivation Model (TMM) to conceptualize motivation for faculty teaching. The model was informed by two frameworks. The self-determination theory (SDT) defines motivation as a set of factors influenced by the basic psychological needs (i.e., competence, autonomy, and relatedness) and life aspirations of individuals that influence and shape their behaviors (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000). This theory helped account for different types and sources of faculty motivation in our model. The self-control strength model (SCSM) conceptualizes the role of self-regulation in an individual’s behavior and suggests the level of a person’s self-control strength helps predict their performance results (Muraven et al., 1998). Consistent with the SCSM, self-regulation is defined as “the attempt to control or alter one’s own responses” (Muraven et al., 1998, p.774). The SCSM helped account for faculty members’ use of self-control over their teaching behaviors. Together, these frameworks served as a foundation on which we developed a more comprehensive account of faculty teaching motivation.

ITMs are an umbrella term we use to refer to learning paradigm methods and approaches such as learner-centered teaching, active learning, interactive teaching, flipped learning, collaborative learning, and the use of innovative education technologies. The use of such an umbrella term helped account for the possible discrepancies between western definitions of non-didactic teaching and learning methods and approaches and the way they are defined in the global education context. Moreover, this term is reflective of many of the effective teaching methods that occur in higher education classrooms through the integration of didactic and non-didactic teaching and learning approaches.

The support for the shift to ITMs comes from the literature on teaching and learning promoted by scholars such as Barr and Tagg (1995), Svinicki and McKeachie (2014), and Weimer (2013). The paradigm’s focus is on students, their learning styles, goals, and prior experiences that arguably present benefits such as increased student motivation, deep learning, higher-order thinking, and reflective learning (Bonwell & Eisen, 1991; Felder & Brent, 1996; Svinicki & McKeachie, 2014). In line with this scholarly encouragement, HEIs worldwide have placed more emphasis on this learning paradigm and have encouraged their faculty to engage in ITMs, which makes understanding the nature of faculty motivation for embracing these methods an important area that warrants investigation. Given the prominence of the learning paradigm more globally and since much of the literature on faculty motivation rests in western ideology, additional work is needed beyond this context. Therefore, the purpose of our study is to advance a model that explores the conceptualization of the teaching motivation of faculty beyond the U.S. higher education context.

**Literature Review**

Research suggests the shift to a learning paradigm is supported by national and institutional strategies that target the quality of teaching at HEIs across many nations (Gaebel et al., 2018). Nevertheless, in some parts of the world, individual faculty are still the lead agents driving this process (Gaebel et al.). Yet, the conceptualization of faculty behavior pertaining to the
use of ITMs is still an area that needs further development. Some theories explain human motivation [e.g., Bandura’s (1986) social-cognitive theory and Maslow’s (1943) theory of the hierarchy of human needs] in relation to the individual-level factors such as individuals’ perceptions of self-efficacy and their individual needs. The attitudes and behavior of the faculty working in complex organizations, however, are the result of a wide range of factors (Herrington et al., 2016), which suggests external factors such as the environment in a larger sense and institutional-level factors are essential to understanding faculty motivation. The TMM addresses this gap in the literature by theorizing faculty motivation for teaching in relation to a set of factors that encompass micro-level and macro-level facilitators and inhibitors of a teaching behavior. Before the discussion of the new model, we present the theories that informed our model, SDT and SCSM, and review the literature on faculty teaching motivation.

**Self-Determination Theory**

We limit the discussion of SDT to the concepts that informed the TMM, including intrinsic (autonomous) and extrinsic (controlled) motivation. Studies have shown both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are essential to faculty teaching in traditional face-to-face and online teaching environments (Shagrir, 2011; Stupnisky et al., 2017; Wilkesmann & Schmid, 2014). Intrinsically motivation plays a crucial role in activities valued and enjoyed by the doers (Ryan & Deci, 2000), in this case, faculty members who engage in ITMs. Faculty members’ personal values and beliefs about teaching and job satisfaction, for instance, may intrinsically promote their engagement in a particular teaching behavior. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, guides externally regulated behaviors that present no internal satisfaction and/or value to the person (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000). An example for the extrinsic motivation directing faculty behavior is when a faculty member engages in teaching professional development solely due to the institutional requirements. Ryan and Deci (2000) also defined a third state, amotivation, which describes a lack of motivation: a state that does not impact an individual’s behavior.

