Reflection: A Means to Faculty Engagement in Meaningful Continuing Professional Development

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This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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This thesis results entirely from my own work and has not been offered previously for any other degree or diploma.

Signature .....

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Abstract

This study sought to understand reflection as a means to faculty engagement in continuing professional development (CPD) by examining faculty perceptions about reflection; reflection as a tool to facilitate responsibility and participation in professional development (PD) activities; the extent faculty members reflect on their PD needs; and how they identify PD initiatives that aim to enhance their professional growth. To examine these questions, a mixed method study was undertaken with faculty members in a Canadian higher education institution (HEI). Drawing on data from a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, the extent to which faculty members use reflection as a tool to engage in CPD was revealed. Though faculty members believe that reflection can help inform their practice and professional growth, it is used minimally to inform CPD due to the issues of time and workload, and the types of PDA supported by the college. To promote reflection among faculty members, time for reflection and training on how to engage in critical reflection is necessary. This can only be achieved within a reflective space and environment of trust, especially between faculty members and management in HEIs. With limited research examining how faculty members can identify relevant and meaningful CPD, this study provides a basis for the use of reflection as a means for them to make deliberate and systematic attempts to reflect on their practice. Through reflection, faculty members generate information and knowledge that helps them make meaning of their actions and experiences, and from which learning through meaningful CPD can continue.

Contents

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To my husband and daughter, thank you for all the sacrifices you made to support me throughout my research. My success is in every bit yours as well.

Publications Derived from Work on the Doctoral Programme

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List of Abbreviations

APGP	Annual Professional Growth Plan
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
HE	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
PD	Professional Development
PDA	Professional Development Activity
PDAs	Professional Development Activities

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Chapter 1 Setting the Context

1.1 Introduction

This study focuses on reflection as a means for promoting continuing professional development (CPD) among faculty members. Defined broadly and inclusively, CPD may be understood as activities that support the growth and development of faculty members. This includes both instructional and non-instructional practice. Other terminologies used interchangeably with CPD include professional learning and development, teacher learning, and lifelong learning. Reflection, on the other hand, involves taking a structured approach to thinking through one's actions and identify ways to improve upon one's practice.

As the field of CPD in Higher Education (HE) continues to grow, primarily due to its importance in ensuring institutional quality (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Borko, Elliott, & Uchiyama, 2002; Guskey & Huberman, 1995; Noonan, 2018), the need for faculty members to engage in meaningful professional development activities (PDAs) remains at the forefront of the HE discourse. Also of importance is the participation rate of faculty members in CPD. HE institutions (HEIs) continue to experience disparities in the number of faculty members taking part in professional learning opportunities. The literature points to several inhibitors to CPD participation by faculty members including, lack of resources (Dimmock, 2016; Snoek, Swennen & van der Klink, 2011; van Velzen, van der Klink, Swennen & Yaffe, 2010), institutional policies and priorities (Dimmock, 2016; Guskey & Huberman, 1995; Jawitz & Perez, 2016; Spowart et al., 2017), years of professional experience (Murray & Male, 2005;

Smith, 2005), lack of time, and workload (Snoek et al., 2011; van Velzen et al., 2010).

However, an essential element of CPD that is missing from the literature is ways in which faculty members, with the support of their HEI, can identify CPD to support their learning and professional growth. The benefits of CPD accrue to both the faculty member and the HEI where they work. Faculty members' engagement in relevant PDAs can help inform their practice and promote increased student achievement and high-quality institutions. To address the gap in the literature, this research investigates reflection as a tool to help faculty members make deliberate and systematic attempts to reflect on their practice. In doing so, they produce knowledge that can help them to "understand how to better approach problems in their own immediate contexts and teaching situations" (Dinkelman, 2003, p. 11).

Reflection involves thinking over one's practice and may comprise taking action to improve or change aspects of it. As discussed in later sections of this thesis, reflection has grown in popularity among HE professionals and is a major theme emerging from non-traditional forms of professional development activity (PDA). This is primarily because reflection is well positioned to promote and account for both the ownership and the daily experiences of faculty members, which makes it a powerful means of personal growth and development. Reflection also allows faculty members to become aware of their underlying beliefs and assumptions about their practice.

The next section discusses the research questions that were investigated as part of the study to better understand reflection as a means to facilitate faculty

engagement in CPD. It also provides an overview of the approach that was taken to gather and analyse the data that was used to answer the research questions.

1.2 Research Rationale and Questions

The study uses primary data collected from a HEI in western Canada (hereafter referred to as the college). This study can be classified as insider research, as the data used for the study was collected from the college where I currently work (Coghlan & Brannick, 2001; Trowler, 2011).

The research was both timely and pertinent, given the growing pressures on faculty members' time and workload, and the changes in management and program types at the college. Despite the increasing demands on faculty members' time, they are expected to remain current in their field and pursue PD opportunities that inform their practice. These have implications for how faculty members identify relevant and meaningful CPD opportunities. With so much to do and so little time to do it, faculty members may not be as reflective as they ought to be in thinking about their practice and identifying PDA that help address any gaps and contribute to their CPD. In addition, in the past few years, the environment at the college has been that of uncertainty and unpredictability, with constant changes in management. For example, there were as many as four changes in high ranking management positions since the onset of this study. This has implications for faculty engagement and overall participation in CPD. More so, there is a growing number of collaborative degrees between the college and other HEIs in the province. An increase in collaborative degrees

has meant that the management of the college has had to demonstrate how faculty members both engage with and contribute to CPD.

Within this context, the overall objective of the research is to investigate reflection as a tool to facilitate faculty engagement in meaningful CPD. To examine this, the following research questions were explored:

1) What are faculty members' perceptions about reflection?
2) Do faculty members believe that reflection could facilitate responsibility and participation in PDAs?
3) To what extent do faculty members reflect on their PD needs?
4) How do faculty members identify PD initiatives that enhance their professional growth?

The study uses data collected from faculty members at the college. A questionnaire was administered to all the faculty members (119 total) at the college at the time of writing, of whom 41 responded. In addition, individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with 51 faculty members to give additional context and in-depth insights into common themes that emerged from the questionnaire. Purposive sampling was used to select participants for the interviews that would best provide varied perspectives and depth about the research questions.

The study is guided by an interpretive framework, using a mixed method research methodology. This helped to ensure alignment between the principles of interpretivism and the reflective approach of the research to investigating faculty member responsibility and participation in CPD. This research has also been informed by reflective thinking theory, and the premise that professional

learning and development occur through everyday experiences, and not through occasional PD days, workshops, or conferences. Reflection as a form of PDA goes deeper in that it allows faculty members to pause, reflect, and learn from their own professional experiences.

To that end, research on how reflection can serve as a tool to facilitate faculty engagement in CPD serves two main purposes. First, it will help to inform CPD at the college and give voice to faculty members by investigating how they can make deliberate and systematic attempts to reflect on their practice. Second, the research will provide some insight into how other HEIs can enhance faculty participation in CPD. This applies both to faculty members that are active and non-active with CPD.

1.3 Outline of Study

This study is organized into ten chapters. Chapter one sets the stage for the research by providing the research context, rationale, and questions. Chapter two discusses CPD in detail including the historical context of CPD in Canada and the forms of CPD. This is followed by a discussion of reflection as a non-traditional form of PDA in Chapter three. Chapter four presents the methodological framework for the research, including the researcher's ontological and epistemological positions. Chapter four also offers further context about the college, including the province within which it is situated and the structure under which it currently operates. It also provides a description of the study participants, strategies for data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations. The demographic profile of participants in the research and the initial codes that were generated from the research questionnaire is presented

in Chapter five. Chapters six to nine discuss the research questions. Lastly, Chapter ten offers a summary of the research outcomes and some concluding remarks.

Chapter 2 Continuing Professional Development Explained

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a brief history of CPD in Canada and its impact on present-day practice. From the history of CPD in Canada emerges two forms of CPD activities: traditional and non-traditional. This chapter discusses both. It also examines the non-traditional form of CPD further through the lens of the current literature on the learning of practicing HE faculty. Common themes that emerge from the analysis are discussed and used to situate reflection as a tool to facilitate faculty responsibility and participation in CPD.

2.1 Historical Context of CPD in Canada

There is limited literature on the history of CPD in Canada. One way to trace its origins is to examine the beginnings of instructional development agencies and educational development work in HEIs. A two pronged approach was utilized to identify the relevant literature. The first involved contacting the leading teaching and learning association in HE in Canada – The Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (STLHE). The second approach entailed searching Canadian peer-reviewed journals such as the *Canadian Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (CJSoTL)*.

Instructional development agencies are organizations (within or outside HEIs) that strive to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Educational development refers to

> a broad range of services, resources, programs, and initiatives designed to advance and support teaching and learning at multiple levels (organizational, departmental, and individual) as well as the multi-

> faceted roles of HE faculty, administrators, and graduate students. (McDonald, 2011, p. 8)

Together, instructional development agencies and educational developers contribute to the advancement of academics and academia, as a whole.

Donald (1986), McDonald (2011), Shore (1974), and Wilcox (1997) offer insights into the origins of instructional and educational development in Canada. Though aspects of their accounts overlap, together they bring to bear the confluence of forces that have helped shape CPD in Canada.

2.1.1 The 1960s – 1980s

Educational development became a growing movement in Canadian HE in the late ‘60s and early ‘70s, as a result of internal and external influences, mainly from the United States of America (USA) and Britain (Wilcox, 1997) and earlier massification trends in HE following World War II (Manathunga, 2011). Around this time, a group of faculty members across the country, interested in understanding the nature of educational development in Canada, and seeking a more defined structure around faculty development, began pushing for more formal faculty improvement programs (Sorcinelli, Austin, Eddy, & Beach, 2006; Wilcox, 1997). Focus on educational development services spread further with the assessment of teaching. According to Wilcox (1997):

> If there was a single issue in Canada that focused people's attention on educational development at that time, it was the evaluation of teaching. Student evaluation of teaching was one of the first things that educational development was expected to address (through related conferences, publications, committee work, institutional programs, etc.),

and educational development came to be very closely associated with efforts to assess the teaching competence of faculty members. (p. 31)

As discourse around faculty development in Canada grew, a series of critical events occurred (including the creation and activities of instructional development agencies) that further expanded the goals and activities of educational development.

1) First was the opening of, and, early development of McGill University's Centre for University Teaching and Learning in 1969 (Wilcox, 1997; Shore, 1974). The centre stood out because of the comprehensive nature of programs and support services that it offered to the university community, and its active role in the faculty development movement across Canada (Wilcox, 1997).
2) Following the formation of the Canadian Association for University Teachers (CAUT) in 1951, there were directed activities from 1970 to 1980 by CAUT's Professional Orientation Committee (later known as the Teaching Effectiveness Committee), whose work was tied directly to the evaluation of teaching issues, which was at the forefront of the HE teaching discourse at the time. The Professional Orientation Committee of the CAUT was established to "propose guidelines on training for teaching for new faculty members, taking into consideration how programs could be conducted without interference with classroom privilege and academic freedom" (Wilcox, 1997, p. 43).
3) Ontario Universities' Program in Instructional Development (OUPID) from 1973 to 1980, marked the first steps towards a province-wide HE

development program (Wilcox, 1997). This was significant because Ontario's universities account for 40% of Canadian university faculty and students (Wilcox, 1997). OUPID implemented leadership training programs and a grants program, which staff could apply for to engage in educational development activities and projects. OUPID formally came to an end in 1980 and gave birth to STLHE through continued informal meetings by academics who were earlier involved in OUPID.

4) STLHE was founded in 1981 to support the improvement of teaching and learning in HE in Canada (Sorcinelli et al., 2006). The 3M Teaching Fellowships program, a constituency within the STLHE, was also formed in the 1980s. STLHE continues to sponsor an annual conference for HE professionals, several awards (including the 3M National Teaching Fellowship and 3M National Student Fellowship), and a range of publications (e.g. the *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education* newsletter and *CJSoTL.*
5) The founding of the Canadian Society for Studies in Higher Education (CSSHE) in 1970 (Canadian Society for the Study of Higher Education, n.d.) also contributed to the PD scene in Canada (McDonald, 2011). Its role was to provide an avenue for the dissemination of knowledge in postsecondary education through research, publication, and academic gatherings. CSSHE continues to contribute to the improvement of teaching and learning in HE by advancing research in a broad array of HE topics, issues, and contexts. Like STLHE, CSSHE sponsors an annual conference and the *Canadian Journal of Higher Education.*

6) The Association of Universities and Colleges Canada (AUCC) also made a mark in the HE sector with its 1991 publication titled the *Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Canadian University Education*. This report, written by Stuart Smith, and also known as the *Smith Commission Report*, had as one of its main recommendations significant funding support for faculty development activities, educational development units, and pedagogical innovations (Smith, 1991). Today, AUCC is now known as Universities Canada, and continues to focus on policy issues affecting the HE sector. It is important to note that *Maclean's,* a Canadian magazine established in 1905 with a focus on current national affairs and news, published its first comparative ranking of Canadian universities in the same month as the Smith Report. Together, the Smith Report and Maclean's university ranking brought considerable public and institutional attention to teaching and learning at that time (McDonald, 2011).

The above events not only contributed to propelling faculty development discourse, but also helped grow the field in Canada; although, at an uneven rate between colleges and universities. By the spring of 1974, formal standing committees and instructional development agencies existed in 13 universities and 65 colleges; with two created to serve several campuses, and a plethora of individuals serving as educational developers (Shore, 1974). Studies by Shore and his colleagues on the expansion of instructional development services revealed that community colleges expanded more quickly than universities primarily due to the focus of Canadian colleges on teaching and technical training. Furthermore, several colleges institutionalized instructional

development (specializing mostly in a small cluster of activities such as information dissemination, evaluation, and staff workshops) and appointed an official to coordinate instructional development services (Shore, 1974).

The expansion of training and support services for faculty members continued throughout the mid-1970s. By 1976, the number of universities with either a committee or a teaching improvement service had increased to 22, with workshops and research as the top two most frequently reported PDA (Donald & Shore, 1976).

2.1.2 The 1980s and 1990s

Almost ten years following the research by Shore in 1974, a new study by Konrad (1983) showed continued efforts by universities to support PDA for faculty members. Konrad's survey conducted between 1981 and 1982 found that 30 universities (60% of respondents) offered some form of organized faculty development support. Traditional CPD activities remained the most popular form of faculty PDA (including, workshops, sabbaticals, research, seminars, instructional services, and instructional development activities by centres of teaching and learning). A smaller number of universities (40% of respondents) had a designated unit or person that coordinated faculty development activities (Konrad, 1983). However, most development coordinators did so on a part-time basis.

Following Konrad's (1983) survey was a study by Donald (1986), which set out to identify any changes in the number and forms of services provided by universities to improve instruction over the previous ten years. An earlier study by Donald and Shore in 1976 served as a baseline for Donald's. The results of

the study showed that nothing had changed since 1976. Budget cuts suffered by Canadian universities in the 1980s appeared to have limited the development of university services (Donald, 1986). PDA remained centred on traditional forms of CPD that focused on instructional improvement (i.e., workshops, seminars, instructional services, centred on teaching and learning). Other less common activities included faculty exchange programs, financial assistance to attend professional meetings, and orientation of new faculty to an institution through pre-college workshops (Konrad, 1983; McDonald, 2011).

In the 1990s, calls for HE reform became more insistent. Publications, such as *Maclean's* first university ranking in 1991, Boyer's (1990) report on a more inclusive definition of scholarship, the Smith Commission Report in 1991 on concerns about teaching excellence, and Bok's article in 1992 on the decline in public trust in the HE system, were reflective of the general perceptions of governments, students, parents, educational associations, and HE researchers. "There was an explosion of interest in, and the study of teaching, learning, and educational technology as universities strove to respond to calls for action" (McDonald, 2011, p. 36). In 1996 alone the amount of literature produced about college faculty increased from prior years, with the public's perception of HE and its cost being some of the key issues raised (Kezar, 1999).

2.1.3 The 2000s

From the 2000s, the PD landscape within the Canadian HE sector continues to mimic trends observed since 1976, specifically in three ways. First, there appears to be no end in sight to the pressures from parents, students, governments, and institutions for improvements to the HE system, including

effective teaching. This, coupled with budget limitations and increasing government regulations and accountability measures (Elliott, Rhoades, Jackson, & Mandernach, 2015; Shen, 2019), leave institutions in a precarious position. Second, faculty PDA still centre on traditional CPD (Darling-Hammond, 2009). Lastly, educational developers and instructional development agencies continue to play a vital role in the development of faculty members. Despite these similarities, in the 2000s, there are more strengthened practices and increased implementation of new innovative teaching approaches in response to quality concerns and calls for educational reform (Simmons et al., 2008). The integration of information and communication technologies in HE, including e-learning, has also contributed to changing the structure of schools and delivery of teacher training (Anderson, 2005). Today, the ever-growing number of educational developers and, instructional development agencies and centres play an active role in supporting and contributing to the PD of faculty members through:

1) The provision of grants and awards (e.g., for travel to conferences, projects);

2) Collaborative scholarship of teaching and learning initiatives with professors, departments, and other developers;

3) Advising on classroom research;

4) Presenting and publishing in scholarly forums (McDonald, 2011, p. 26); and

5) Advancing e-learning for teaching and learning development.

The goals and strategic initiatives of organizations such as STHLE, including the recent creation of the *CJSoTL,* further affirm the focus on the teaching and learning of faculty members by individuals and groups within and outside the HE sector.

2.2 Forms of CPD

The brief historical account of CPD in Canada points to traditional development activities as the dominant form of faculty CPD from the 1960s to the 2000s. However, other forms of CPD have gained traction over the years; referred to henceforth as non-traditional development activities. The findings from the historical account of CPD in Canada inform the remainder of this study by examining non-traditional development activities, specifically reflection and how it informs faculty participation and engagement in CPD. Before a discussion about reflection, this section first distinguishes between traditional and non-traditional forms of PDA. This is followed by a deeper examination of both forms through the lens of the current literature on the learning of practicing academics.

2.2.1 Traditional and Non-traditional PDAs

"Traditionally, professional development has been conceptualized as a dissemination activity: locate new knowledge relevant to teaching, package it in an attractive manner, and get it into the hands of teachers" (Wilson & Berne, 1999, p. 194). Such activities are more formal in nature, and dissemination typically takes the form of conferences, workshops, seminars, institution-wide learning days, courses, degree programs, and membership in a professional body. Another common traditional PDA is research and publication. These activities not only advance the search for new knowledge, but also serve as a measure for faculty members to sustain their career (commonly referred to in

the HE sector as research, publish or perish) (Lee, 2014; Min, Abdullah, & Mohamed, 2013). Boyer (1990) presents this point succinctly: “according to the dominant view, to be a scholar is to be a researcher and publication is the primary yardstick by which scholarly productivity is measured” (p. 2). Of all the traditional PDAs, conferences, workshops and research rank among the top most frequently reported activity by faculty members (Boyer, 1990; Donald, 1986; Konrad, 1983; Shore, 1974).

Unlike traditional PDAs, non-traditional PDAs are informal in nature (Attard, 2017; Boyer, 1990; Pedrosa-de-Jesus, Guerra, & Watts, 2017; Wilson & Berne, 1999;), for example, book clubs, study groups, listening to applicable podcasts, reading relevant publications, informal conversations with colleagues, and reflective practices (stepping back from one’s teaching and research, identifying gaps, and designing more effective ways to communicate one’s knowledge to students). See Table 2.1 for a summary of the key differences between traditional and non-traditional PDAs.

	Traditional PDAs	**Non-traditional PDAs**
Format	Formal in nature	Informal in nature
Pace	Time and schedule-driven	Self-directed
Duration	Short-term commitment	Long-term commitment
Role of Faculty Members	Faculty members as recipients of knowledge from experts	Faculty members as co-constructors of knowledge
Interactions	Faculty interactions typically bound to the timeframe of the activity	More frequent faculty interactions
Impact	Short time on tasks, and as a result less effective	Greater time on tasks, and as a result more effective

Table 2.1 Comparison of traditional and non-traditional PDAs

Several themes emerge repeatedly in the PD literature regarding the growing use of non-traditional PDA by faculty members. The themes relate to the poor

reputation of traditional PDA, how faculty members learn, and their role in the learning process (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Bayar, 2014; Borko, 2004; Glazier, 2009; Putnam & Borko, 1997; Wilson & Berne, 1999).

Learning. Learning occurs on a daily basis through everyday experiences, and not once or twice a year in the form of PD days, workshops, or conferences. As a result, traditional PDA tend to be less effective in reaching their desired goal (Birman, Desimone, Porter, & Garet, 2000; Easton, 2008; Teräs, 2016). Non-traditional activities, in contrast, are thought to be more responsive to the daily learning needs of faculty members and have more influence on their growth in knowledge and skills (Birman et al., 2000).

Faculty control. Traditional PDA fail to position professional growth as an endeavour for which the faculty member is ultimately responsible, including how and in what areas to develop.

> Teacher development is considered especially productive when teachers are in charge of the agenda and determine the focus and nature of the programming offered. In the name of professional autonomy, many argue that teachers should determine the shape and course of their own development. (Ball, 1996, p. 502)

The literature offers two possible explanations for why little voice is given to the professionals themselves. Fishman et al. (2003), Ghaye and Ghaye (1998), Mason (2002), Stringer (1996), and Zeichner (1994) all allude to the first reason that Ball gives. They noted that education authorities and providers usually determine areas for professional development, with little input from the faculty. The second explanation is the rise of in-service PD in HE, which is largely

collective and not tailored to individual faculty needs (Day, 2004). For example, CPD activities, such as learning days, conferences and workshops encompass group sessions, give limited opportunity for individuals to pursue learning activities that fit their unique learning styles and professional growth needs.

Positioning. Traditional PDAs position faculty members as recipients of knowledge from experts, rather than co-constructors (Glazier, 2009). “The most promising forms of professional development engage teachers in the pursuit of genuine questions, problems, and curiosities, over time” (Little, 1999, p. 133). Non-traditional PDAs allow time for faculty members to construct meaning for themselves, and engage them as “productive and responsible members of a broader professional community and as persons embarked on a career that may span 30 years or more” (Little, 1999, p. 133).

Replacing traditional PDAs with non-traditional activities only makes sense if they have been shown empirically to work. The next section uses case studies to investigate the merits of non-traditional PDAs. It describes exemplary research-based studies with an eye toward what and how learning took place, and the impact on faculty teaching and learning. Studies were selected by:

1) Searching the extant literature and determining the suitability of materials to be considered in the literature review. The coverage strategy that I used entailed researching materials that are representative of most other works in the field of my study. I accomplished this by searching for relevant articles in top-tier journals in the field of professional development in HE. For example, the *Teacher Development Journal*, the *Teaching and Teacher Development Journal*, the *International Journal*

for Academic Development, Teacher Learning and Professional Development Journal, and the *Professional Development in Education Journal*. The search was conducted based on the title, abstract, and keywords of articles, and using a combination of search terms such as: "faculty development," "professional development," "teach*" OR "faculty learning," and "lifelong learning."

2) Screening for inclusion and evaluating the applicability of the materials identified in the step above (searching the extant literature). Once a group of potential studies were identified, I read through them and used the following sets of predetermined rules as a basis for including or excluding them: relevance to CPD and reflection, use of theory by the researchers, rigour of the research design and methods, and applicability to the HE field. Studies that I believed were outside of these predetermined rules that were included provided insights that, in my opinion, would add value to the study.

Although I discuss these steps in sequential order, it must be borne in mind that the review process can be iterative. The final selection of studies was guided by three principles. First, only studies with a sound research design were chosen. This gives credibility to the data they generate and enables reliable conclusions (Gate, Charleston, & Abeyasekera, 1999). Second, studies selected had clear definitions of the PDA with details of the design of the activity and what faculty members learned. Lastly, the studies had clear measures of how learning took place among faculty members.

2.3 Non-traditional PDAs in More Detail

The findings from the case studies can be grouped under three broad headings: (1) opportunities to collaborate; (2) opportunities to challenge one's beliefs and reflect on one's practice; and (3) opportunities for e-learning. The first group of studies provided opportunities for faculty members to design and engage in innovative approaches to professional development. In the second set of studies, HE professionals reflect on their practice and on the effects of factors such as collaboration, institution and departmental climate. The third group of studies investigates how meaningful PD can be implemented in online learning. Though all case studies vary in their context, approach, and the location of the PDA, three overarching themes emerged upon further analysis. They include collaboration, duration and reflection. Faculty members valued the long-term opportunity to innovate, think, and re-think, not only their professional growth, but also their teaching and learning practices. These themes are discussed in later parts of this chapter.

2.3.1 Opportunities to Collaborate, Mentor, and Innovate

Several studies discuss how non-traditional PDAs promote opportunities for faculty members to collaborate and innovate. Sharing of experiences among teachers is an important part of academic and PD (Ben-Peretz, Gottlieb, & Gideon, 2018; Braga, Jones, Bulger, & Elliott, 2017; Shagrir, 2017). Collaborating, mentoring, and supporting one's colleagues ought to be an ongoing process in which experts engage with practice, with the purpose of continuous improvement (Ben-Peretz, Gottlieb, and Gideon, 2018). The study by Pedrosa-de-Jesus, et al. (2017) focuses on collaboration and innovation among faculty members. It was designed as an alternative to traditional PDAs.

Four faculty members from four different specialities within the same department set out to take part in innovative approaches to enhance their practice. What sets this study apart is that all four faculty members were at “different start-points and quite different growth opportunities for their personal trajectories” (Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al., 2017, p. 458). One of the participants was a full professor, another was an associate professor, while the remaining two were assistant professors. Their years of experience varied from 18 to 25 years. But, despite the differences, the shared interest to develop and enhance their practice kept the group of four faculty members working together on various new strategies for over two years. In a profession often marked by isolation due to the nature of the work (Garcia & Roblin, 2006), “working in teams can be an effective method for professional development” (Gast, Schildkamp, & van der Veen, 2017, p. 737). Team work not only helps to promote collaboration, but also the exchange of ideas and joint strategies to teaching and learning challenges (Gast et al., 2017).

The study had a clear research design and was grouped into three phases. In Phase 1, the primary focus was on collecting and analysing documents from the four courses taught by the four faculty members. Phase 2 focused on the empirical aspect of the study and entailed designing innovative strategies to further improve teaching, learning, assessment, and feedback. Review of teaching materials for effectiveness and identification of ways of assessing faculty’s professional reflection and academic development took place during Phase 3 (Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al., 2017). All three phases were driven by collaboration between the four faculty members, the close relationship between them and their students, and evaluation of outputs by critical reflection. Unlike

traditional PDA, which are usually shorter in time commitment with little or no follow-up (Bayar, 2014; Sunal et al., 2001), this study took place over a period of two years. During that time, data was collected through participant observations, two forms of coaching meetings (group coaching seminars and individual formal and informal meetings), and critical reflections which were collected through individual semi-structured interviews at the end of each academic year.

The key result was critical reflection by all four faculty members in a collaborative development scenario (Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al., 2017). It provided an opportunity for them to pause and critically reflect on their practices in their various courses and to develop innovative strategies for teaching, learning, assessment, and feedback. Factors hindering the academic progression of the faculty members also emerged during the coaching meetings. Similar to other studies (Snoek et al., 2011; Sunal & Hodges, 1997; van Velzen et al., 2010), the authors report increase in workload, class size, time, and the lack of students' competences as some of the factors that impede faculty members' academic progression.

The collaborative and reflective nature of the PDA embarked upon by the four faculty members generated positive results which hold great promise for the HE sector. Specifically, the nature of the activities entailed full transparency with pedagogic content, which required a level of trust among them. Building on that trust, they sought innovative ways to work together and encourage participation of colleagues through peer observations, joint funding applications, personal reflection, and developing classroom questioning strategies. These are difficult

tasks to accomplish in teams, especially since each faculty member occupied a different role within the department. Hence, as shown in the study, for team work to succeed in HE and to make changes to faculty members' conceptions of teaching and learning, a real commitment to working collaboratively, innovating together, and openly sharing ideas is required.

Like Pedrosa-de-Jesus, et al. (2017), Mooney Simmie (2007) found that collaborating with colleagues leads to the improvement of teaching practices. The study focused on six biology associates who were employed to progress the connection between curriculum implementation and the CPD of teachers at the regional level. The associates worked with 100 biology teachers in teacher design teams and jointly, they produced 18 innovative classroom resources, which have now been made available for the teaching of biology in Ireland. The overall aim was to improve the practice of teachers by using "reflective journals that critically and systematically interrogated the thinking and action of the author and the six associates" (Mooney Simmie, 2007, p. 168). Both the author and six associates kept reflective journals, which were shown to lead to changes in mind-set, an opportunity to discuss challenges with the implementation of their curriculum, and the production of teaching and learning resources. The study indicates that non-traditional PDAs like reflective journaling, encourage collaboration and provide a safe space where teachers' creativity could flourish and where dialogue on teaching and learning practices could be reconsidered and reflected upon. Noteworthy, however, is that the study was for a duration of three months, with varying degrees of commitment by the participants. A study with a longer time scale and one that involved

testing resources in the participants' classrooms might help to provide further insight on teacher design teams.

Pérez-Foguet and Lazzarini (2019) also discuss peer mentorship and coaching, which are evident in non-traditional PDAs. Peer coaching is a non-hierarchical relationship between two colleagues, with the aim to improve practice (Lu, 2010). Peer coaching provides faculty members with an opportunity to observe, reflect, exchange ideas, and share problem-solving (Ben-Peretz, Bottlieb, & Gideon, 2018). The study by Pérez-Foguet and Lazzarini (2019) focused on a PDA designed to engage and empower engineering faculty at a university in Spain to integrate sustainable development concepts into their existing courses. The study participants ranged from faculty members with experience in sustainable development to those with limited knowledge of incorporating it into their academic functions. The 15 faculty members that participated in the PDA joined the programme voluntarily and took part in training activities aimed at improving the competencies and attitudes of academic staff towards sustainability, including individual coaching sessions. The PDA was found to have a positive impact not only on the teaching practices of faculty members, but also on student learning and the promotion of sustainable development in other functions and spheres of their institution. Specifically, "CPD approaches based on bottom-up approximations aimed at fostering personal opportunities of integration of sustainability principles, starting from personal expertise or academics, are effective approximations to train and engage faculty in sustainable development" (Pérez-Foguet & Lazzarini, 2019, p. 780). Though these approaches are effective in creating a sense of community among faculty, they involve a large investment of time and effort.

The above findings by Pérez-Foguet and Lazzarini (2019) regarding mentorship and coaching extend to the non-science field. Brady (2009), discussed the Shakespeare Reloaded project, an alternative to the traditional forms of CPD. This was an Australian Research Council Linkage project that aimed to explore innovative means through which Shakespeare can be taught and researched in Australian secondary schools and universities. The project was predicated on the basis that non-traditional PDAs promote the creation of knowledge among faculty members in collaborative contexts and encourage the sharing of classroom experiences. Not only did the Shakespeare Reloaded project create a safe and collaborative space for the exchange of ideas among faculty members, similar to Pérez-Foguet and Lazzarini (2019), it allowed participants to engage in the dialogues as both academics and learners. However, as in Pérez-Foguet and Lazzarini's (2019) study, time is a major barrier for engaging additional faculty members in initiatives like the Shakespeare Reloaded project.

Collaboration and peer support have also been shown to exist between experienced and new faculty members, as a way to help them develop their teaching practices. The study by Turner, Huang, Poverjuc and Wyness (2015) draw on data collected from 13 new faculty members and nine mentors to discuss how collaboration and mentorship lead to the continuous improvement of teachers. The study sheds some light on factors that impact the mentoring relationships, specifically with regard to the choice of a mentor by new faculty members and the mentor's experience as a teacher. The data demonstrate that "who becomes a mentor impacts the support received, with factors such as the mentor's proximity, experience and knowledge of a school's practice and

procedures determining the guidance they are able to provide" (p. 661). As faculty members collaborate and support each other, serious attention needs to be given to the choice of a mentor due to the impact on the success of a relationship and the level of professional learning that may take place.

In addition to non-traditional PDAs providing opportunities for collaboration, mentorship and innovation, they help advance the cause of specific groups, for example, women in HE (Brown, 2000) and mathematics teachers (Eaton & Carbone, 2008). The study by Brown (2000) discusses PDA for women in HE. It came about due to the need recognized by a group of senior women in HE for some form of staff development activity to support their career development. The PDA was a two day course, with a one day follow-up six months later, to allow for participant evaluation of their progress toward achieving their individual goals since attending the initial course. The overall aim of the PDA was "to encourage participants to take the appropriate steps to prepare themselves for promotion to senior positions within their subject area and/or in HE management" (Brown, 2000, p. 108). It served as a safe space for women to discuss and identify ways to overcome challenges faced by women in HE, particularly in senior leadership positions. In advancing the cause of women in HE, consideration needs to be given to the effectiveness of mixed rather than women-only groups. As noted by one of the participants in the course, "one way of addressing the inequalities which exist in universities is not to hold single-sex courses. Men aren't always aware of the problems we face and mixed courses are useful in that respect" (cited in Brown, 2000, p. 112). More inclusive approaches therefore to CPD in HE may be a more effective way to advance the voice of women groups in HE.

Eaton and Carbone (2008) also examine a PDA designed to help advance the cause of a specific group – mathematics teachers. The initiative came about as a result of “the decreasing number of appropriately qualified mathematics teachers, the lower number of pupils studying mathematics past the age of 16, and the reduction in numbers of those studying numerate disciplines in universities” (Eaton & Carbone, 2008, p. 264). To address this gap, the US Department of Education Fund for the Improvement of Post Secondary Education and Clarion University supported a grant to develop an innovative programme to prepare and support master mathematics teachers. The primary focus was on three aspects: teachers’ knowledge, actions, and beliefs. The programme results showed positive changes and improvements in the teaching practices of participants. The involvement of subject specialists in the programme helped to ensure overall support to participants and embodied the ideals of collaborative CPD.

2.3.2 Opportunities to Challenge One’s Beliefs and Reflect on One’s Practice

Non-traditional PDAs also provide faculty members the opportunity to challenge their beliefs and reflect on their practice, as shown by various studies such as the one by Sunal et al. (2001) that emerged out of the need to create change within HE science teaching. The authors suggest that although science faculty members are well versed in this subject and have field experience, they often lack professional training in teaching at the post-secondary level. The lack of teaching expertise has resulted in high attrition among science students (Sunal et al., 2001). Some of the challenges they face include the continued use of traditional teaching techniques that emphasize memorization, and limited focus on application/relevance. To help address this issue, Sunal and his colleagues

engaged with 75 faculty members from 30 institutions spread across 26 states of the USA “to better understand the change processes necessary for university science teaching reform to be successful” (Sunal et al., 2001, p. 250). The faculty members included in the study took part in a NOVA program (NASA Opportunities for Visionary Academics), which is a PDA designed to facilitate change in science teaching in HE by providing assistance to faculty on a national basis (Sunal et al., 2001).

The study made use of a cognitive apprenticeship framework, which is characterised by learners alternating between the role of teacher and learner, with the aim to “change implicit everyday knowledge to explicit informed practical knowledge through shared reflection and action research” (Sunal et al., 2001, p. 249). The three phases of cognitive apprenticeship guided the study design, namely elicitation, reflection and reconstruction (see Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989; Collins, Brown, & Holum, 1991; & Lave, 1988 for detailed information on the cognitive apprenticeship framework). In the elicitation phase, beliefs are shared making them easily observable (Sunal et al., 2001; Collins, Brown & Holum, 1991). The reflection phase involves creating a diversity of situations that challenge beliefs, attitudes and practice through discussion, reflection and observation of alternative approaches for teaching (Sunal et al., 2001). Following this process comes the reconstruction of one’s ideas (reconstruction phase).

Similar to the study by Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al., (2017), and unlike traditional PDA, participants in the study by Sunal et al. (2001) took part in a series of activities over an extended period of time, such as face-to-face faculty

development workshops, to explore traditional course learning outcomes (elicitation phase). This was followed by a mentoring process to help participants develop new instructional strategies, and plan implementation of curriculum changes in science courses (reflection phase). Proposed instructional and curriculum changes were implemented with continued mentorship guidance and formative assessment of ideas enacted (reconstruction phase). The outcomes of the study indicate that a faculty member's approach to learning and belief in their capacity as teachers during the elicitation phase impact their professional development. In addition, the study results indicate that faculty members value a broad-based approach to CPD that encompass collaboration with others, mentoring, workshops, and reflection. Specifically, the study results show:

1) Faculty members that approach instruction as facilitation of learning were significantly more likely to plan and implement course change and participate in the course development process.
2) During the elicitation phase of the staff development process, faculty members with a stronger rather than weaker belief in their capacity as teachers were found to be more likely to create change and implement proposed instructional and curriculum changes to courses they taught during the reflection and reconstruction phases.
3) All participants found value in the broad-based approach of the PDA and recommended that it be expanded to other institutions.
4) Nine specific conditions are necessary for successful innovative course implementation, including administrative support, collaboration with colleagues, and action research. In its simplest form, action research

entails defining a problem, reflection, investigation, conclusion, and changes to practice, based on the conclusion.

Findings by Sunal et al. (2001) are consistent with the results by Braga, Jones, Bulger, and Elliott (2017), which focused on physical education teachers engaged in a one-year CPD initiative related to the planning and implementation of a mountain biking unit as part of the physical education curriculum redesign. Their results also show that the CPD initiative helped the teachers challenge their current practice and had a positive influence on their implementation of innovative content in physical education. Teachers in the study expressed feeling empowered to assume increased responsibility for making improvements that positively impact student learning.

Self-directed journal writing is another form of non-traditional PDA that enables faculty members to challenge their beliefs and current practices. In the study by Matsumoto (2016), an ESL teacher's activity of self-directed narrative writing over a 10-week period is shown to have been driven by their inner desire to understand their experiences as a teacher. Data analysis suggested that the participant's journal became a powerful tool that enabled the (male) teacher to reflect on and systematically examine his teaching practices. By externalizing his thoughts and feelings through journal writing, the participant first recognizes his loss of self-regulation and then works toward regaining his sense of professional expertise, and begins to develop alternative ways of thinking about his current teaching practices and starts to embrace new modes of engagement in his classroom (Matsumoto, 2016). It is important to note that the long-term commitment associated with non-traditional PDA make it possible for

academics to examine, question, and potentially rephrase their approach to their practice, as is the case of the ESL teacher discussed by Matsumoto (2016). Without expert advice, the self-directed journal writing enabled the ESL teacher to navigate his professional expertise and practice to determine the origins of the instructional dilemmas that he faced and ultimately develop an alternative way of thinking about his teaching practices. In the findings by Matsumoto (2016), the participant suggests that the journaling did not provide him with immediate solutions at the time he was writing. Instead, these insights emerged when he re-read his journal entries and considered them in hindsight. Thus, the participant was only able to recognize the effectiveness of his journal writing in retrospect, which, again, speaks to the importance of a longer duration for non-traditional PDA. Changes in his attitudes and behaviors can easily be traced since his journal writing was a chronological record of his response to his own teaching. In other words, the journal, as a final product, became a mediational artifact through which he could trace his own development and make sense of this teaching experience (p. 533). Overall, the study by Matsumoto (2016) reveals the transformative power of self-directed journal writing for teacher development, especially for experienced teachers.

Findings from the studies discussed above have broader implications for CPD in HE. First, and perhaps most important, is that PDA that are collaborative, systematic and have a long-term view of faculty development have greater impact on the teaching and learning practices of faculty members. Second, reflecting on one's practice, questioning current beliefs about how students learn, and making adjustments to one's practice to ensure effective pedagogical approaches are key actions that contribute to faculty members' teaching and

learning practices. Third, faculty can take steps to grow and become more effective teachers by seeking support within and outside their institution, for example, by pursuing grant funding, mentorship, and joining a community of practice. Lastly, PDAs that empower teachers have a positive impact on their teaching and learning practices. “Empowerment has been identified as a social process that enables individuals to gain ownership of their actions and develop the necessary self-confidence to overcome challenges and accomplish tasks” (Braga, Jones, Bulger, & Elliott, 2017, p. 301). Unlike traditional PDA, the findings from the studies discussed above require greater time, a long-term approach to define and investigate a problem, and diversity of PD approaches.