Both types of motivation are caused, and can be influenced, by basic psychological needs of competence (enhanced through feedback, communications and rewards), autonomy (satisfied through the availability of choice, acknowledgment of feelings, and opportunities for self-direction), and relatedness (supported through interpersonal support and care) (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These needs, the authors argued, are essential for facilitating natural growth and integration, constructive social development, and personal well-being of an individual (Ryan & Deci). While the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs can help develop a strong autonomous motivation, their thwarting can lead to a state of impersonal orientation, which is believed to result in poor functioning and ill-being (Ryan & Deci). The satisfaction of the needs for competence and relatedness was observed to influence controlled motivation.

Additionally, Deci and Ryan (2008) referred to Moller, Deci, and Ryan (2006) to suggest only controlled motives deplete energy and emphasized the role of regulation in extrinsic motivation, thus undermining its importance in intrinsically motivated behaviors. Yet, both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated faculty face difficulties in their teaching. To overcome the obstacles, such as student resistance to learner-centered teaching (Weimer, 2013), faculty may need to regulate their teaching behaviors even when they intrinsically value the intended form of teaching. Hence, a self-regulatory act, which feeds on limited self-control strength and consequently, depletes the limited energy resource of an individual (Muraven et al., 1998), or its absence can forestall or support a faculty member’s engagement in intrinsically valued teaching behaviors. In the case of extrinsic motivation, overcoming these obstacles can be even more challenging due to the relatively higher levels of self-control strength and energy necessary for a successful engagement in an intended teaching method. We refer to the SCSM to present a more comprehensive account of the self-control and self-control strength in faculty teaching behaviors.

**Self-Control Strength Model**

Despite its application in other fields, self-control is an understudied concept in the teaching and learning literature. The SCSM posits the level of self-regulatory strength people have can affect the results of their activity (Muraven et al., 1998), suggesting a possible impact on internally valued and externally regulated behaviors. People with higher levels of self-control strength display higher performance results as compared to those with lower levels of self-control strength (Muraven et al., 1998). Faculty with higher self-control strength, arguably, are more likely to engage in ITMs as compared to those with lower levels of self-control strength, regardless of the motives that direct their behaviors.

Muraven and colleagues (1998) viewed self-control as a limited capacity that can be depleted, and one attempt of a self-regulatory act may result in a poorer reaction in the next act that requires self-regulation. Presumably, one successful attempt of a self-control act in either aspect of a faculty life (personal or professional) would lead to weaker reactions in the following self-regulatory attempts, including those targeting teaching
performance (e.g., engagement in intrinsically valued teaching behaviors). Self-regulation results in the depletion of self-control strength in the short-run, whereas similar to a muscle, self-control strength increases over time if an individual persists in their attempt of engaging in an intended behavior (Muraven et al.). The model posits people who engage in self-control over a long period of time display a higher level of self-control strength (Muraven et al.). We assert faculty who engage in ITMs on a regular basis have attempted to self-regulate their teaching behavior over a long period of time, thus building a stronger reserve of self-control strength that helps sustain intended forms of teaching.

The above-presented theories distinguish varying degrees of effort toward self-control and suggest actions motivated by intrinsic factors require less effortful self-control over one’s self, whereas externally regulated actions may require effortful control (Ryan & Deci, 2008; Muraven et al., 1998). We argue these theories undermine the impact of a complex set of internal and external barriers on intrinsically enhanced teaching behaviors and assume limited effortful regulation would be sufficient for faculty engagement in a valued method of teaching. Depending on the nature of the inhibiting factors, the degree of regulatory effort can be greater for intrinsically valued teaching behaviors. Studies on faculty teaching motivation suggest a number of individual or institutional-level inhibitors (e.g., a poor physical and emotional state or student resistance to the valued form of teaching) may induce the use of regulatory effort over faculty teaching behaviors, regardless of the motivational orientation. Therefore, in the model we advance, we posit self-control strength plays a crucial role in catalyzing both internally valued and externally regulated teaching behaviors.