2.3.3 Opportunities for E-Learning

Advancements in technology and online learning warrant that more attention needs to be given to e-learning-based online PD programs. Few studies offer a holistic picture of effective online PD programs with insights from the learners themselves. The research by Teräs (2014) centres on seven faculty members who participated in an e-learning-based online PD program. Twenty-first Century Educators (21stCE) is a fully online postgraduate certificate for teaching in HE. Developed in Finland, “the 21stCE was designed to support multicultural teaching faculty in deepening their understanding of teaching and learning, education technology and assessment in the context of a twenty-first-century knowledge society” (Teräs, 2014, p. 261). The study set out to investigate the learning practices of seven faculty members that took part in the international pilot of 21stCE, by seeking to understand how they experienced learning online and how they perceived the impact of the program on their professional growth. Narrative research, a qualitative research method, was

used for the study. The narrative nature of the study helped bring to life the events and lived experiences of participants. Participants had the option to share their stories on their personal professional journey, prior experiences with technology and e-learning, first impressions about the program, applications of lessons learned, and frustrating experiences over the course of the program, either orally or in writing.

The online experience of participants. Stories shared by the seven participants brought to bear important considerations for e-learning-based online PD programs. They include the facilitation of a learning community, dialogue, and responsibility in an online environment, while taking into account different learning styles and expectations.

At the beginning, some participants struggled to make sense of the program layout and felt confused and isolated at times. Other participants welcomed the program structure and embraced the opportunity to connect virtually with other learners. Diversity of expectations and learning styles among participants also emerged in terms of the shared responsibility for assignments, discussions and reflection activities. Some participants felt frustrated with the speed and frequency of contributions by their group members, while others preferred less interaction with group members and focused primarily on the application of concepts to their classroom practice. In like manner, the facilitation of online dialogues attracted mixed perspectives from participants. Some participants felt the need for greater moderation of online discussions and did not enjoy the sometimes intense exchanges that took place between group members. Others

were not fazed by the discussion and saw disagreements as part of the learning process.

The experiences of participants illustrate differences in expectations between face-to-face and online PDA. Unlike Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al., (2017) and Sunal et al. (2001), Teräs (2014) found that establishing the culture of collaboration early in the program greatly impacts participant engagement later on. Also, she cautions against the over-use of collaboration and emphasizes the need to strike a balance between individual and collaborative tasks. Lastly, facilitators and conveners of online programs also play an important role in supporting e-learning based online PD programs. They help “promote dialogue and direct discussions towards deeper thinking, provide constructive feedback as well as enhance the sense of community by establishing an online presence” (Teräs, 2014, p. 268).

Program impact on professional growth. Participant narratives contain evidence of improvements in classroom practice and changes in perceptions and attitudes. Almost all indicated changes in their classroom practice, which had a positive impact on student behaviour and learning, as a result of the PD program. Some participants noted specifically, an overall increase in their knowledge and awareness of collaborative learning strategies, adoption of authentic learning principles, and the use of technology in the classroom. Changes in perceptions and attitudes were also identified, especially for participants that had to take a significant step out of their comfort zone. Those participants had gone through a “clearly identifiable climax” (Teräs, 2014, p. 269) in their narratives, such as being frustrated at the beginning of the program

to the point of almost dropping out, reflecting on classroom teaching experiences that did not work out as planned, and low motivation for self-directed study. Through “self-regulated skills, such as persistence, willingness to learn, self-reflection, and controlling one’s motivation” (Teräs, 2014, p. 271), participants were able to work through the challenges and reported significant impact on their professional growth and professional identity.

E-learning has also been shown to be useful in providing CPD opportunities for developing country researchers. The study by Murugesan, Nobes, and Wild (2017) reports on an online course in research writing offered in a MOOC (massive open online course) that had 2830 actual learners from 95 countries predominantly in the developing world. Of the 2830 learners, 50% were from Africa, 40% from Asia, and most of the remainder from the Middle East and Latin America. Participant feedback suggested that they found the course content engaging and interactive even though it was in an e-learning format. What participants valued the most about the design of the online course were the weekly quizzes, peer assessment and the online forums. This is because it provided them with the experience of being a student and a teacher as well, and encouraged the exchange of ideas. Some participants, for example, noted that the discussion forums allowed them to start discussions with other participants about possible research collaborations. One of the positive effects of this e-learning course is seen in the number of participants that reported they had published a journal article after the course (148 out of 284). Participants noted that the writing course helped them with their publishing endeavors and provided them with a boost in confidence to write and submit their paper (Murugesan, Nobes, & Wild, 2017).

Dean, Harden-Thew, and Thomas (2017), Riding (2001), and Rienties, Brouwer, and Lygo-Baker (2013) also discuss how online teacher communities contribute to the CPD of faculty members, and the impact on their beliefs and teaching practice. The study by Dean, Harden-Thew, and Thomas (2017) investigated an institution-wide online PD course for supporting and connecting dispersed and diverse casual teachers at an Australian university. The authors explored the role of community and the impact of online PDA in a time when the HE workforce is seeing an increase in casual teaching. With study participants noting that casual teaching can be an isolating experience, the study found that the online PDA provided an avenue for teachers to connect and engage with others in an asynchronous format. In addition, online PDA helped advance the sharing of information and ideas, and participants felt like they were part of a network of professionals. Likewise, a study by Riding (2001) investigated the teacher support and development opportunities afforded by email discussion lists. The membership of the email discussion lists not only grew following inception, but also grew in how teachers used the lists. Teachers were able to share experiences, information, and good practices with their colleagues. According to Riding (2001, p. 293), some factors that led to the success of this PDA are:

(1) The lists were e-mail based and messages went directly to teachers' mailboxes – teachers did not have to remember to visit a website to check for messages.
(2) They were focused – lists that fail may do so because many of the messages are irrelevant to many of the members, who then have to

filter out the ‘noise’. The members knew they were part of a community of people with very similar aims and interests.

(3) They were facilitated – a member of the subject team monitored the messages sent to the list and could intervene to keep the ‘conversations’ going – they could ‘feed in’ topics for discussion, deflect negative or distracting messages, and answer questions.

(4) They had a wide-ranging membership. The list members were not 100% classroom teachers or lecturers. There was also a smattering of teacher trainers and ‘interested outsiders’.

(5) There were other supporting websites that could have encouraged more people to join the email discussion list.

Rienties, Brouwer, and Lygo-Baker (2013) also found that online PDA can foster conditions for collaboration and the exchange of ideas among academics. They examine an online teacher training program (consisting of four separate modules) followed by 73 academics from nine HEIs in the Netherlands. The modules were a mix of synchronous online sessions and asynchronous discussion forums, with the goal of having participants learn from each other’s experience and also reflect on their practice. Findings from the study showed improvement in practice, but not in the beliefs and intentions of faculty members towards more student-centred learning. This could be because changes in teachers’ attitudes towards student-centred learning takes time (Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne, & Nevgi, 2007). A longitudinal study may be able to shed more light on how online PDA influences teacher-centred and student-centred learning.

Further to the studies discussed above, it is important to be mindful of the factors that influence the adoption of e-learning within HE. King and Boyatt (2015) note that such factors include the institutional infrastructure, staff attitudes and skills, and perceived student expectations. To ensure that more academics adopt e-learning, HEIs need to have strategies targeted at providing sufficient resources and guidance for effective implementation, and opportunities for sharing practice among faculty members (King & Boyatt, 2015). Such strategies need to provide a clear definition of e-learning, a rationale for its use, clear expectations for both faculty members and students, model the use of innovative teaching methods, provide frameworks for implementation that acknowledge the varied array of disciplinary contexts, demonstrate institutional investment for the development of e-learning, and offer faculty members and support staff support to develop their skills and understanding. Such an investment in time and resources by HEIs will contribute positively to the continued growth and use of e-learning strategies to support the CPD of faculty members.

The findings from the studies presented in this section illustrate that authentic CPD activities that are reflective, long-term and integrated into the everyday activities of faculty members result in significant improvements in an individual's teaching and learning. Also of importance, as mentioned by Teräs (2014), is the need to scaffold the learning process and ensure responsive online facilitation so that learners, especially those that are new to online learning, can adjust gradually to the learning environment. In all, the conclusions from the studies are consistent with the findings in the case studies discussed earlier, despite the online mode of delivery of the PDA. The next section briefly

discusses the common themes present in the case studies and their importance in promoting professional growth.

2.4 Commonalities in Non-traditional PDAs

Comparing traditional PDA to the case studies discussed above, highlight clear differences consistent with those presented in Table 2.1. There are also common themes between the case studies, namely, collaboration, duration, and reflection.

2.4.1 Collaboration

PDA that include faculty collaboration are more likely to positively impact faculty members and contribute to school improvement. Faculty collaboration take different forms including team work, sharing responsibilities, joint research, peer-to-peer mentoring, providing feedback and building trust, and book clubs. Collective participation has a number of advantages.

Emotional Support. Teaching, like any other profession, can be exhausting and emotionally draining. Challenging students, balancing work and life, and ensuring student success can all contribute to stress. Support from other faculty members can help alleviate some of the stress and develop lasting professional relationships.

Problem Solving. Team work allows faculty members to share problems and discuss concepts that arise. This allows for new ideas, higher commitment, and overall institutional growth.

Coaching. Beginning faculty members sometimes struggle to adjust to their new role. Collaboration and team support provide purposeful coaching to new

faculty members who need assistance; coaches can provide feedback, ask questions to probe further thinking, and model practices.

Knowledge Sharing. Collaboration encourages information and resource sharing among faculty members. It also promotes the exchange of ideas.

Student Success. Ultimately, when faculty members collaborate, students succeed. New ideas generated through collaborative efforts are passed on to the students. Also, students see and observe the behaviours of their teachers.

2.4.2 Duration

Several research studies (see Bayar, 2014; Glazier, 2009; Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al., 2017; Sunal et al., 2001; Teräs, 2014; Wilson & Berne, 1999) have shown that PDA with longer duration have greater impact on faculty teaching and learning and professional growth than shorter activities. Taking time to pause, reflect, and discover where one is at that point in time and then deciding one's next line of action is critical to the growth and development of HE professionals.

2.4.3 Reflection

The point made above about duration links to reflection. As an ongoing process, reflection gives faculty members the time, flexibility, and space to critically reflect on a problem, process or task. Reflection can take place individually (also known as self-reflection) or in groups (also known as reflection in community). Regardless of whether reflection takes place individually or in groups, "reflective practice implies a level of structured questioning and of systematic review by the teacher that should be carefully considered and often documented" (Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al., 2017, p. 456) for knowledge creation and new perspectives on practices.

To sum it all up, in the words of Teräs (2014), “reflective, collaborative long-term PD that is integrated in the everyday activities of the educators has proven to be a promising approach” (p. 258) to faculty professional development. The remainder of this thesis will focus specifically on investigating reflection as a tool for promoting meaningful professional development. The next chapter provides additional context on reflection by defining and situating it within reflective thinking theory, and highlighting its utility in HE.

Chapter 3 Understanding Reflection

In the previous chapter, reflection is shown to be one of the main themes emerging from studies about non-traditional CPD activities. In the past two decades, the term has increasingly appeared in academic studies about teacher and student learning (Hatton & Smith, 1995; Rodgers, 2002). This chapter sets out to unpack the meaning of reflection and to position it within reflective thinking theory.

3.1 Reflection Defined

Reflection is a complex enterprise comprising of a myriad of factors that make it difficult to define in a sentence or two. However, several authors, such as Mezirow (1998), Raelin (2001), and Reynolds (2011), offer some essential ideas of what we would associate with reflection. Mezirow (1998) positions reflection as an individual endeavour that involves a general awareness of, or letting one's thought wander over something that has happened. Raelin (2001) identifies the importance of both self and others in one's immediate environment in the practice of reflection. Stepping back to ponder what has been experienced by oneself and one's colleagues provides a basis for inquiry, discovery, and future action. According to Raelin (2001), the process of inquiry must lead to a better understanding of experiences and reasons for making a choice, including choices that may have been overlooked previously; this is referred to as 'critical' reflection by Mezirow (1998). Such experiences that Raelin (2001) discusses can consist of actions, beliefs, and feelings. Experiences might also be through reading, viewing, or listening (Reynolds, 2011).

Discussions in the literature about reflection offer a clear picture of what reflection is and is not. Below is a distillation of some of the interpretations of reflection. Meaningful reflection:

1) should produce knowledge and result in a change in both the individual and their community.
2) has to be critical in nature. That is, reflection must be about more than a little thought or analysis of something; it must involve an increased awareness of the causes and consequences of one's actions, and a systematic process of both thought and problem solving.
3) can take place individually (self-reflection) or in a group (reflective community).
4) involves the diverse use of tools and techniques such as reflective diaries, action research, critical portfolios, reflective journals, and coaching.

The above summary of interpretations show that the use of reflection in HE has grown in the past two decades, despite the fact that it involves more work. Any tool that can be used to foster learning and professional growth is bound to gain popularity, particularly because of the increased attention of governments and HE administrators concerned with the quality of teaching and learning (Cranton, 1994). Schools, boards and commissions in countries like the USA have identified reflection as a standard toward which all teachers and students must strive (Rodgers, 2002). To help us better understand the use and impact of reflection in HE, it is necessary to first capture the theoretical basis and process of reflection.

3.2 Reflective Thinking Theory as Meaning Giving to Reflection

John Dewey, an American educator is credited for promoting discourse on reflection through his inquiry into reflective thinking (Farrell, 2012; Reynolds, 2011; Rodgers, 2002; Ward & McCotter, 2004; Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000). Dewey himself drew on the ideas of many ancient educators, such as Plato, Aristotle, Confucius, Lao Tzu, Solomon and Buddha (Houston, 1988). According to Dewey (1933), reflective thought (the process of reflecting on experience) is "educative in value" (p. 2) and entails deliberately seeking the ground or basis and consequences of beliefs. Since Dewey's early conception of reflective thinking in 1910 and 1933, several researchers (Ghaye, 2010; Kolb, 1984 Moon, 2008; Rodgers, 2002; Schon, 1983, 1987; Sparks-Langer and Colton, 1991; Yost et al. 2000) have reviewed his theory and attempted to provide a holistic view of reflective thinking that would help to give meaning to faculty teaching and professional development. For example, Rodgers (2002) discussed four distinct criteria that characterize Dewey's view: (1) reflection as a meaning making process; (2) reflection as a rigorous way of thinking; (3) reflection in community; and (4) reflection as a set of attitudes. These are offered as a starting point for discussions of reflection, so as to contribute to the evolution of its definition and practice.

Dinkelman (2003) also drew on the work of Dewey to discuss the congruence of reflection with the activity of teaching, and the potential for knowledge production. According to Dinkelman (2003, p. 9):

> By distancing oneself from the immediacy of the classroom, by deliberately pursuing understanding—via the intentional framing of a problem, collection of data, and testing of hypotheses—self-study

> highlights the reflective process and yields knowledge about practice that does not arise from daily practice alone (Zeichner & Liston, 1996). Self-study is not the whole of teaching, but it mirrors and systematizes that part of pedagogy that is reflection. Contrary to cliché, experience teaches nothing to the nonreflective practitioner.

Hence, for reflection to be meaningful, faculty members must make deliberate and systematic attempts to reflect on their practice (*reflection-on-practice*). The words of Dinkelman (2003) highlight the notion of time in reflection-on-practice. The distancing of oneself from the immediacy of the classroom can take place say, days or weeks later. Also, Farrell (2012) and Ghaye (2010) note that deliberate and systematic inquiry on reflection-on-practice must be selective and focus on something significant because we cannot reflect on everything we encounter. One way to identify significant experiences is to ask yourself, “What’s significant in what I am experiencing and doing?” or “What’s caught my eye and stayed in my memory?” (Ghaye, 2010, p. 7).

Of all the subsequent contributors to Dewey’s work on reflective thinking, Donald Schön is perhaps the most recognized. Schön is credited with re-engaging the academic circle in reflective practice after many years of lull following Dewey’s earlier work (Farrell, 2012). Schön (1983) offered an approach to epistemology of practice based on the works of practitioners. In his analysis of the case studies, Schön (1983) operated from the premise that “competent practitioners often know more than they can say. They exhibit a kind of knowing-in-practice, most of which is tacit” (p. 8). This he called *reflection-in-action* (Calderhead & Gates, 2003; Farrell, 2012), or “how teachers

think on their feet" (Farrell, 2012, p. 12). Though Schön did not write directly about teachers, his work could be applied to the academic profession. As Farrell (2012, p. 13) notes:

> Schön offers sequences of moments in a process of reflection-in-action in which the practitioner attempts to solve a problem as follows:
>
> - A situation develops that triggers spontaneous, routine responses (e.g. knowing-in-action).
> - Routine responses by the teacher (i.e., what the teacher has always done) do not produce a routine response and instead produce a surprise for the teacher.
> - This surprise response gets the teacher's attention and leads to reflection within an action.
> - Reflection now gives rise to on-the-spot experimentation by the teacher.

This sequence is present in faculty teaching and leads to reflection-in-action. The interaction between faculty members and their students in a given setting, and faculty members' spontaneous reaction when a problem arises, provides the data which faculty could use to reflect and possibly create new meanings and plans for further action (Clarke, 1995). By systematically reflecting-in-action, one is inadvertently engaging in personally driven professional development.

An additional view of reflection includes *reflection-for-action*. According to Farrell (2012), reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action can encourage

teachers to reflect for action. Reflection-for-action has two dimensions. First, it involves reflecting for a reason. For example, to improve upon one's practice, to understand something better, to identify gaps in knowledge and skills, and to take stock of what one knows already. Second, it requires planning to take concrete actions after what you have learned. Taking steps after reflecting is important because "there is a difference between planning for action and action itself" (Ghaye, 2010, p. 7). For example, imagining changes in one's teaching practices is different from planning the concrete steps needed to bring about the changes that one desires.

Ghaye (2010) takes reflection-for-action one step further by stressing the importance of taking action (*reflection-with-action*). That is, "conscious action to develop your understanding or your skills" (Ghaye, 2010, p. 7), weighing your options, deciding on the best choice, and, finally, taking action. Another important aspect of reflection-with-action is that one can take action alone or with a group. Depending on the type of change that one envisions, one may need the support of colleagues or other organizations or agencies to improve something.

The various views about reflection discussed above are summarised in Table 3.1 and later serve as initial codes for coding data on faculty members' perceptions of self-reflection, in Chapter five.

Kinds of Reflection	**Meanings**
Reflection-on-practice	• Looking back after an event • Focusing on something significant
Reflection-in-action	• Thinking on your feet • Improvisation

Reflection-for-action	• For a reason or particular purpose • Planning for action
Reflection-with-action	• Taking action • Working alone or with others

Table 3.1 Common views of reflection (modified from Ghaye, 2010, Table 1.1, p. 6)

A logical question to ask at this point would be whether rigor is inherent in reflective thinking theory, and whether reflection can be practiced and assessed. The literature tells us, yes. The next section draws on previous literature to discuss the practice, framework, and approaches to reflection in various HE settings. The variety of tools and approaches (for example, action research, critical portfolios, reflective diaries, reflective journals, and coaching) that have been employed in attempts to foster reflection within various HE contexts are presented.

3.3 Facilitating Reflection in HE

To help us better understand the application and utility of reflection in HE, ten studies that use various reflective tools, such as reflective teaching, action research, ethnography, and self-study, are discussed in this section. The list of studies, which are summarized in Table 3.2, is by no means exhaustive. Rather, it provides a starting point for understanding how academics and researchers use reflection and reflective practices within the HE context. The studies also range in date and cover a diversity of countries – Australia, Estonia, the Philippines, and the USA.

Name of Author and Year	Title of Study	Country of Study	Reflective Tool(s) Used
Beyer, L. E. (1984)	Field experience, ideology, and the development of critical reflectivity	N/a	Ethnography
Brag, L. A. & Lang, J. (2018)	Collaborative self-study and peer learning in teacher educator reflection as an approach to (re)designing a mathematics education assessment task	Australia	Self-study
Dinkelman, T. (2003)	Self-study in teacher education: a means and ends tool for promoting reflective teaching	N/a	Self-study
Gore, J. M., & Zeichner, K. M. (1991)	Action research and reflective teaching in preservice teacher education: A case study from the United States	USA	Reflective teaching and action research
Hatton, N. & Smith, D. (1995)	Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation	Australia	Written reports
Leijen, A., Allas, R., Toom, A., Husu, J., Marcos, J. M., Meijer, P., Knezic, D., Pedaste, M., & Krull, E. (2013)	Guided reflection for supporting the development of student teachers' practical knowledge	Estonia	Guided reflection
Smith, R. (1994)	Reflecting – a means of critically evaluating prior school experience	USA	Autobiography
Strieker, T., Adams, M., Cone, N., Hubbard, D., & Lim, W. (2016)	Supervision matters: Collegial, developmental and reflective approaches to supervision of teacher candidates	USA	Self-study
Sturgill, A., & Motley, P. (2014)	Methods of reflection about service learning: Guided vs. free, dialogic vs. expressive, and public vs. private	USA	Written reflection
Valdez, P. N., Navera, J. A., and Esteron, J. J. (2018)	What is reflective teaching? Lessons learned from ELT teachers from the Philippines	The Philippines	Reflective teaching
Zeichner, K. M. (1987)	Preparing reflective teachers: An overview of instructional strategies which have been employed in preservice teacher education	N/a	Action research, ethnographic methods, writing and reflection, supervision and reflective teaching, curriculum development and analysis, and reflective teaching

Table 2.2 Reflection in HE

The studies in Table 3.2 show the positive links between reflection and improved HE practice. For example, Gore and Zeichner (1991) examine the use of action research as a strategy for encouraging more reflective teaching practice by prospective teachers. The sub-sections that follow delve deeper into the impact of reflection on HE.

3.3.1 Reflection and Student Performance

Various studies (Beyer, 1984; Gore & Zeichner, 1991; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Leijen, Allas, Toom, Husu, Marcos, Meijer, Knezic, Pedaste, & Krull, 2013; Smith, 1994; Sturgill & Motley, 2014) discuss several reflective tools as contributing toward preparing students and helping them develop their knowledge. These studies focus primarily on student teachers and service learning. For example, Leijen, Allas, Toom, Husu, Marcos, Meijer, Knezic, Pedaste, and Krull (2013) show how guided reflection can help support student teachers in developing knowledge based on their practical experiences and by linking this with theoretical knowledge. Through the developed guided reflection procedure, which was based on the Deweyan approach to reflection (Leijen et al., 2013), the authors discovered that students with prior knowledge (through previous pedagogical experiences) found the guided reflection procedure beneficial, compared to those without prior teaching practice experience. Hence, for meaningful reflection to take place, prior experience as well as interaction with others are needed.

Sturgill and Motley (2014) build on these findings by exploring guided reflection with other modes of reflection. They investigate academic service learning and reflection, with the aim of identifying the effects of various modes of reflection

on student learning. In particular, the authors examine three dimensions of variations in written reflection assignments by students – guided versus free response, dialogic versus expressive reflection, and public versus private reflection. Some students reflected through a group, public blog, while others kept paper journals. Some journal entries were guided through a regular set of daily prompts as well as a daily instructor-choice question, while others had no stipulations as to the content of their journal entries. Findings suggest that reflection impacts both students and teachers. The type of reflection also matters. For example, (1) guided reflection led to more meaningful reflections than free responses; (2) public reflection encouraged students to think about big-picture issues, as the public element introduced a wider audience, which led to heightened awareness of the needs and attitudes of readers and more careful analysis; and (3) a dialogic model for giving feedback to students allowed teachers to discern student thinking and provide constructive feedback that helped direct that thinking into instructive areas. Through high quality reflection and the right model of written reflection, teachers can help students maximize their learning.

3.3.2 Reflection and Teaching Practice

Reflection has also been shown to contribute to effective teaching. Empirical studies such as those by Brag and Lang (2018), Dinkelman (2003), Strieker, Adams, Cone, Hubbard, and Lim (2016), and Valdez, Navera, and Estron (2018) indicate a positive link between reflective teaching and self-study, with teaching practice. Strieker et al. (2016) investigated a college-wide initiative in the southern region of the USA designed to transform university supervision practices by making them more developmental, reflective and collegial in

nature. Among the key findings from the analysis of the data (gleaned from reports and protocols, personal reflections, and surveys) was that supervisors, candidates, and collaborating teachers engaged in ongoing collaborative inquiry and reflective dialog, which allowed for focused learning. Co-reflection led to the achievement of goals set out by the candidates to improve their practice, increase their use of research-based instructional approaches, and/or increase their ability to adjust their approaches to meet the needs of their students. Two years after this research, similar results can be found in the study by Valdez et al. (2018), who share findings from their case study conducted in the Philippines. The study, which was grounded on the notions of reflective practice, set out to gain a better understanding of teachers' views on reflective teaching and the existing challenges faced in actualizing this practice in their respective contexts. The results not only show that teachers view reflective teaching as an opportunity for professional growth, but also as a means to improve teaching and learning. In addition, teachers claimed that reflective teaching allows students to participate in contemplating on the inputs and lessons presented to them.

Reflection can also advance effective curriculum work. In a study by Bragg and Lang (2018), the authors shed some light on the impact of self-study to facilitate changes in curriculum work and improve learning outcomes for pre-service teachers and teacher educators. Data collected from reflective journaling, notes and audio recordings of meetings, iterations of the assessment task, and teacher educator reflections on student work samples of the task, show self-study to be an effective tool for the evaluation of the decisions impacting changes in curriculum work. The formation of a peer learning team capitalized

on the expertise of both team members, thus leading to transformation of the curriculum worker which in turn informs future teaching practice. Bragg and Lang (2018) attribute the success of self-study in this context to the fact that it allowed for critically collaborative inquiry, which revealed the flaws within the assessment task's construction and multiple iterations.

Though the above make a case for the use and promotion of reflection in HE, more empirical studies on the reflective tools claimed to promote reflection are needed. Empirical studies help provide additional evidence on the effectiveness of the various reflective tools and how they influence and encourage reflection in various HE contexts (Hatton & Smith, 1995). For example, empirical research on student teachers' knowledge and thought process, and how these are influenced by alternative approaches and designs in teacher education, might enable researchers and academics to test out both the realities and possibilities of reflection in teacher education (Calderhead, 1989).

Further to the above discussion, it is important to examine the processes and stages of reflection as identified in the literature by several authors. The next section provides additional insights on this subject.

3.4 Stages of Reflection

Educational theorists have grappled with the question of whether it is possible to learn to become more reflective. Kolb (1984), Larrivee (2008), and Van Manen (1977) offer hierarchical progressions of reflective practice, which suggest that it is possible to learn to become more reflective, or get better at reflecting (Smith, 2011). The stages and dimensions of reflection offered in the literature also suggests that reflection is generally viewed as an incremental

process (Larrivee, 2008). This section discusses some of the levels and dimensions of reflection contained in the literature in more detail. It is important to note that there is no commonly accepted terminology used to define the various levels in the development of reflective practice (Larrivee, 2008).

Van Manen (1977). The work of Van Manen was among the earliest attempts to define the levels or types of reflection (Larrivee, 2008). Van Manen (1977) presented a hierarchical representation of three levels: technical, practical, and critical reflection. The technical level entails the strategies and methods used to reach predetermined goals. This helps teachers to deal with practical problems in concrete situations. The practical level involves how teachers can make practical use of the knowledge available to them to make decisions as they encounter challenges in their practice, on a daily basis. For example, what knowledge should be included in the curriculum; how it should be taught; and which assessment tools should be used (Van Manen, 1977). For teachers to make these practical decisions, they cannot rely on a consistent body of educational knowledge. The educational research landscape changes constantly, is complex and often presents contradictory and partial theories. Practical decisions, therefore,

> should be determined by deliberative and eclectic procedures. Educators must be aware of the many alternative and competing theories that can be brought to bear on practical situations. The awareness of alternative theories and their underlying assumptions, premises, principles, and methods will then help to prevent educators

> from adopting a narrow and doctrinaire perspective (Van Manen, 1977, p. 206).

Critical reflection aids teachers in practical decision making. It helps them to embark on continuous inquiry, critique and constructive self-criticism that is vital to improving one's practice.

Smyth (1989). According to Smyth (1989), if teachers are to uncover the factors that hinder their practice and design interventions to help them overcome them, they need to engage in four forms of action: (1) describe; (2) inform; (3) confront; and (4) reconstruct with respect to their teaching. As teachers experience events in their classrooms and with their students, they describe them using various tools, for example, a journal, a diary, or audio recordings that they rely on later, when describing and analysing events either on their own or with colleagues. This is especially useful for complex situations and helps teachers not to rely on memory. Smyth (1989) provides a justification for why it is important for teachers to describe their experiences.

> The rationale is that if teachers can create a text that comprises the elements of their teaching as a prelude to problematizing it, then there is a likelihood that they will have the basis upon which to speak with one another so as to see how their consciousness was formed, and how it might be changed. (p. 13)

With an accurate account of an event, teachers can work towards a solution or alternative approach that aligns with their current teaching environment. The second stage – inform – involves teachers making sense of what they have described. "It is the precursor to uncovering the broader principles that are

informing (consciously or otherwise) their classroom action" (Smyth, 1989, p. 13). In trying to theorize and work out operational theories for their practice, teachers can develop practical principles that explain the nature of their work contexts and why they operate in the way they do. This has the benefit of not only aiding discussions with colleagues but it can also help teachers move beyond intellectualizing the issues to concrete action for change. The third stage – confront – involves teachers analysing and discovering how they came to be the way they are. After describing and theorizing their practices, teachers need to be able to subject them to a form of interrogation and questioning that establishes something about their legitimacy and their legacy (Smyth, 1989). The confronting stage is critical because it helps teachers articulate what they do as educators. It also helps them situate their role within the broader cultural, social, and political context and to determine any assumptions or biases about beliefs, methods, and classroom practices they hold. By so doing, teachers are engaging in critical reflection. "Regarded this way, teaching becomes less of an isolated set of technical procedures, and more of a historical expression of shared values about what is considered to be important about the nature of the educative act" (Smyth, 1989, p. 14). Smyth (1989) goes a step further to provide teachers with guiding questions to help provide them with some structure as they begin the process of confronting local theories of teaching. The guiding questions include:

- What do my practices say about my assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching?
- Where did these ideas come from?
- What social practices are expressed in these ideas?

- What is it that causes me to maintain my theories?
- What views of power do they embody?
- Whose interests seem to be served by my practices?
- What is it that acts to constrain my views of what is possible in teaching? (Smyth, 1989, p. 15)

These questions serve as a starting point for teachers as they begin to confront aspects of their practice. The final stage in the sequential levels provided by Smyth (1989) encompasses teachers determining how they might reconstruct and do things differently. Being reflective prevents teachers from merely being hypothetical with their practice, the way schools operate, the educational system as a whole, and government interests. With a clearer picture, teachers can start to reconstruct their approach and work towards improving their classroom practices.

Griffiths and Tann (1991). Though the focus of Griffiths and Tann's (1991) research was on pre- and in-service students, their five-level model of reflective practice can be applied to faculty members in HE. Griffiths and Tann believe that, though challenging to achieve, reflection relies on the ability of a person to uncover their personal theories and make them explicit. The five-level model includes:

1. rapid reaction (instinctive, immediate);
2. repair (habitual, pause for thought, fast, on the spot);
3. review (time out to re-assess, over hours or days);
4. research (systematic, sharply focused, over weeks or months); and

5. re-theorise and re-formulate (abstract, rigorous, clearly formulated, over weeks or months). (Griffiths & Tan, 1991)

As academics, faculty members, teachers, and lecturers need to ensure that they are operating efficiently and as such, will need to continuously translate public theories into personal ones and vice versa (Day, 1991).

Atkins and Murphy (1993). Following an analysis of the literature, Atkins and Murphy (1993) surmise that there are three main stages in the reflective processes shared by authors - awareness, critical analysis, and new perspective. The first stage (awareness) is triggered by a sense of inner discomfort arising from a gap between one's intended outcome and the outcome realized. The gap leads to uncomfortable feelings and thoughts as one realizes that, in a situation, the knowledge and approach one was applying is not sufficient in itself (Atkins & Murphy, 1993). Schön (1991) refers to this as the experience of surprise. The second stage (critical analysis) entails a critical examination of the situation. According to Atkins and Murphy (1993), it must be done in a constructive manner and should involve an examination of both feelings and knowledge. Doing so may help provide the individual with an explanation for the identified gap between the intended outcome and the outcome realized. It may also lead to the generation of new knowledge, which could lead to improvements in practice. The final stage (new perspective) involves the generation of a new perspective on the situation. At this stage, the individual examines the outcome of their reflection and learning takes place, which may or may not lead to behavioral changes (Atkins & Murphy, 1993).

Larrivee (2000). This researcher suggests a framework for conceptualizing the critical reflection process. The framework consists of a cyclical process that involves three stages – examination, struggle, and perceptual shift. In the examination stage, we question whether the things that are familiar to us (it could be a particular action, reaction or interaction) provide our desired outcomes. This leads us to challenge our current practice and desire change that will help us alleviate some of the frustrations, discomforts, or stress that we may be feeling. This is consistent with the first stage (awareness) in Atkins and Murphy's (1993) three stages in the reflective processes. The awareness and realization that we need to make changes to our practice leads us to the second stage – struggle. Trying to let go of what is familiar to us in our practice can be challenging and can lead to inner conflict. According to Larrivee (2000),

> This begins a critical stage in the reflective process. If this state of inner turmoil brings about too much fear and doubt, the choice may be to close down the process and either stay with the old practice or seek a quick fix. We look for a ready-made solution, a 'prescription' for change. However, when we do this, we circumvent an essential stage in the critical reflection process. (p. 305)

If we embrace the challenges that come with venturing into unknown territory, we allow ourselves to experience uncertainty and chaos. At this stage, we begin to experience perceptual shifts that entail reconciling our previous practices with our desired outcomes. We engage in new patterns of thinking and personal discovery that may involve accessing new tools and strategies to respond more appropriately to classroom situations and circumstances. "By completing the

cycle and moving through the struggle stage, we transcend a singular behavior change and undergo a transformation. When learning surfaces from within, tapping our own resources, we experience an `ahah' and no longer need to take on others' solutions" (Larrivee, 2000, p. 306). This change redefines our thinking and overall perspective, and allows us to become critically reflective practitioners.

Larrivee (2008). Further to the above study, Larrivee offers four levels of reflection that emerged from an extensive review of the literature and the various definitions of reflection evolving over several decades by researchers, such as Day, 1993, Farrell, 2004, and Van Manen, 1977. These various definitions evolving over the years most commonly depict three distinct levels of reflection. Namely,

1. an initial level focused on teaching functions, actions or skills, generally considering teaching episodes as isolated events;
2. a more advanced level considering the theory and rationale for current practice;
3. a higher order where teachers examine the ethical, social and political consequences of their teaching, grappling with the ultimate purposes of schooling.

These four levels of reflection include pre-reflection, surface reflection, pedagogical reflection, and critical reflection. Pre-reflection is the non-reflection level. In the absence of reflection, the teacher reacts automatically to situations in the classroom without conscious consideration of alternative responses. At the pre-reflection level, it is important that teachers find ways to facilitate their

development of reflective practice to help them better assess situations, ask the right questions, and make the necessary adjustments to their teaching practice. At the level of surface reflection, also known as the technical or descriptive level (Larrivee, 2008), values, beliefs, and assumptions that lie beneath the surface are not considered. “Teachers are concerned with what works rather than with any consideration of the value of goals as ends in themselves” (Larrivee, 2008, p. 342). At the next level – pedagogical reflection – teachers apply the field’s knowledge base and current values, beliefs, and assumptions about what represents quality practices. At this level of reflection, teachers engage in reflective practice on their educational goals and the linkages between theoretical principles and practice. This is consistent with the confronting stage discussed by Smyth (1989). At the pedagogical reflection stage, teachers “strive to understand the theoretical basis for classroom practice and to foster consistency between espoused theory (what they say they do and believe) and theory in use (what they actually do in the classroom)” (Larrivee, 2008, p. 343). The highest level – critical reflection – builds on pedagogical reflection and includes reflection on the moral and ethical implications and consequences of classroom practices on students. The values, beliefs, and assumptions that lie beneath the surface are being fully considered. Teachers engaging in critical reflection focus inwardly (assessment of their belief system and professional practice) and outwardly (examination of the professional belief system and the social conditions within which their practice exists). By so doing, teachers acknowledge the close linkages between professional practice, the school’s practices, and the larger social and political realities.

A common thread that is woven through the stages in the reflection processes discussed above is that becoming reflective encompasses both the capacity for critical inquiry and self-reflection. “Critical inquiry involves the conscious consideration of the moral and ethical implications and consequences of classroom practices on students” (Larrivee, 2000, p. 294). In addition to critical inquiry and self-reflection, Atkins and Murphy (1993) note that synthesis and evaluation are equally critical skills for becoming reflective. Synthesis refers to the creative blending of previous knowledge and skills with new ones, in order to address issues that may arise in practice. Evaluation on the other hand means the use of criteria and standards to assess a situation and determine if any knowledge or skills gaps exist. According to Mezirow (1981), synthesis and evaluation are crucial to the development of a new perspective.

Analysis of the reflection processes discussed above also reveal that the main differences between the accounts of educational theorists and researchers are largely those of terminology, detail, and the extent to which the processes are arranged in a hierarchy (Atkins & Murphy, 1993). A major limitation of the conceptualizations of the reflection process is the notion that reflection can be reduced to a set of individual actions to reach a perceived end-goal of reflective competence. “The path to developing as a critically reflective teacher cannot be prescribed with an intervention formula. The route cannot be preplanned – it must be lived” (Larrivee, 2000, p. 306). It is only through lived experiences with a critical approach to one’s practice can one grow as a critically reflective practitioner. In addition, the stages of reflection provided by the researchers also suggest that there is a way to measure progression through the process to determine when one has reached the end-goal. As mentioned in Chapter

three, measuring and documenting evidence of reflection in HE remains a challenge for researchers.

Beyond the issues regarding the stages of reflection, there are other challenges associated with reflection. For example, despite the findings by Valdez et al. (2018) on teachers' views of reflective teaching as a positive activity that can lead to professional growth and improvements in teaching and learning, some challenges hamper reflective teaching. Workload demands (including the number of classes taught, class size, and the number of outputs that need to be processed), administrative constraints (unwillingness by administrators to create favourable conditions for reflection), and challenges in the classroom (student reception of strategies, lack of cooperation, difficulty in determining existing competencies) are all constraints in actualizing reflective teaching. Additional barriers associated with reflection are discussed in the next section.

3.5 Challenges Associated with Reflection

The literature on reflection and reflective practice (e.g. Bragg & Lang, 2018; Dinkelman, 2003; Hatton & Smith, 1995) identifies challenges linked with reflection. Namely, measuring and documenting evidence of reflection, time, and faculty engagement.

Measuring and documenting evidence of reflection. Studies on reflection generally rely on content analysis of personal reflections (e.g. journal entries) and discourse analysis of group talk to measure and document evidence of change from reflection. This approach is both time and labour intensive, and has led to debates about the academic rigor of reflection. In the study by

Dinkelman (2003), where he sets out to advance a five-part theoretical rationale for the use of self-study to promote reflective teaching, the author notes that:

> Although there have been questions raised about the extent to which knowledge generated by self-study meets traditional standards of research rigor (and thus adds to the knowledge base on teacher education), there is no denying what self-study researchers claim the process does for generating knowledge that is useful in improving their own work (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1990; Zeichner, 1993). Furthermore, the growing audience for reports of self-study may attest to the manner in which other teacher educators are finding value in exposure to accounts of teacher education self-study research.

Another important issue linked to measuring and documenting evidence of reflection is understanding what constitutes it. In the study by Hatton and Smith (1995) they note that,

> although their research project began with a review of literature about reflection in teacher education, in particular with a focus upon studies which purported to investigate its actual development in students, the researchers found that this material provided only broad guidelines for beginning to specify more sharply criteria against which evidence of reflection as defined might be evaluated. (p. 40)

To properly establish a framework requires a process of ongoing discussions based upon the literature. By so doing, one is able to illustrate the “essential dynamic relationship between data and theory that is characteristic of research dealing with phenomena such as reflection” (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p. 40).

Time. To be a critical reflector involves 'de-centring' oneself (Bolam, Gleeson, & Murphy, 2003), and stepping back from one's own practices and visualising oneself over time and place (Stronach, Garratt, Pearce, & Piper, 2007). This requires time. And in an era of growing demands on faculty time and productivity, it is becoming more challenging for faculty to juggle new initiatives with current workloads. Critical reflection is further complicated by the fact that "how a person chooses to critically reflect, and what they critically reflect on, is likely to change over time and in response to the circumstances they are working and living within" (Smith, 2011, p. 215).