Both the SDT and the SCSM center the attention on individual-level drivers and inhibitors of a person’s behavior, thus assuming the responsibility for action or inaction lays at the individual level. This approach does little to convey the role of compounding factors in the faculty environment that may emanate or diminish their teaching motivation and legitimizes limited institutional support for teaching, a common barrier to college teaching enhancement. Although the SDT does emphasize the role of extrinsic motivation, Deci and Ryan (2008) argued an individual’s motivation is the result of their perceptions of and reactions to their environments. While we do agree individual-level factors are important in faculty teaching, framing faculty motivation solely around the intrinsic and extrinsic motives shifts the locus of responsibility for the quality of education from macro-level facilitators and barriers to micro-level factors. We challenge the assumption that individuals’ needs and their perceptions of their environments are more influential in the teaching process, which suggests little can be done by institutions to enhance teaching quality. In this article, we shift the discourse from what motivates the faculty to how we can enhance faculty motivation. We also argue faculty teaching motivation should be conceptualized around the sources of motivation rather than the types of motivation.

**Factors Affecting Faculty Motivation**

Scholars have taken an interest in the factors that affect faculty motivation for improving teaching, classifying these factors into a number of groups. One such division exists between the inhibiting and promoting factors, which can be intrinsic or extrinsic in nature. Most discussed in the literature are the institutional-level factors triggering faculty resistance. The emphasis on research in promotion and tenure decisions (Fairweather, 2005; Gonzales, 2014), lower salaries for a teaching job (Trofimenko, 2014), high teaching workloads (Dirkx et al., 2004; Fairweather, 2002), student resistance (Blickenstaff et al., 2015; Furco & Moely, 2012) and poor teaching infrastructure (Blickenstaff et al., 2015) constitute the main barriers to improving the quality of teaching. Studies also found variables such as institutional type (de Lourdes Machado-Taylor et al., 2016; Fairweather, 2002), faculty employment type (O’Meara & Rice, 2005), and the lack of monetary incentives for teaching (Fairweather, 2005; Gorbunova et al., 2012) can negatively influence faculty engagement in ITMs. Academic scholars argue faculty at research universities and faculty in tenure track positions tend to resist ITMs, as the engagement in these methods is negatively correlated with higher salaries and presents a risk to their tenure. Among the individual-level inhibiting factors are the lack of necessary teaching knowledge (Eisen & Barlett, 2006), faculty beliefs about the nature of student learning (Gibbons et al., 2018), and low self-esteem (Doronina, 2009). The influence of faculty demographics (Austin, 1990; de Lourdes Machado-Taylor et al., 2016; Fairweather, 2002), years of experience (Boitsova, 2008; Shagrir, 2011), and emotional burnout (Belova et al., 2014) on faculty teaching behavior are also challenges found in the literature.

While the lack of certain individual- and institutional-level factors was reported to disrupt motivation, their availability was positively correlated with higher levels of motivation for teaching. The availability of professional development and promotion opportunities, recognition of faculty work, job prestige and satisfaction, positive working environment, relationships with colleagues, financial/material gains, motives for self-realization, interest in the subject, and feelings of professional responsibility to teach students were reported to promote teaching quality (Belova et al., 2014; Gorbunova et al., 2012; Scott & Scott, 2016;
types of teaching embraced by them. Perceptions of their own teacher identity and define the expectations for a teaching job can influence faculty behavior. Moreover, societal culture (Ferrare & Hora, 2014) can indirectly shape faculty behavior (e.g., gender roles). Societal and disciplinary culture (Austin, 1994; Gibbons et al., 2018), societal expectations, economy, and national and global education standards (Aghayeva, 2019) can influence faculty teaching motivation. These findings suggest factors in the immediate or larger environment are as important to faculty teaching behavior as individual-level factors. The TMM draws on the research findings to conceptualize the role of various groups of factors in the enhancement or disruption of faculty teaching motivation.

Teaching Motivation Model

The TMM posits faculty motivation for teaching innovatively is influenced by a number of individual and institutional-level factors embedded in a larger environment. The model also emphasizes the role of self-control strength (Muraven et al., 1998) in faculty teaching behavior. Figure 1 depicts the relationships between different groups of factors and their role in faculty teaching. The factors within each group are not isolated from one another: the ongoing interaction of factors within and between groups may diminish or enhance faculty motivation for engaging in an intended form of teaching.