Faculty engagement. Participants in reflection are typically motivated volunteers. That is, faculty who volunteer to participate in reflective activities and are motivated to try out new ideas. For example, Bragg and Lang (2018) were both the participants and researchers in their self-study research. Together, they sought to share and improve their pedagogical practice by forming a collaborative peer learning team, which demonstrates their self-motivation towards improving their profession. Likewise, Attard (2017) and Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al. (2017) focus on reflection as a tool to drive their professional development. Attard's (2017) research identifies overarching themes that show how reflective self-study can be of benefit if used by teachers researching their own classroom. Like Attard (2017), Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al. (2017) use self-reflection (in conjunction with classroom observations, informal discussions, and semi-formal interviews) to examine the academic growth of four university teachers, with the intention of enhancing inquiry-based learning in practice. Both these studies have in common, self-interest and personal drive (ownership and responsibility) to develop professionally. To help engage non-

motivated faculty in reflective activities requires a combination of factors including organizational culture, institutional processes and procedures to support reflective practices, and faculty perceptions of reflection and reflective practices. Further research is required to fully grasp how these and other factors can help engage non-motivated faculty in reflection and how reflection can help serve non-motivated faculty.

Despite the challenges associated with reflection, it offers useful opportunities for improvements in HE especially as calls for reform become ever more insistent (Jacobs & Van Der Ploeg, 2006). Reflection not only fosters teaching and learning practices, but also prepares students and improves their knowledge. Exploration of the literature and appreciation for the different theoretical underpinnings of reflection offer significant insights into ways to overcome the challenges and explore avenues for continued use of reflection for the betterment of the HE sector. This is what this research attempts to do by examining reflection as a form of CPD and a tool to promote faculty participation and ownership in CPD. By building on studies by Attard (2017), Dinkelman (2003), and Pedrosa-de-Jesus et al. (2017), to name a few, this research examines how reflection can be used as a tool to positively and meaningfully influence faculty decisions on how and in what areas to develop professionally. This study differs from others in that it examines both motivated and non-motivated faculty. Chapter four details the research methodology for this study.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

This chapter sets out to situate the study and provide the context within which the researcher investigated reflection as a tool for facilitating faculty ownership and involvement in CPD. The researcher's ontological and epistemological positions are also made explicit, and their influence on the methodology is detailed. The examination of the methodological framework is followed by a brief description of the study participants and strategies for data collection and analysis. Ethical considerations are also provided.

4.1 Provincial and Institutional Context of CPD

The college examined in this research is situated in the province of Alberta, Canada. The HE system in Alberta is guided by a set of Campus Alberta principles and objectives. Campus Alberta aims to ensure that key stakeholders in the HE system collaborate to deliver seamless opportunities for all Albertans to participate in lifelong learning (Canadian Information Centre for International Credentials, n.d.). Integral to the Campus Alberta vision is the *Roles and Mandates Policy Framework for Alberta's Publicly Funded Advanced Education System*. The framework, which was released in 2007, categorises publicly funded HEIs into a six-sector model (Canadian Information Centre for International Credentials, n.d.), which includes:

1) Comprehensive Academic and Research Institutions
2) Baccalaureate and Applied Studies Institutions
3) Polytechnical Institutions
4) Comprehensive Community Institutions
5) Independent Academic Institutions

6) Specialized Arts and Culture Institutions

The college is classified as a comprehensive community institution and provides a range of programming, from academic upgrading, applied degrees, apprenticeship technical training, the first two years of specific baccalaureate degree programs, and baccalaureate degrees in collaboration with degree-granting institutions. The size of the college (approximately 2,200 students) and the range of programming offered often requires faculty members to teach diverse sets of courses.

Comprehensive Community Institutions and other sectors of postsecondary institutions in Alberta are publicly funded and governed by the *Postsecondary Learning Act* (2004), which "provides a clear path for increased government involvement in the coordination of postsecondary education in Alberta" (Schmaus & Wimmer, 2013, p. 94). The provincial government also provides oversight to post-secondary institutions, guided by the following five principles: (1) accessibility; (2) affordability; (3) quality; (4) accountability; and (5) coordination. Quality and accountability are typically at the forefront of CPD discourse, as they are more closely linked to the teaching and learning efforts of faculty members. Discourse about the quality of HEIs often centres on the value (real or perceived) that students attribute to the time spent in school and the eventual returns from the time spent. And since students spend the majority of their time in class, learning from faculty members, the teaching and learning experience becomes a significant determinant of students' perception of the quality of their education.

Likewise, accountability is usually associated with fiscal responsibility. The actions of faculty members and HE management are often scrutinized against the backdrop of the defined link between public funding and HE priorities. Hochberg and Desimone (2010) further elaborate on the role of faculty members in a time when accountability has dominated the education policy arena:

> Teachers play a pivotal role in our current system of accountability. Improved student achievement depends in large part on the quality of teachers and teaching; the impact of a high-quality teacher has been found to play a larger role in student achievement than any other school-based factor. Consequently, teacher professional development plays an integral role in standards-based accountability by building teachers' capacity for addressing both basic content knowledge and higher order thinking and problem-solving skills to meet state standards and improve student achievement. (p. 89)

In addition to the provincial context, the college dynamics also have a significant impact on CPD. In terms of the college, management has always recognized the importance of CPD. As noted during an interview with a faculty member and former Chair of the CPD committee, "the college has supported CPD for as long as I can remember. The funds to support CPD have always been there even as far back as the 1980s, with the support being in the form of short-term, long-term, and specialised training" (Efu, 2020, p. 5).

CPD forms part of the institution's Collective Agreement between the Board of Governors and the Faculty Association. The college has three categories of CPD:

(1) Long-term CPD: activities that are longer than eight weeks.

(2) Short-term CPD: activities that are less than eight weeks, and, just recently, this includes the purchase of technology and tangible goods (e.g. books and research software).

(3) Specialized training: activities that are confined to a period of eight weeks or less and designated to assist faculty in acquiring advanced knowledge and skills training in specified areas of their discipline and assigned teaching responsibilities.

Faculty members also have the option to undertake CPD without leave or with paid leave from work in excess of eight weeks.

In addition to the Collective Agreement, which encourages and supports faculty participation in CPD activities, the last few years have seen an increase in the number of collaborative degrees between the college and other degree granting institutions within the province. This has resulted in added pressure on faculty members to remain current in their field and to ensure quality programming for students. The college has also experienced program suspensions, resulting in faculty redundancies and turnovers, all of which have had an impact on the total number of faculty members (see Table 4.1 for a breakdown of the number of faculty members between 2012 and 2018). Some of the redundancies were also a result of low student enrolment in non-credit programs, which can be attributed to the global drop in oil price in 2014. The college is in a resource

community tied to the oil sector. Like most sectors in the community, the global price of oil significantly impacts operations at the college. As shown in Table 4.1, the drop in faculty numbers since 2012/2013 is paralleled by a decline in the total CPD applications received and the number of 'unique' individual applications, with slight increases in 2016/2017 and 2017/2018. In addition, the environment within the college has been that of uncertainty and unpredictability, with constant changes in management. For example, there were as many as four changes in high-ranking management positions within the years of writing this paper. The institutional landscape of the college over the past few years has had some bearing on faculty members' sense of community and overall participation in CPD (see Efu, 2020).

	Academic Year						
	2018/19	**2017/18**	**2016/17**	**2015/16**	**2014/15**	**2013/14**	**2012/13**
***Total Applications Received**	115	107	103	87	96	115	113
Number of 'Unique' Individual Applications	62	63	60	56	59	71	72
Total Number of Faculty at the College	105	102	108	116	124	131	138
****CPD Participation Rate**	59.05	61.76	55.56	48.28	47.58	54.2	52.17

*This includes all applications received including multiple applications from faculty.
**The CPD participation rate is derived by dividing the number of unique individual applications by the total number of faculty at the college and multiplying the result by 100%.

Table 4.1 Faculty participation in short-term CPD (2012 – 2018)

Despite the importance and stated need for CPD by both the government and the college, and decades of CPD implementation and support, it is yet to be formally evaluated both in terms of participation and engagement by faculty members, quality of activities, the relevance of categories, and impact. The

minimal focus on the evaluation of CPD activities supports research findings that point to the fact that CPD has become less about the process of learning and growing professionally, and more about outcomes (particularly of traditional CPD activities) such as the number of CPD activities and/or the number of conference presentations attended (Attard, 2016; Ward & McCotter, 2004). “When focusing on outcomes alone … the only important aspect is the end result, and the ends themselves are given and unquestioned” (Attard, 2016, p. 50). One subsequent impact of this is lack of interest by faculty members to participate in CPD, or, worse, completion of CPD activities merely as a way to satisfy management and meet reporting requirements. Another effect of focusing on outcomes alone is management imposing their view of CPD on faculty members; or that CPD activities are ineffective in addressing faculty members’ personal-professional agendas (Day, 2004). A journal entry by Attard (2016) provides a concrete example of this:

> I feel so frustrated. Although I believe that all educators need to have professional development opportunities, asking me to attend a compulsory taught course on an area I feel is my expertise is frustrating to say the least. Here I am, an hour after the course arguing that such a course was immensely ineffective as I have learned nothing new. This was echoed by some of my colleagues right after the course ended. This is not to say that the course was not well planned or was not useful to others. What I’m arguing here is that I would have rather devoted this time to other matters such as attending a course on aspects of professional practice that I myself targeted as in need of development. Such a course identified by myself would have made the learning much

> more relevant to me as a professional. As it stands, the course I have just attended was hugely irrelevant to me as it offered nothing new to me; especially about aspects of practice that I feel need immediate attention. (p. 44)

In a nutshell, support, focus, and direction from management are crucial for meaningful CPD to take place. What more can the college do to empower faculty members to take charge of their lifelong learning? This question forms part of the basis for this research and examining reflection as a tool for facilitating involvement of faculty members in CPD. The question about the role of the college in facilitating faculty lifelong learning will be addressed in subsequent chapters, following an analysis of the data. The next section details the research methodology, including the data collection strategies and the approach to data analysis used.

4.2 Methodological Framework

This study is guided by an interpretivist research approach. The alignment and consistency between ontology, epistemology, and methodology is important in research (Scott, 2000) (see Figure 4.1). An interpretive framework, using a mixed method research methodology, helped ensure alignment between the principles of interpretivism and the reflective approach of the research to investigating faculty member responsibility and participation in PD opportunities. Moreover, as Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) assert, interpretivists often rely on a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods. “Quantitative data may be utilized in a way, which supports or expands upon

qualitative data and effectively deepens the description" (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006, p. 3).

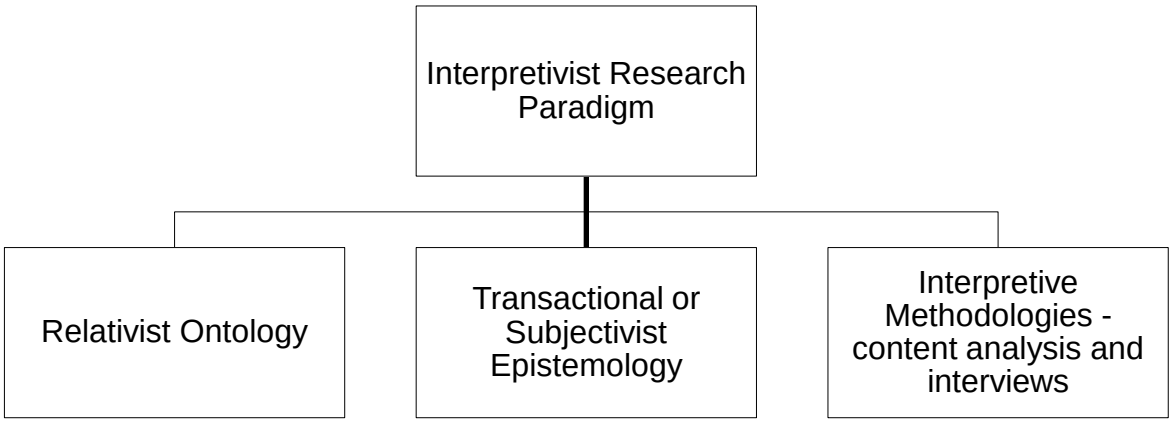

Figure 4.1 Alignment between the research ontology, epistemology, and methodology

Content analysis and interviews are two commonly used tools in reflective self-study. Content analysis is used to make valid references by interpreting and coding textual material, while interviews help researchers gain further insights into common themes. A questionnaire (consisting of closed and open-ended questions) was the primary data collection method, while interviews served as the secondary data collection method.

4.2.1 Content Analysis and Questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire was to gather initial beliefs and perceptions from faculty members about reflection and CPD, as they relate to the research questions. The questionnaire was designed to be reflective in nature by including open-ended questions so that faculty members can answer the questions in their own words. Closed-ended questions were used for questions with an explicit response, which allowed for comparison. Example of these included in the questionnaire are the number of years working at the college,

the number of years working in a HEI, gender, and age. The quantitative data generated from the closed-ended questions were analysed and presented using tables, charts and texts.

The open-ended responses from the questionnaire were analysed using content analysis to support the research design in the following ways.

1) Content analysis helps identify the intentions and focus of a group; in this case, faculty members at the college.
2) Content analysis also helps complement quantitative data/closed-ended questions. By combining content analysis of the open-ended questions with the data from the closed-ended questions of the questionnaire, more precision and, therefore, a clearer understanding of the research questions is obtained.

4.2.2 Interviews

Interviews, specifically semi-structured ones, were used to support in-depth understanding of the set of themes that emerged from the questionnaire. Interviews support the research design for this study in two ways.

1) Interviews provide researchers with the opportunity to collect data on individuals' perspectives and experiences, and allow for follow-up/probing questions. With semi-structured interviews, "the interviewer is expected to adapt, modify and add to the prepared questions if the flow of the interview talk suggests it" (Cousin, 2009, p. 72).
2) Because reflective self-study is time-consuming (Attard, 2017), interviews require less planning and time commitment by faculty members than other interpretive methods such as diary writing.

Interviews also give researchers a greater degree of control over the data collection process, and offer some flexibility around scheduling.

4.2.3 Limitations

This section discusses both the methodological limitations and the limitations from using an interpretive research approach.

4.2.3.1 Interpretive Research Limitations

Like other research approaches, interpretive research has some limitations. First, it tends to generate large volumes of data and may require significantly more time than other forms of research (for example, positivist research) both in terms of data collection and analytical efforts (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Too little data can lead to inaccurate assumptions, while too much data may not be effectively processed by the researcher (Bhattacherjee, 2012). In addition, because open-ended questions and interviews rely on processes and personal recounts by study participants, vast amounts of data are often generated. In conducting this study, efforts were made to allow sufficient time for data collection and analysis. Also, feedback on the research questionnaire and interview questions was obtained from a mentor to ensure the relevance and usefulness of the questions posed to faculty members. Taking these steps helped to ensure the collection of a manageable volume of data that was relevant to the research questions.

Another drawback of interpretive research is that study participants may not be equally unbiased or knowledgeable about the research topic, which may lead to misleading or false accounts. To mitigate against these challenges, clarifying questions were asked to participants to elicit additional insights to responses.

The positionality of the researcher also gave access to the institutional and departmental contexts within which faculty members operate; hence, allowing the researcher to better detect bias and knowledge gap, and accurately interpret the data:

> Researchers are often embedded within the social context that they are studying, and are considered part of the data collection instrument in that they must use their observational skills, their trust with the participants, and their ability to extract the correct information. Further, their personal insights, knowledge, and experiences of the social context are critical to accurately interpreting the phenomenon of interest. At the same time, researchers must be fully aware of their personal biases and preconceptions, and not let such biases interfere with their ability to present a fair and accurate portrayal of the phenomenon. (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 106)

Though positionality is an inherent part of qualitative and mixed methods research, specific steps were taken to "monitor the tension between involvement and detachment of the researcher and the researched as a means to enhance the rigor of the study and its ethics" (Berger, 2015, p. 3). One way in which the researcher addressed this concern was by "disclosing their own relevant experiences and by facilitating an exploratory thrust rather than an information prospecting one" (Cousin, 2009, p. 76). In addition, the researcher also verified their perceptions with other stakeholders, cultivated self-awareness through reading and reflection, and educated herself about common types of biases (Dozois et al. 2010). In addition, to ensure reliability in the

collection and analysis of the data, the interview transcript was sent to each interviewee for validation and accuracy.

Lastly, transferability of the study findings to other settings can sometimes be a challenge with interpretive research. This study provides rich and detailed descriptions of the research context and thoroughly describes the structure, assumptions, and processes used in collecting and analysing the data. That way, readers can independently assess whether and to what extent the reported findings are transferable to other settings.

4.2.3.2 Methodological Limitations

In addition to the limitations of the interpretive research approach, there were some methodological limitations of the study. The first methodological limitation is the variability in the size of the departments (or schools). At the time of writing, faculty members at the college belong to one of five schools, namely: (1) university studies, career programs, and academic upgrading with over 20 faculty members; (2) continuing education with less than ten faculty members; (3) student services with fewer than eight members; (4) trades and heavy industrial with over ten faculty members; and (5) quality assurance and research services also with fewer than eight members. This variation may impact the assessment of between department variability. Future studies may explore between department variability through a larger scale study with participants from several HEIs in Western Canada or Canada as a whole.

An additional methodological limitation is the disparity between the knowledge and contributions of interview participants. As discussed in the next section, interviews ranged in length between 10 and 50 minutes, which may indicate a

significant range in the knowledge of participants regarding CPD and reflection; or, perhaps differences in the level of interest of research participants. Having participants keep a diary, as a tool for reflection, could help to elucidate further information from those with limited knowledge about CPD and reflection. Diaries require greater time commitment from faculty members. Future studies that incorporate the use of diary writing would benefit from timely planning and agreement with faculty members and periodic check-ins to help increase diary entries. Additional measures such as pre-designed (open ended) questions emailed weekly to participants as a prompt/reminder could also help to increase diary entries by participants.

4.3 Approach to Data Collection

The participant pool for this study was limited to faculty members at the college. The study made use of a mixed methods research design, involving two data collection procedures, to address the main research questions. The first process involved a questionnaire consisting of thirteen closed-ended questions and seven open-ended questions, which was circulated to all faculty members (n = 119) via the college's email distribution list. Faculty members received an email with information about the study and a uniform resource locator (URL), to participate in the questionnaire online within 23 days, if they wished. Two reminder emails were also sent to all faculty members. Authentication was included (by way of a password) to restrict access to only faculty members at the college.

Following the collection of general perceptions from faculty members about CPD and reflection, individual semi-structured interviews with a smaller group

of faculty (n = 51) from various schools, for diagnostic richness, were conducted. Purposive sampling, based on the characteristics of the research participants, was used to select participants for the interviews to best provide varied perspectives and depth about the themes and research questions. The research questions, common themes shared by faculty members in response to the questionnaire, and the literature informed the questions that were asked. The questions below guided the interview:

Questions pertaining to research question 1: What are faculty perceptions about reflection?

1) What do you understand by reflection?
2) Do you have other views of reflection; aside from reflecting after an event - say, a day or two later - and going over what worked and didn't work?

Questions pertaining to research question 2: Do faculty members believe that reflection could facilitate responsibility and participation in PD activities?

1) Do you believe that reflection can help you grow as a professional? In what ways?
2) Do you believe that reflection can promote lifelong learning for faculty members? In what ways?
3) Do you believe that reflection can help faculty members take stock (that is, in identifying what works and doesn't work in one's practice and figuring out ways to improve)?
4) Are there limitations to the use of reflection as a tool to facilitate responsibility and participation in PD activities?

Questions pertaining to research question 3: To what extent do faculty members critically reflect on their PD needs?

1) Is there an ideal number of times that a faculty member should reflect on their PD needs in an academic year?
2) How often do you reflect on your PD needs in an academic year?
3) If Keyano College were to encourage reflection as a way to further ensure relevant and meaningful PD activities, what would you recommend?

Questions pertaining to research question 4: How do faculty members identify PD initiatives (whether formal or informal) that enhance their academic growth?

1) How do you identify PD initiatives (whether formal or informal) that enhance your academic growth?
2) In what way(s) can the College assist faculty members in identifying relevant and meaningful PD initiatives?
3) Do you believe that the College can do more to promote reflection? How?