Environment

The model posits faculty members and the factors affecting their motivation for teaching are embedded in a larger environment. Faculty's micro-environments, such as their families, colleagues, and students, may have a direct influence on their motivation and/or amotivation for teaching innovatively. A growing body of literature reported a direct influence of faculty micro-environments such as their families (Oleson & Hora, 2013; Tariq & Ali, 2014), colleagues (Schmid & Bouwma-Gearhart, 2013) and students (Blickenstaff et al., 2015; Haas & Keeley, 1998) to faculty teaching motivation. Direct and indirect student feedback to ITMs, for instance, informs faculty teaching decisions: student resistance curtails motivation for engaging in ITMs, whereas positive student feedback to these methods helps sustain faculty engagement in these methods. Thus, the model conceptualizes a direct influence of the faculty micro-environments on faculty teaching. The model posits the environment, in a larger sense, has an indirect influence on faculty motivation. Societal and disciplinary culture (Ferrare & Hora, 2014) can indirectly shape faculty behavior (e.g., gender roles influencing faculty behavior). Moreover, societal expectations for a teaching job can influence faculty perceptions of their own teacher identity and define the types of teaching embraced by them.

Motivators and Inhibitors

Motivators and inhibitors are the individual-level factors based on the psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2008). The satisfaction or thwarting of these needs can influence the type of motivational orientation faculty develop. We refer to the SDT to classify motivators and inhibitors as intrinsic and extrinsic in nature. For example, when factors such as faculty beliefs about teaching motivate them to teach innovatively, this type of autonomous motivation is also intrinsic in nature. Research suggests the individual level factors such as faculty teaching beliefs, skills and knowledge (Gibbons et al., 2018; Hora, 2014), and faculty self-esteem (Schmid & Bouwma-Gearhart, 2013) are among the intrinsic factors that can disrupt or flourish faculty teaching motivation. On the other hand, if faculty motivation for teaching is influenced by their needs of recognition and better relationships with colleagues (Gorbunova et al., 2012; Schmid & Bouwma-Gearhart, 2013), extrinsic motivators direct their behavior.

The division between inhibitors and motivators is not mutually exclusive. For instance, teaching beliefs can disrupt innovative teaching if a faculty member has a different understanding of how students learn best. A more traditional view of student teaching and learning would negatively affect faculty engagement in innovative teaching.

Amotivation and Intention to Act

The model posits inhibitors and motivators interact and influence each other. A direct influence of this interaction can lead to two states: faculty may either intend to act or they may have no intention to act, a concept called amotivation in the SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Intention to act means a faculty member is motivated to engage in innovative teaching; amotivation, conversely, is the lack of such motivation.

Facilitators and Barriers

Even when faculty members intend to act, they can face a number of institutional-level factors that can either facilitate or disrupt their engagement in innovative teaching. Facilitators, in this model, are institutional-level factors that positively influence faculty motivation for improving the quality of teaching. Because external factors are the driving force of faculty teaching behavior in this case, the motivation is extrinsic (controlled) in nature. Studies have shown institutional facilitators, such as supportive environments and institutional reward systems that prioritize improving teaching can positively influence faculty teaching (Bouwma-Gearhart, 2012;
Barriers, on the other hand, are the obstacles and challenges faculty confront in the institutional environment. For example, high workloads and research responsibilities can interfere with faculty engagement in innovative teaching (Dirkx et al., 2004; Fairweather, 2002; Gonzales, 2014).

Similar to the individual level factors, the division between the institutional level facilitators and barriers is not mutually exclusive. For example, institutional rewards and promotion systems can be a facilitator if the quality of teaching influences promotion and tenure decisions, whereas the lack of such an emphasis on teaching in rewards and promotion systems can create barriers for faculty engagement in improving the quality of teaching. The interaction between facilitators and barriers can either motivate faculty to engage in innovative teaching or can lead to an amotivation state.

**Self-Control Strength**

When combined with other factors influencing faculty motivation, the level of self-control strength can help predict the type of teaching behavior faculty will display. Consistent with the SCSM (Muraven et al., 1998), when an individual has a higher self-control strength, they are more likely to persist in an intended form of behavior. In the case of faculty teaching motivation, the model suggests faculty with a higher self-control strength are very likely to engage in ITMs under the impact of individual motivators and
institutional facilitators. These supportive individual and institutional factors sustain the intended form of teaching behavior by reducing the level of self-regulatory strength necessary for the completion of the task, thus diminishing the chances for the depletion of self-control strength. A higher reserve of self-control strength can help faculty members to persist in an intended behavior when they face individual inhibitors and institutional barriers. However, because self-control is a depleting resource, a faculty member who used self-regulation to engage in innovative teaching the first time may be unsuccessful in the subsequent attempts of self-control. The TMM suggests favorable internal and external conditions can support continued engagement in an intended form of teaching due to the limited regulatory attempts necessary for the successful completion of the task.

According to the SCSM (Muraven et al., 1998), self-control strength resembles a muscle that can be developed in the long-run if the person engages in a similar type of behavior regularly. This concept suggests faculty who experienced a failure to engage in ITMs in the first few attempts but were more successful in their later teaching endeavors are more likely to have attempted to regulate their teaching behaviors for a longer period of time. Faculty with lower levels of self-control strength may well teach innovatively when they are in a facilitative institutional environment. Unsupportive institutional environments, however, decrease these faculty members’ likelihood of teaching innovatively when they face personal or professional barriers. We also assume some faculty with lower self-control strength may fail to teach innovatively within supportive institutional environments. This concept could explain the difference between the teaching behaviors of faculty members working within the same institutional environment who display differing attitudes toward encouraged forms of teaching.

**Conclusion and Implications**

The TMM posits a variety of interrelated factors that influence faculty teaching motivation. We group these variables into three large categories: environmental, institutional, and individual-level factors. The model entails faculty’s immediate environment, but also accounts for the larger environment, which may have a direct and an indirect influence on faculty teaching behavior and can shape the motivational orientation they develop. Strongly pronounced in this environment are the institutional-level and individual-level factors influencing faculty engagement in ITMs.

The model posits individual-level motivators and inhibitors such as faculty teaching beliefs, skills and knowledge, faculty well-being, and faculty personality traits can motivate or inhibit faculty engagement in ITMs. These individual-level factors are influenced and shaped by a number of institutional-level facilitators and barriers such as institutional rewards and promotion policies, the availability or the lack of professional development opportunities, monetary incentives, and faculty autonomy. We argue these factors do not function in isolation: there is a constant interaction and influence between different groups of variables. The outcomes of these complex set of interactions between factors can either promote or hinder faculty engagement in an intended form of teaching. Thus, we conclude for a faculty member to be able to successfully engage in a particular method, the environments within which they live and work should introduce favorable conditions to enhance faculty teaching motivation. Moreover, in supportive environments, faculty are more likely to persist in valued and encouraged forms of teaching and are less likely to deplete their self-control strength, one of the individual-level drivers of faculty engagement in a particular teaching method.

The influence of the internal and external factors on faculty teaching motivation comes with challenges as well as possibilities for the enhancement of teaching quality. The literature suggests supportive environments can promote faculty motivation by shaping their teaching beliefs, skills, and knowledge, incorporating faculty values into the institutional culture, and improving faculty well-being. Research shows the factors contributing to this process in the environment are the societal expectations from the faculty job, national and global education standards, and faculty micro-environments such as their families, colleagues, and students. Studies also report supportive institutional environments can increase the likelihood of faculty engagement in a particular teaching method by emphasizing the importance of teaching in institutional mission and policies.

Although many challenges and barriers to faculty motivation are often created external to the institution, we believe greater institutional efforts must be made to facilitate faculty engagement in ITMs. Consistent with the TMM, we suggest developing practices that target individual-level motivators and inhibitors and the institutional-level facilitators and barriers to enhance the quality of teaching. We conclude HEIs should take measures to support faculty self-realization and professional development, create competitive institutional environments, consider changes in the assessment criteria for student learning outcomes, focus on practices increasing faculty sense of belonging in the workplace, and provide optimal conditions for teaching and research. Moreover, we suggest further research is needed to test the model empirically. Given the model entails self-control strength, which is an understudied concept in faculty teaching literature, we also conclude more remains to be explored about the correlation
between faculty self-control, self-control strength and their teaching motivation.

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Author Note

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