There was overlap between some of the interview questions, they were not necessarily asked sequentially, and follow-up questioning (prompting) during the interviews depended on the information value of responses. Prompting served to obtain more than the bare immediate responses and resulted in more interpretable ones (Sapsford, 2007).

The interviews took place over a two-month period and ranged in length between 10 and 50 minutes. Participants were interviewed once during the two-month period and received an advance copy of the general interview topics to

prepare for the interview. Given the reflective nature of the study, sharing the interview topics in advance was important to help participants reflect upon their perceptions of reflection and how it might influence their approach to CPD. Even so, the insights of each participant "rarely unfolded in a linear fashion or chronological order, suggesting that reflecting-on-action (Schön, 1983) was in progress during the interviews as they relived and made sense of their individual journeys" (McDonald, 2011, p. 59). Another important aspect with how the interviews were conducted is the reflexive awareness of the researcher. The interviews were guided by Sapsford's (2007) caution to interviewers against handling interviews as strictly social situations and using rigid standardizations. As a remedy, Sapsford (2007) recommends:

> reflexive awareness by the interviewer of the nature of the situation and an attempt to make it as much like an informal conversation as is compatible with reasonably standardized presentation and as little as possible like a formal interrogation. One important aspect of this is building a rapport with respondents – establishing a relaxed relationship in which even sensitive and embarrassing topics can be discussed, and establishing the sort of friendly relations in which the truth is more likely than deliberate deception and the respondent will work to give as accurate and useful an answer as possible. Most important of all, it is rapport which allows the interviewer, to some limited extent, to 'see inside the respondent's head' and perhaps know when a question has not been fully understood or fully answered. (p. 128)

The above points also further elucidate the benefits of insider research, and the use of research participants from the college.

4.4 Testing and Evaluating the Questionnaire and Interview Questions

In line with Marsden and Wright's (2010) advice, both the questionnaire and interview questions were pretested and evaluated before they were administered to research participants. Evaluators consisted of research experts (within and outside the college) and faculty members (within and outside the college as well). Testing and evaluating the questionnaire and interview questions helped ensure clarity around specific wording choices, ranges/scales, and question orderings, which helped to improve the data collection process.

4.5 Approach to Data Analysis

Following completion of the questionnaire and interviews, the data was analysed to identify common patterns within the responses and to critically analyse them in order to answer the research questions. The data analysis was two pronged: summarizing the responses from the closed-ended questions and coding the open-ended responses from the questionnaire, then transcribing the interviews and completing a thematic analysis of the data.

The closed-ended questions were aimed at obtaining a general understanding of the characteristics of the faculty members that participated in the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics were used to organize, summarise, and present the data from the closed-ended questions into a meaningful form. As seen in Chapter five, Figures 5.1 to 5.6 summarize the information provided by study participants that completed the questionnaire, including their department,

gender, age, number of years working at the college, and the number of years of experience working in the HE sector.

The open-ended responses, on the other hand, were manually coded because the volume of the data was manageable; unlike the data from the semi-structured interviews, which were analysed using a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (QDAS). Both manual coding and QDAS can achieve the same results, however, the choice between the two will be dependent on the size of the project, the funds and time available, and the inclination and expertise of the researcher (Basit, 2003). Manual coding may be better for small scale research projects, whereas QDAS would be better for large scale research studies that require multiple participant interviews or extended fieldwork and extensive field note-taking (Saldaña, 2016). Computers are no more mechanical than paper, copying machines, typewriters, audio recorders, scissors, glue, and file cabinets" (John & Johnson, 2000, p. 394). That said, computers have the advantage of handling large amounts of qualitative data and reducing the amount of time needed for manual handling tasks (John & Johnson, 2000; Sapsford, 2007).

What, then, is a code and how did it help to inform the research? "A code is a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data" (Saldaña, 2013, p. 3). Coding, therefore, is "the process of organizing and sorting qualitative data" (Stuckey, 2015, p. 7) to find the most meaningful parts and to generate concepts about the data. Examples of qualitative data includes, but are not limited to, "interview transcripts, participant observation field notes,

journals, documents, drawings, artifacts, photographs, videos, internet sites, email correspondence, and literature" (Saldaña, 2013, p. 3). As part of the analysis of the open-ended responses, all the responses were read first so as to get a good grasp of the data. This was followed by the identification of words and short phrases which were used to categorize the data. By coding the data, the researcher was able to summarise and classify the core concepts reflected in the content of the replies; something Sapsford (2007) refers to as the *representational approach*. The codes that emerged from the coding process were explored further during the semi-structured interviews.

The second aspect of the data analysis was the full transcription of all the digitally recorded oral interview data and the completion of a thematic analysis of the data. Prior to the thematic analysis, all interview recordings were transcribed word-for-word by a transcription professional into written form. The rationale for this was that all information collected from participants is worthy of consideration. "It is from the patterned minutiae of daily, mundane life that we might generate significant social insight" (Saldaña, 2013, p. 16). Transcribing only parts of the interview that one might consider 'important' has the potential hazard that portions of the interview could be deleted that might contain potentially useful units of data that could pull everything together, or lead to the rethinking of a concept or assertion (Saldaña, 2013). Recordings were transcribed on a rolling basis, following the completion of each interview. Initial analysis of the data also took place at the interview stage, in the form of jottings of preliminary analytic memos, for future reference to avoid reliance on memory. The jottings served as ideas for analytic consideration as the research progressed.

Even though the interviews were transcribed, I listened to the recordings and took notes from them. I also read the interviews after their transcription, as I reflected on the research questions and the big picture, also referred to by Stuckey (2015) as the “storyline” or “meta-narrative”. Once I had a sense of the data and the storyline, I delved into the thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a qualitative data analysis method applicable in various fields including the social sciences. Its purpose is to identify patterns of meaning across a dataset that provide an answer to the research question being addressed. Patterns are identified through a rigorous process of data familiarisation, data coding, and theme development and revision (Braun and Clarke, n.d.). I adopted the six-phase non-linear process developed by Braun and Clarke (2006) for completing a thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is “an iterative and reflective process that develops over time and involves a constant moving back and forth between phases” (Nowell et al. 2017, p. 4). Table 4.2 presents the six phases for thematic analysis, as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006).

Phase	Description of the process
1. Familiarizing yourself with your data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire dataset, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire dataset (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, writing up the data analysis.

Table 4.2 Phases of thematic analysis

In all, the analysis of qualitative data including coding and theme development is more of an art than a science. “It is a matter of interpreting what is there, systematically but not very rigorously, and a great deal of personal judgement and preference is brought to bear on it” (Sapsford, 2007, p. 134). Therefore, of utmost importance throughout the research process was ensuring reliability and validity, by (1) accounting for personal biases; (2) continuous critical reflection of methods to ensure alignment with the overall research; (3) having detailed record keeping; (4) ensuring respondent validation; and (5) including verbatim descriptions of participants’ accounts to support findings (Noble & Smith, 2015).

4.6 The Research Participants

The study consisted of two participant pools. The first group of participants comprised of all faculty members at the college, all of whom were invited via an email to complete the research questionnaire. As at the time of writing, faculty members at the college belong to one of five schools, namely: (1) university studies, career programs, and academic upgrading; (2) continuing education; (3) student services; (4) trades and heavy industrial; and (5) quality assurance and research services.

The second group of participants were selected using purposive sampling. Purposive sampling helped to provide as many diverse insights as possible into the research questions and the core concepts that emerged from the open-ended questionnaire replies. The following attributes informed the selection of participants invited to take part in the semi-structured interviews: (1) school/department; (2) gender; (3) age group; (4) years of work experience at

the college; (5) years of experience in the HE sector, and (6) the level of CPD usage. Table 4.3 provides a breakdown of the interviewee profile.

Interviewee Number	School/Department	Gender	Age Group	Years of Work Experience at the College	Years of Experience in the HE Sector	*Level of CPD Usage
1	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	4 – 6	Non-active
2	Student Services	Female	45 to 54	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
3	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Active
4	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	4 – 6	Non-active
5	Student Services	Female	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
6	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
7	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Active
8	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	Over 7	Non-active
9	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	25 to 34	Over 7	Over 7	Active
10	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	4 – 6	Non-active
11	Quality Assurance and Research Services	Male	45 to 54	Over 7	Over 7	Active
12	Student Services	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Active
13	Quality Assurance and Research Services	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Active
14	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	1 – 3	Over 7	Active
15	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
16	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	1 – 3	4 – 6	Non-active

17	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Active
18	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
19	Quality Assurance and Research Services	Female	45 to 54	Over 7	Over 7	Active
20	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
21	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Active
22	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	1 – 3	4 – 6	Active
23	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
24	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
25	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	45 to 54	1 – 3	Over 7	Non-active
26	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
27	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
28	Continuing Education	Male	45 to 54	1 – 3	Over 7	Active
29	Student Services	Female	35 to 44	1 – 3	Over 7	Active
30	Continuing Education	Female	45 to 54	Over 7	Over 7	Active
31	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Female	35 to 44	4 – 6	4 – 6	Non-active
32	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Active
33	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	45 to 54	4 – 6	Over 7	Active

34	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
35	Continuing Education	Male	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Active
36	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	45 to 54	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
37	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	Over 7	Over 7	Active
38	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	24 or younger	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
39	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
40	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	45 to 54	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
41	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	1 – 3	Over 7	Active
42	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	35 to 44	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
43	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
44	Student Services	Female	35 to 44	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
45	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	4 – 6	Active
46	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
47	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	35 to 44	4 – 6	4 – 6	Active
48	Continuing Education	Female	45 to 54	1 – 3	4 – 6	Active
49	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
50	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	35 to 44	4 – 6	4 – 6	Active

51	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active

*Two categorisations are used for level of CPD usage: active and non-active. Non-active CPD users are faculty members that have either not accessed CPD funds at the college or have used them minimally (less than once a year) in the last five academic years (2013 – present). Active CPD users, on the other hand, are faculty members that have accessed CPD funds more than once in the past five academic years.

Table 4.3 Interviewee profiles

The interviewee profile was also used to identify the trajectories of faculty members to the HE field. The next chapter presents this data in table form (see Table 5.1) to aid the reader in navigating the individual accounts of each participant, as they are interwoven into a narrative of the subsequent chapters.

4.7 Ethical Considerations

Our actions as researchers have ethical implications. This section discusses the importance of strong ethical norms in research and key ethical considerations that arose as part of this study.

There are several reasons why it is important for researchers to have a strong ethical framework. Cousin (2009) offers two explanations:

1) Adhering to ethical standards protects both the researcher and research participants. It encourages collaboration, cooperation, and overall awareness among both parties especially as it relates to the “language, messages, intentions, integrity, assumptions, and effect on others that our research activity and presentation constructs” (2009, p. 17).
2) A strong ethical framework promotes thoughtful conduct of the research by the researcher and builds trust in the research process; including the “eventual credibility of the research report” (2009, p. 17) in the eyes of both the public and the research community.

Resnik (2015) offers additional reasons why it is important to adhere to ethical standards in research.

3) Ethical norms “promote the aims of research, including truth, knowledge, and avoidance of error” (Resnik, 2015, para. 7).
4) Having strong ethical standards also helps to protect vulnerable populations, including children, patients, the elderly and animals, and the public as a whole.
5) It also promotes “a variety of other important moral and social values, such as social responsibility, human rights, animal welfare, compliance with the law, and public health and safety” (Resnik, 2015, para. 11).

As discussed above, the actions of researchers have implications; hence, the need for strong ethical norms. Early considerations of the ethical framework and the positionality of the researcher in the research contributed to the selection of the research methods used in this study. Below are the steps taken to ensure ethical compliance by the researcher. These steps also aim to explicitly convey the ethics and value position of the researcher, and further expand on their positionality, and set the standards for assessing the content of this research.

1) Ethics clearance and approval: ethics approval was obtained from the ethics committee of the college and Lancaster University before the commencement of data collection. Both committees work with researchers to ensure that studies are being conducted in a way that respects and protects the rights of study participants, the researcher, and the institution.

2) Respect for research participants: this entails clear communication to participants about the nature of the study, its purpose, their role within it, their rights, and privacy. A description of the study was provided to all participants, along with a written statement regarding voluntary participation in the study. They were also provided with an informed consent form at the beginning of the research and only participants who gave consent were included in the study. It is important to note that informed consent was ongoing, in that interviewees were made aware that they could withdraw from the study at any time, and were given the interview transcript for review before analysis. Another important aspect of respect is anonymity. Steps were taken throughout the data collection process and in the presentation of findings to ensure complete anonymity. For example, the age group classification used for the study was intentionally set to avoid having very few participants in any class. Also, no identifying information was used in the discussion of findings. Only anonymized quotes were used in instances where the views and ideas shared by participants were reproduced.
3) Trustworthiness: according to Cousin (2009), “one of the important moves for generating trustworthy accounts is to embed degrees of researcher reflexivity into the research” (p. 18). In the context of this research, this entailed continuously reflecting on how the researcher might be inadvertently biasing or influencing the outcome of the research.

4) Confidentiality: the confidentiality of the data collected was maintained throughout the research. This included storing of the data in a safe, password protected location.
5) Third party access: one transcriber provided transcription services for this study. Prior to granting access to the audio files, a confidentiality agreement was signed with the transcriber.

The above points show that ethics consists of both formal, written approvals and ongoing considerations by the researcher throughout the study. Overall awareness of potential ethical issues and how they might impact the research was of paramount importance throughout the study.

Chapter 5 Demographic Profile of Participants and Initial Themes

This chapter serves two purposes. First, it discusses the demographic traits of the research participants, to help contextualize the responses and give meaning to the discussions in subsequent chapters of this document. Second, this chapter examines the initial codes that were generated from the research questionnaire. These were explored further during the semi-structured interviews with participants.

5.1 Demographic Profile

Of the 119 faculty members that were invited to take part in the questionnaire, 41 responded; which is a response rate of 34.5%. As mentioned earlier, the research questionnaire included several demographic questions. In addition to contextualizing responses, demographic information allows for more in-depth analysis by segmenting the responses of research participants by characteristics.

5.1.1 Questionnaire Participants

Below is a breakdown of the profile of faculty members that took part in the questionnaire. The School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading had the most representation, while the School of Continuing Education was under-represented. This could be because they only recently became a part of the faculty association at the college (approximately a year and a half from the time of writing). As such, their knowledge and use of CPD funds at the college is limited compared to other departments.

The profile information of the questionnaire participants is grouped by department, years working at the college, years working in a HEI, gender, age, and level of engagement in CPD.

School

As shown in Figure 5.1, the majority of respondents are from the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading. This is not surprising since approximately 50% of faculty members at the college belong to it. The School of Quality Assurance and Research Services, and Student Services are smaller in size compared to other departments at the college. The participation rate for both schools was 90%.

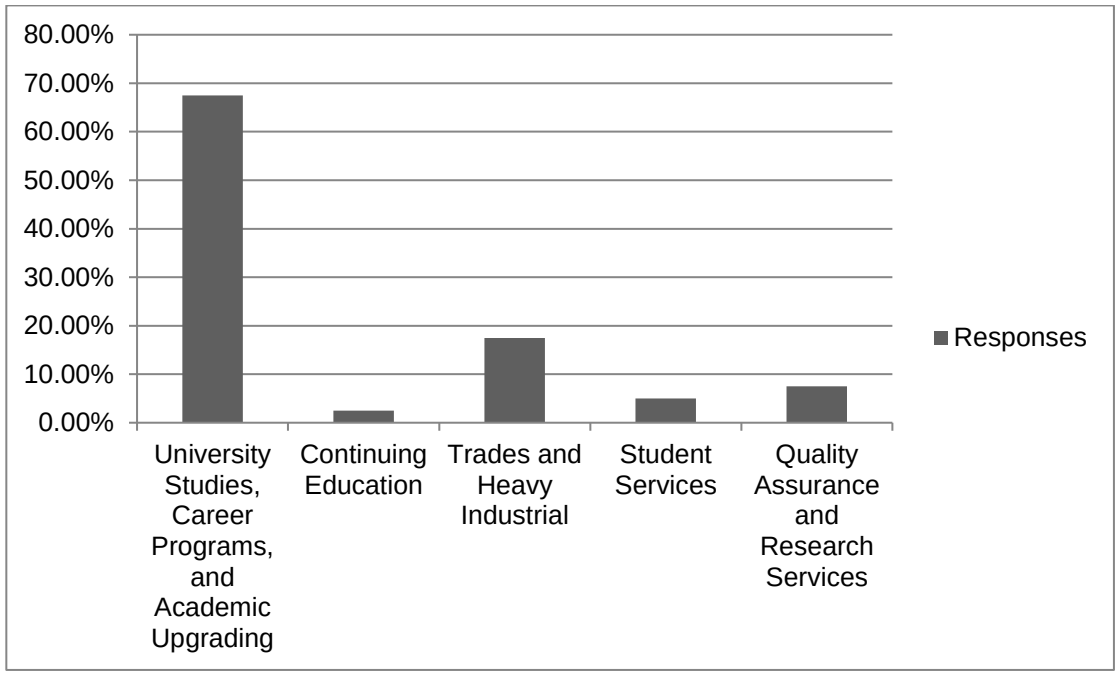

Figure 5.1 Breakdown of questionnaire participants by department

Years of Experience Working at the College

The majority of respondents have worked at the college for more than seven years. Only five percent of respondents have been at the school for less than a year. This is significant to the study because the college has had a lot of

employee turnover in the last five years, most especially in management. The long years of experience of faculty members at the college help offer rich insights into CPD there, and the use of reflection as a tool to facilitate responsibility and participation in CPD.

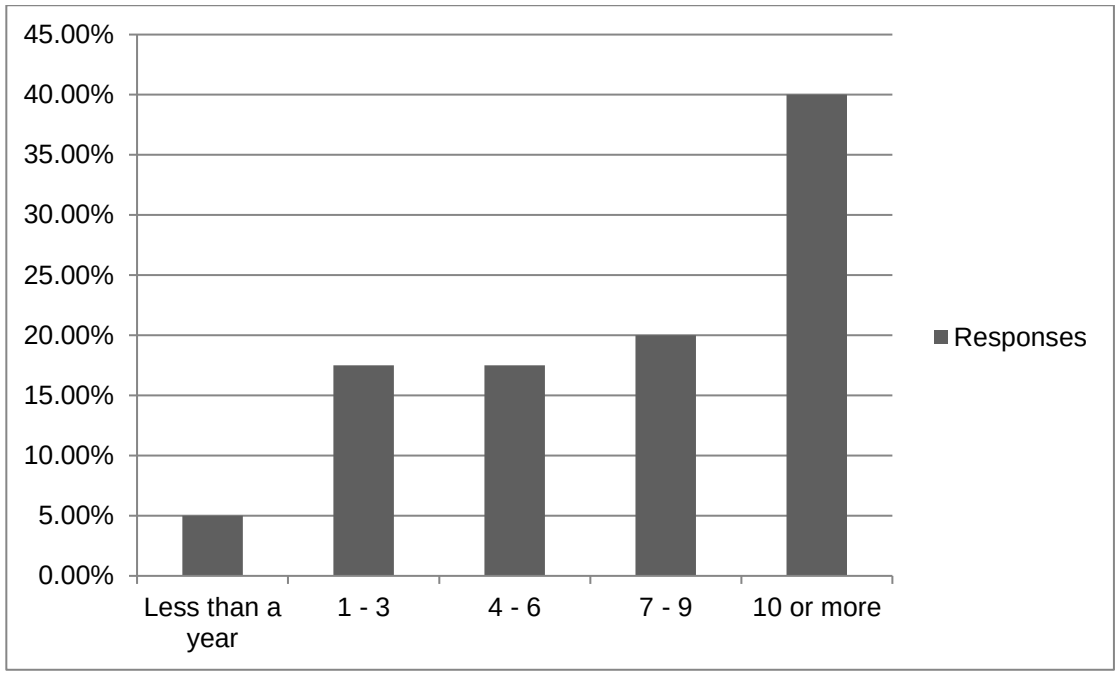

Figure 5.2 Years of experience of questionnaire participants working at the college

Years of Experience in HEIs

One of the questions in the questionnaire was aimed at ascertaining the number of years of working experience as a faculty member in HEIs. Years of experience often influence faculty member participation in CPD (Murray & Male, 2005; Smith, 2005). A faculty member may be new to the college (for example, less than three years), but may have had over ten years of experience at a different institution.

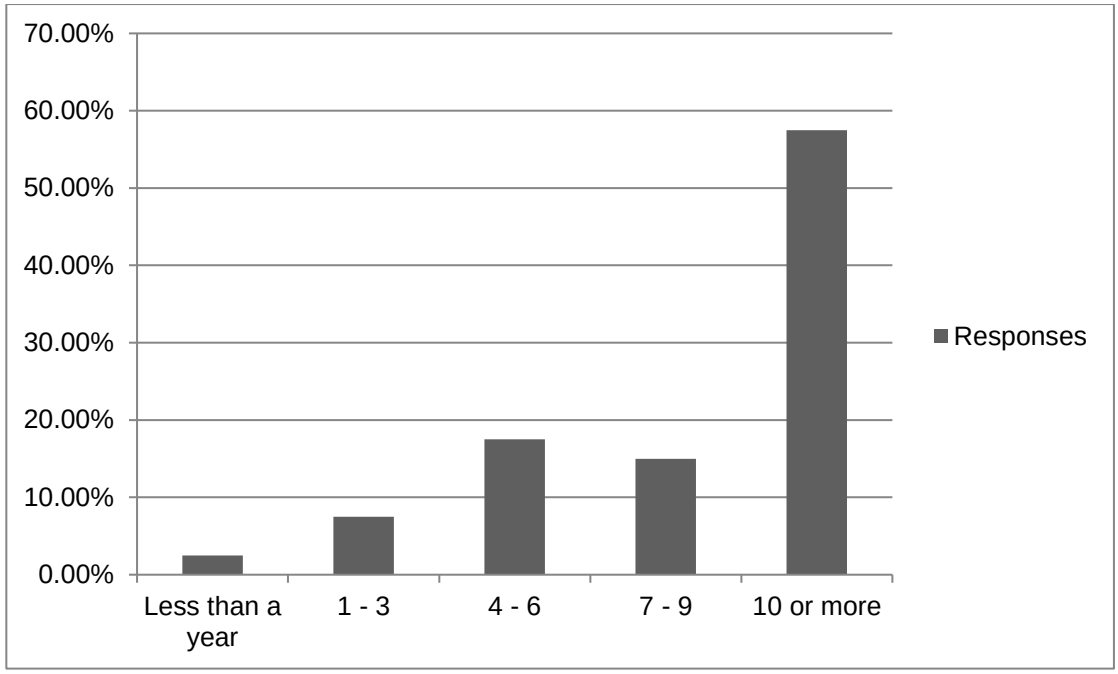

Figure 5.3 Years of experience of questionnaire participants in HEIs

Gender

As shown in Figure 5.4, 60% of respondents were female while 40% were male. This is different from the current percentage distribution of female to male full time faculty members at the college, which is 45.5% and 54.5% respectively.

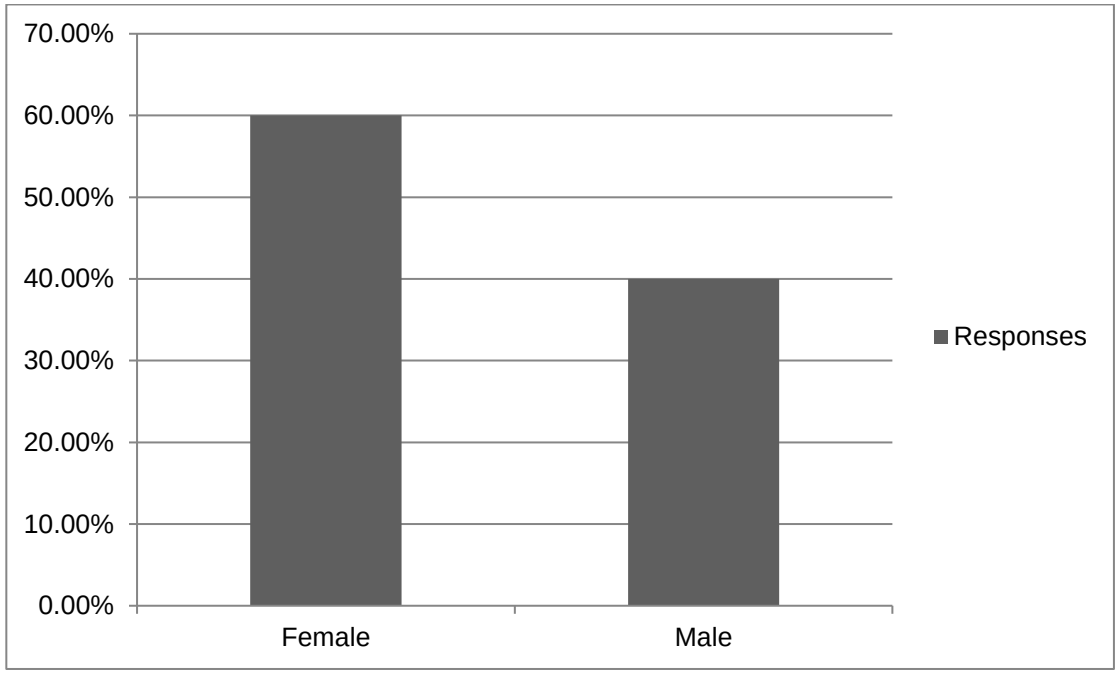

Figure 1.4 Gender distribution of respondents

Age

More than half of the respondents are between the age of 35 and 54 (62.5%). The age group with the highest percentage of respondents was that from 35 to 44 years (32.5%). Together with the years of experience working at the college and in the HE sector, respondents have rich experiences that will help shed some light on CPD and reflection.

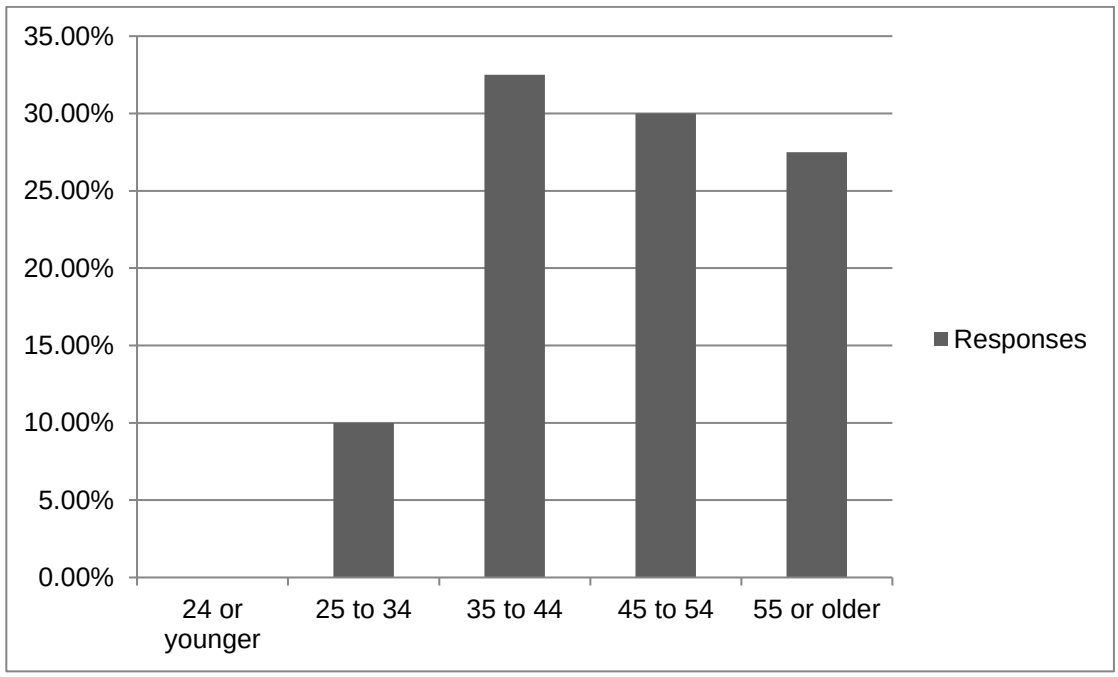

Figure 5.5 Age distribution of questionnaire respondents

CPD Usage

The research makes a distinction between active and non-active CPD users (see Table 5.2). As shown in Figure 5.6, 65% of respondents consider themselves to be active, 32.5% consider themselves non-active, while one person selected ‘other’. The additional comments provided by the respondent indicate that they are active in professional development. However, they have not been able to access CPD funds at the college due to the temporary and contractual nature of their contract.

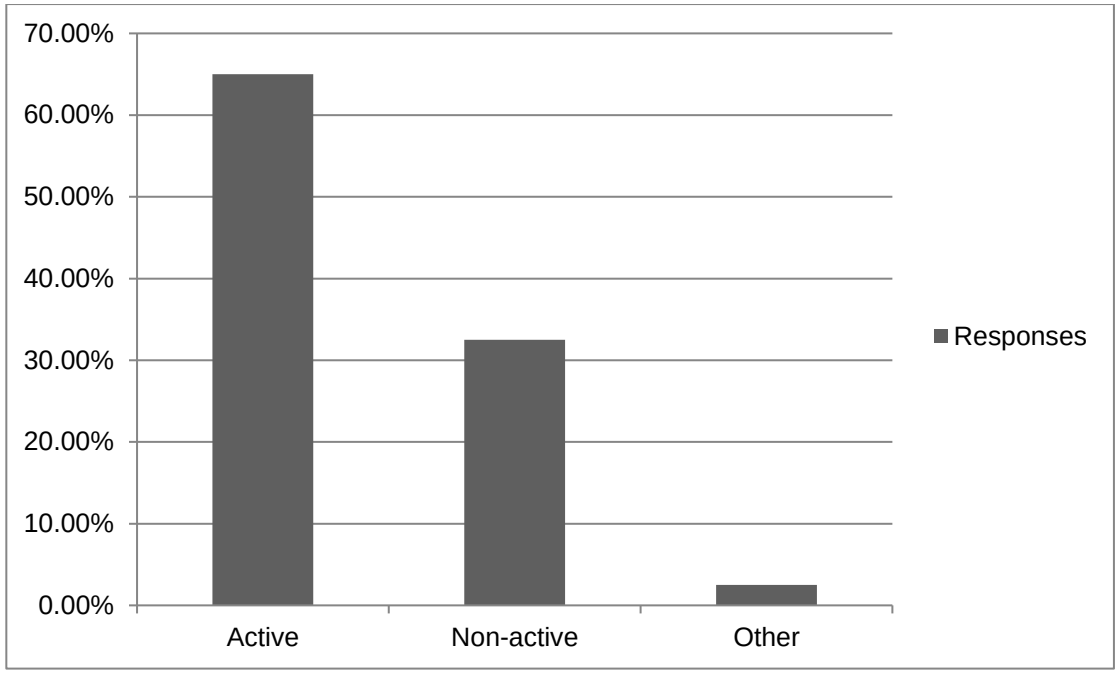

Figure 5.6 Active vs. non-active CPD users

5.1.2 Interview Participants

The interviewee profiles (Table 4.3) were used to identify six trajectories into the HE field. Table 5.1 provides definitions for each one.

Trajectories	**Definition**
Active newbies	Faculty members that are active CPD users but are new to the HE sector. “New” refers to 1 – 3 years
Non-active newbies	Faculty members that are non-active CPD users but are new to the HE sector. “New” refers to 1 – 3 years
Active mid-career professionals	Faculty members that are active CPD users and have been part of the HE sector for 4 – 6 years
Non-active mid-career professionals	Faculty members that are non-active CPD users and have been part of the HE sector for 4 – 6 years
Active veterans	Faculty members that are active CPD users and have been part of the HE sector for over 7 years
Non-active veterans	Faculty members that are non-active CPD users and have been part of the HE sector for over 7 years

Table 5.1 Trajectories into the HE field

The trajectories helped ensure varied perspectives on the research questions. Table 5.2 provides a detailed breakdown of interviewees based on their characteristics and trajectory. This helps to situate the response of each interviewee within the overall context of the research.

Interviewee Number	School/Department	Gender	Age Group	Years of Work Experience at the College	Years of Experience in the HE Sector	Level of CPD Usage
Trajectory into the HE Field: Active Newbies						
2	Student Services	Female	45 to 54	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
5	Student Services	Female	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
6	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
38	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	24 or younger	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
43	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
51	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Active
Trajectory into the HE Field: Non-active Newbies						
36	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	45 to 54	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
42	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	35 to 44	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
44	Student Services	Female	35 to 44	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
46	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	25 to 34	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
49	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	1 – 3	1 – 3	Non-active
Trajectory into the HE Field: Active Mid-career Professionals						
22	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	1 – 3	4 – 6	Active

45	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	4 – 6	Active
47	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	35 to 44	4 – 6	4 – 6	Active
48	Continuing Education	Female	45 to 54	1 – 3	4 – 6	Active
50	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	35 to 44	4 – 6	4 – 6	Active
Trajectory into the HE Field: Non-active Mid-career Professionals						
1	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	4 – 6	Non-active
4	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	4 – 6	Non-active
10	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	4 – 6	Non-active
16	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	1 – 3	4 – 6	Non-active
31	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Female	35 to 44	4 – 6	4 – 6	Non-active
Trajectory into the HE Field: Active Veterans						
3	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Active
7	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Active
9	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	25 to 34	Over 7	Over 7	Active
11	Quality Assurance and Research Services	Male	45 to 54	Over 7	Over 7	Active
12	Student Services	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Active
13	Quality Assurance and Research Services	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Active
14	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	1 – 3	Over 7	Active
17	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Active

19	Quality Assurance and Research Services	Female	45 to 54	Over 7	Over 7	Active
21	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Active
23	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
26	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
27	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
28	Continuing Education	Male	45 to 54	1 – 3	Over 7	Active
29	Student Services	Female	35 to 44	1 – 3	Over 7	Active
30	Continuing Education	Female	45 to 54	Over 7	Over 7	Active
32	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Active
33	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	45 to 54	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
35	Continuing Education	Male	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Active
37	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	Over 7	Over 7	Active
40	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	45 to 54	4 – 6	Over 7	Active
41	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	45 to 54	1 – 3	Over 7	Active

Trajectory into the HE Field: Non-active Veterans

8	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Male	55 or older	4 – 6	Over 7	Non-active
15	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active

18	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
20	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
24	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
25	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	45 to 54	1 – 3	Over 7	Non-active
34	Trades and Heavy Industrial	Male	55 or older	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active
39	University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	Female	35 to 44	Over 7	Over 7	Non-active

Table 5.2 Detailed breakdown of interviewees based on trajectories

Below is further analysis of the profile of faculty members that took part in the interviews. The information is grouped by department, years working in a HEI, gender, age, and level of engagement in CPD.

School

The majority of faculty members that took part in the interview is from the School of University Studies, Career Program, and Academic Upgrading.

School/Department	Number of Interview Participants
University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading	31
Trades and Heavy Industrial	9
Student Services	4
Continuing Education	4
Quality Assurance and Research Services	3

Table 5.3 Breakdown of interview participants by department

As mentioned earlier, the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading is the largest at the college, with approximately 50% of faculty members at the college belonging to it. Hence, the higher number of interview participants from that school.

Years of Experience in HEIs

The majority of interviewees (30 in total) have over seven years of experience working in HEIs. This is followed by interviewees with one to three years of experience (11 in total), and lastly interviewees with four to six years of experience (10 in total) working in HEIs. The range of experience offers an array of perspectives to the research questions.

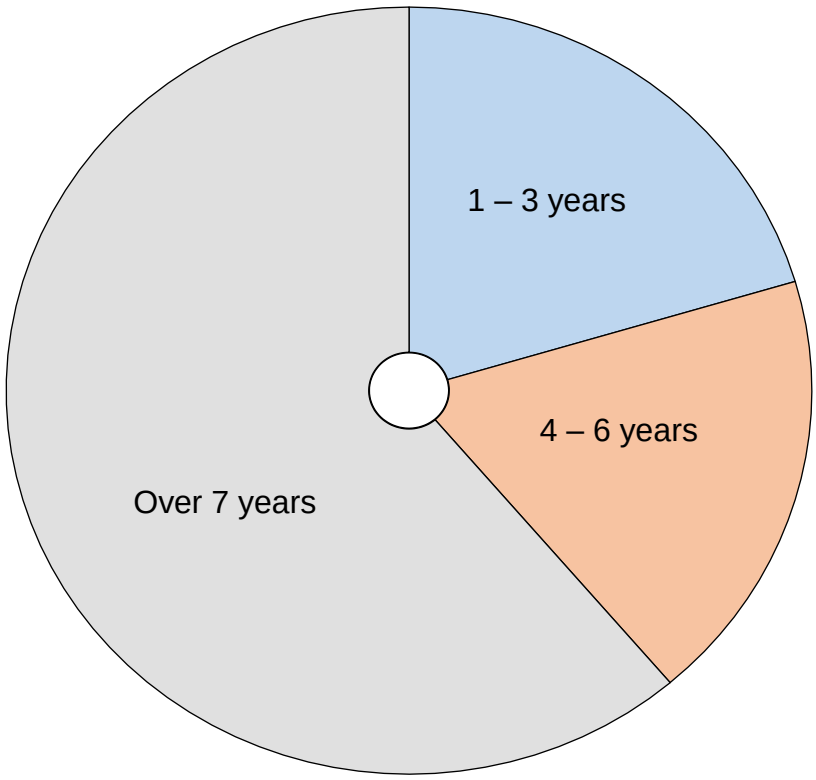

Figure 5.7 Years of experience of interview participants in HEIs

Gender

A total of 27 females (53% of interviewees) took part in the interviews, while 24 males (47% of interviewees) took part in the interviews. At the time of writing, the college had more male than female faculty members (45.5% and 54.5%, respectively).

Age

A total of 16 faculty members age 55 or older took part in the interviews. This age group had the highest number of participants. This is followed by individuals ages 45 to 54 (15 participants), and ages 35 to 44 (13 participants). There were a total of six participants between the ages of 25 to 34. The age group 24 or younger had only one interview participant.

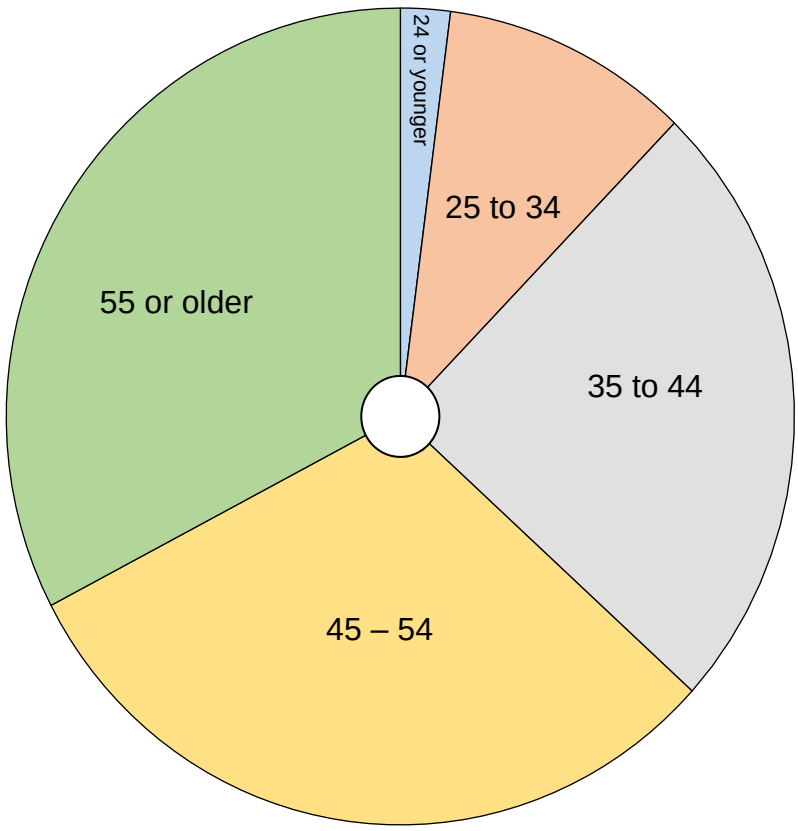

Figure 5.8 Age distribution of interview participants

CPD Usage

Two categorisations are used for level of CPD usage, active and non-active. Non-active CPD users are faculty members that have either not accessed CPD funds at the college or have used them minimally (less than once a year) in the last five academic years (2013 – present). Active CPD users, on the other hand, are faculty members that have accessed CPD funds more than once in the past five academic years. Of the 51 interview participants, 32 are active CPD users, while 19 are non-active. Below is a further breakdown of the interview participants based on their CPD usage. This helps to offer additional context regarding the data and the range of responses collected from the interview participants.

CPD Usage by Department

An attempt was made to ensure participation of both active and non-active faculty members from the various departments. Of the five schools at the college, two did not have non-active CPD users take part in the interviews – School of Quality Assurance and Research Services and the School of Continuing Education. Both schools are considerably smaller than the others, with less than 10 faculty members per school.

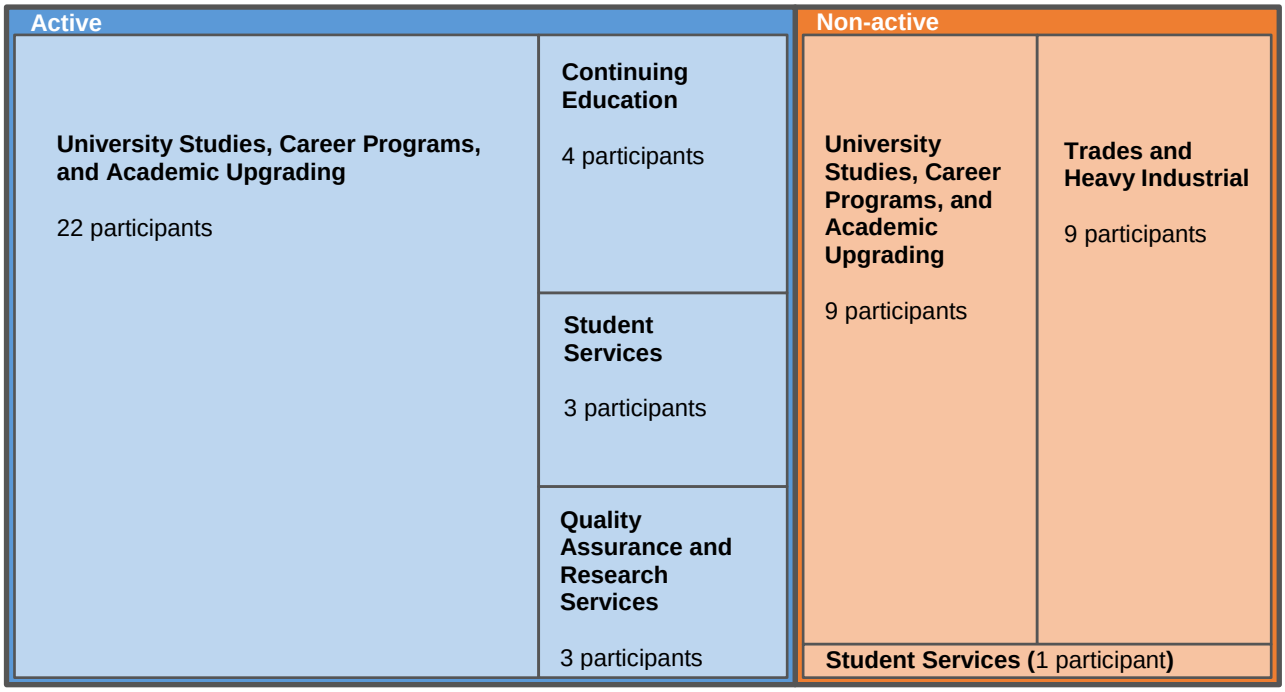

Figure 5.9 CPD usage of interview participants by department

Also, the School of Trades and Heavy Industrial had no active CPD users take part in the interview, and has significantly lower participation of faculty members in CPD due to their teaching schedule and workload. This is discussed further in later chapters.

CPD Usage by Years of Experience in HEIs

The largest group of faculty members that took part in the interview (21 in total) are active CPD users with over seven years of experience in HEIs. Nine non-active CPD users with over seven years of experience in HEIs also took part in the interviews. In addition, the same number of active and non-active CPD users (five in total) with four to six years of experience in HEIs took part in the interviews. Lastly, 11 participants with one to three years of experience in HEIs took part in the interviews. Of that number, six are active and five are non-active CPD users.

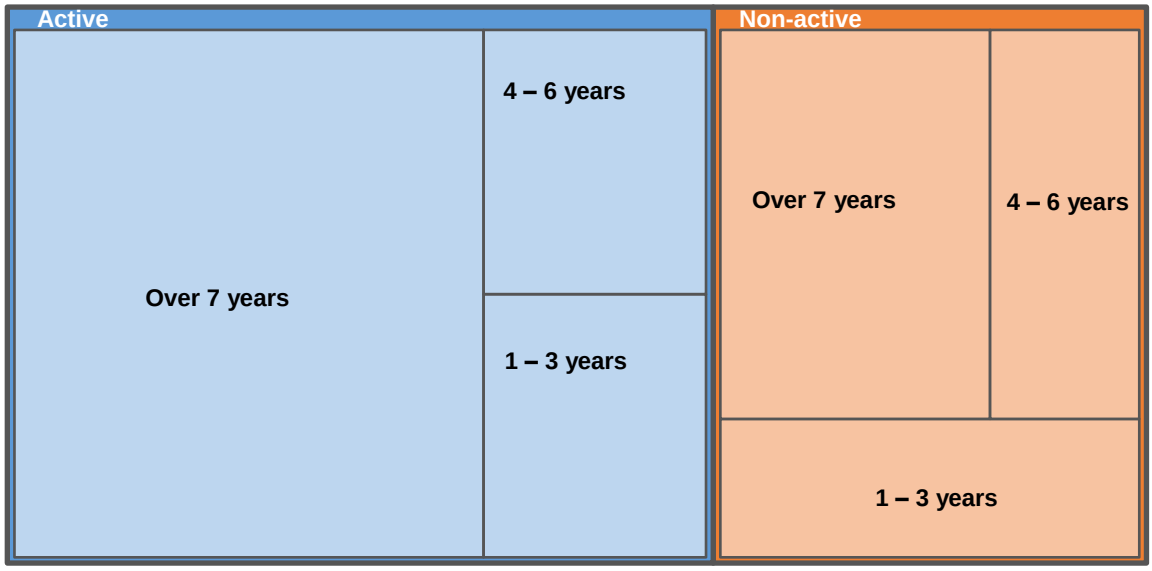

Figure 5.10 CPD usage by years of experience in HEIs

CPD Usage by Gender

As mentioned earlier, 24 males and 27 females took part in the interviews. Of the total number of males that took part in the interviews, 14 are active and 10 are non-active CPD users. For the females, 18 are active and nine are non-active CPD users.

CPD Usage by Age

The majority of interview participants that are active CPD users are between the ages of 45 and 54. On the other hand, almost half of the non-active CPD users that took part in the interview are 55 or older. The majority of interviewees in this category (six in total) are from the School of Trades and Heavy Industrial.

Age Distribution	Active CPD Users	Non-active CPD Users
55 or older	7	9
45 to 54	13	2
35 to 44	6	7
25 to 34	5	1
24 or younger	1	0

Table 5.4 CPD usage by age

Following the analysis of the data, the findings were applicable across the different schools and to both active and non-active CPD users, except for the aforementioned CPD usage by the School of Trades and Heavy Industrial.

Furthermore, all participants, regardless of their age, gender, and years of experience in HEIs, face similar challenges and opportunities as they relate to the use of reflection as a tool to facilitate ownership and involvement of faculty members in CPD. As such, discussions and recommendations provided as part of this study could be extended to all faculty members at the college.

5.2 Initial Findings from the Questionnaire

This section details how the data from the questionnaire was analysed to identify the initial codes that formed the basis for the interviews. Initial codes were identified in two ways. First, was with reference to the underpinning theoretical basis of reflective practice; and second was through the processes of systematic analysis and collating of the data. The design of each open-ended question was intentional, with the goal to shed light on the four research questions.

5.2.1 Research Question 1: What are faculty members' perceptions about reflection?

Coding of the first research question was done to gain some understanding of faculty members' perceptions about reflection. The codes were then collated into themes, based on the common views of reflection, previously discussed in Chapter three. Table 5.5 presents a summary of the themes with the number of coded responses that fall under each category.

Kinds of Reflection	Meanings	Number of Responses
Reflection-on-practice	• Looking back after an event • Focusing on something significant	34
Reflection-in-action	• Thinking on your feet • Improvisation	3
Reflection-for-action	• For a reason or particular purpose • Planning for action	9
Reflection-with-action	• Taking action • Working alone or with others	2

Table 5.5 Common views of reflection. Modified from *Teaching and Learning Through Reflective Practice* (p. 6), by Ghaye (2010)

Some responses included multiple views of reflection, which are captured in the number of responses in Table 5.5. The number of responses affirm Ghaye's (2010) point that "when people talk about reflection and its practices they have in their minds reflection-on-practice" (p. 6). Other views of reflection, particularly reflection-in-action, often occur automatically, habitually and intuitively. As such, we may not be conscious that we are doing it and fail to account for it as reflection. This is why, as part of the interviews, additional open-ended questions were asked to participants to help them think through additional ways in which they may be reflecting as teachers.

5.2.2 Research Question 2: Do faculty members believe that reflection could facilitate responsibility and participation in PDAs?

This was a two-part question. The first gave respondents the option to choose either 'yes', 'no' or 'other', to identify the number of faculty members that believe that reflection could facilitate responsibility and participation in PDA. The second question was designed to derive more information regarding the answer selection of respondents.

Almost all the respondents selected ‘yes’ (36 out of 41), while three skipped the question. Two respondents selected ‘other’. The open-ended responses were synthesized, and initial codes were generated by identifying as many potential codes as possible and collating together data identified by the same code. The word cloud below (Figure 5.11) shows the resulting codes, which were further explored during the interviews.

Figure 5.11 Initial codes generated for research question 2

5.2.3 Research Question 3: To what extent do faculty members reflect on their professional development needs?

This research question makes the important distinction between reflection and critical reflection. As discussed in Chapter three, critical reflection involves both thinking and problem solving in an attempt to make sense of a challenging situation and to modify and enhance understanding of one’s professional

practice. The third research question was also a two-part question. The first asked respondents whether they critically reflect on their PD needs. 78.95% of respondents selected ‘yes’, 7.89% selected ‘no’, while 13.16% selected ‘other’. Three people skipped the question. The follow-up to this question asked how often faculty members critically reflected on their PD needs. Figure 5.12 shows a breakdown of the responses.

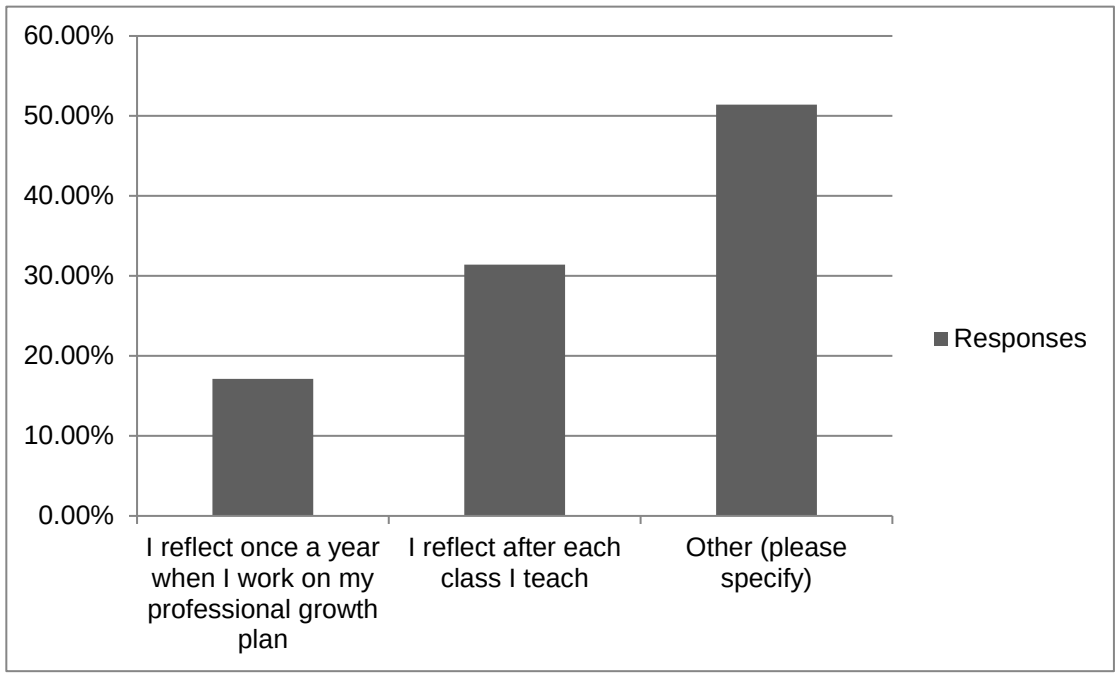

Figure 5.12 How often faculty members reflect on their professional development needs

An immediate observation is that even though over 85% of respondents believe that reflection is a tool that can help faculty responsibility and participation in CPD, only 17% and 32% reflect once a year or after each class that they teach, respectively. About half of the respondents (51%) selected ‘other’, while six skipped the question. The comments by those that selected ‘other’ centered primarily around not having set timelines or process for reflection. The additional information provided by those that selected ‘other’ helped to set the

stage for follow-up questions during the interviews. The responses were also synthesized and initial codes were generated (see Figure 5.13) by identifying as many potential codes as possible and collating together data identified by the same code.

Figure 5.13 Initial codes generated for research question 3

Over 80% of respondents had no set plan for reflecting on their PD needs. They were often triggered by events and reporting requirements, such as the Annual Professional Growth Plan (APGP), at the end of a semester or after teaching a set of topics. This was investigated further during the interviews.

5.2.4 Research Question 4: How do faculty members identify professional development initiatives that enhance their professional growth?

Similar to the research questions discussed above, initial codes were generated by identifying as many potential codes as possible and collating data identified by the same code. The word cloud below (Figure 5.14) shows the resulting codes, which were further explored during the interviews.

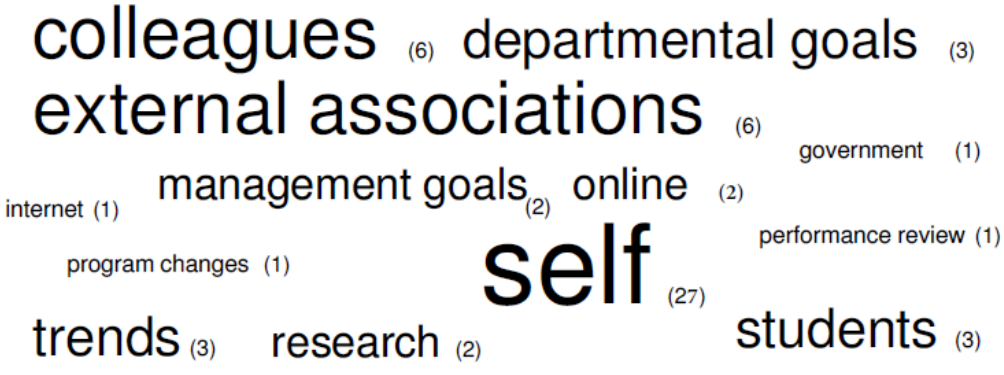

Figure 5.14 Initial codes generated for research question 4

The next chapter builds on the findings from the research questionnaire. It sets out to answer the research questions by providing in depth analysis of the semi-structured interviews with participants.

Chapter 6 Discussion of Findings: Understanding Faculty Members' Perceptions about Reflection

This is the first of four chapters that set out to answer the research questions posed in this study. The focus of this chapter is on the first research question: What are faculty members' perceptions about reflection? Faculty members' views of reflection are presented, followed by activities and experiences that serve as triggers for reflection, and understanding the interconnectedness between self and others in reflection and CPD.

6.1 Views of Reflection

As discussed in the previous chapter, the questionnaire revealed that the dominant view that faculty members have about reflection is reflection-on-practice (see Table 5.5). Further exploration of faculty members' perceptions of reflection based on the interviews reveal similar trends as those seen in Table 5.5. The aggregate number of interview responses shows that interview participants made more reference to reflection-on-practice than any other kind of reflection, regardless of their trajectory into HE. In most cases, interviewees described reflection as looking back after an event – a class, the semester, or the academic year – to identify what worked, and areas for improvement. Interview participants also made reference to the notion of time, with the majority noting that they think back at their experiences in the classroom daily and weekly. Additional probing questions led some interview participants to reveal other ways that they may be reflecting as faculty members, particularly reflection-for-action and reflection-in-action. Fewer than four faculty members alluded to reflection-with-action.

Two main themes can be observed in the following participants' definitions. Reflection is about seeking improvement in one's practice, and reflection can happen at different times. First, reflection happens as an ongoing process:

- It is "an ongoing process of thinking about what happens in the classroom and with one's preparation and research, and constantly aiming to improve it by being aware of what one has done, and seeing what works and what doesn't" (interviewee 20, non-active veteran).
- It is about "when you think about what you're doing and why you're doing it, and how things can possibly be done a different way to improve service delivery" (interviewee 32, active veteran).

Other interviewees view reflection as a tool to learn from one's past experiences and grow from them. Reflection involves looking back on an activity:

- "looking back at your previous goals, and reviewing your strengths and areas for improvement" (interviewee 16, non-active mid-career professional).
- "a time of evaluating those things that you're involved with, and seeing if there's anything in amongst those things that you could improve upon, or adjust or make better" (interviewee 7, active veteran).
- "being able to look at kind of your experiences in the past and being able to grow on it, and understanding kind of maybe where you lack and where you can improve. Just kind of focusing on a situation that you've been involved with, and seeing where you can grow from it" (interviewee 46, non-active newbie).

- “kind of sitting back after something is done, and okay, how did this go? What went good, what went not so good? What could we do better? Is there different tools or services that we could utilize?... So, it’s just kind of taking a holistic view, and kind of considering everything that’s happened or all the moving parts” (interviewee 6, active newbie).

The questions that interviewee 6, an active newbie from the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading, poses can aid faculty members in reflecting, with the goal of ensuring that they are examining the various aspects of their practice as they explore ways to make improvements.

Thus, regardless of when reflection takes place, the common thread in the comments above is about ensuring continuous growth and improvement in one’s practice and experiences to prevent faculty members from falling into the trap of complacency.

Despite the variation in the comments of interviewees, all the responses reveal two things. First, faculty members place greater emphasis on thinking and planning for action, and less emphasis on action itself. Taking action (reflection-with-action) is perhaps the most important form of reflection. Without conscious and systematic action by faculty members, either alone or with a group, there is a risk of engaging in reflective processes that do not lead to learning. Second, a common purpose for engaging in reflection is to improve upon one’s practice. This is consistent with one of the six key ideas that Ghaye (2010) presents in the second edition of his book *Teaching and Learning Through Reflective Practice: A Practical Guide for Positive Action*. Ghaye (2010) discusses how

reflective practices can help us understand the linkages between one's practice and ways for us to improve our effectiveness. As an example from the context of teaching, reflective practices can help us understand the importance of classroom engagement, and provide us with ideas and options for improving student engagement. "Through reflection, we can develop new insights and understandings that help us to improve our actions" (Ghaye, 2010, p. 1).

Often times, reflection-on-practice simply does not occur by itself. Different things trigger faculty members to reflect on their practice. Through the daily experiences and routines by faculty members, there are cues that draw attention to particular events. Such specific events elicit a state of discrepancy (Pammer, Knipfer, Krogstie, Wessel, Prilla, & Lindstaedt, 2011), for example, a mismatch between a faculty member's lesson plan and student performance on a test, experiencing a knowledge or skill gap, or a positive change in departmental processes. "From a psychological viewpoint, we can thus understand discrepancy between reality and expectation as the trigger for reflection. This discrepancy leads to inner discomfort" (Pammer et al., 2011, p. 48). For example, the study by Suryani and Widyastuti (2015) found three main sources of reflection and learning for teachers. Namely, their teaching experiences, sharing ideas in professional communities, and researching. The teaching experiences of teachers are filled with opportunities for reflection and learning from practice. As Suryani and Widyastuti (2015) explain, teachers do not have to rely on theory alone, but can explore their learning environment for examples and situations that led to inner discomfort. These serve as opportunities for learning and development, and may range from curriculum improvement, classroom management, to assessment techniques. Sharing

ideas in professional communities not only benefits the group but also the individual teacher and the school as a whole, as it allows for ideas to be challenged and new initiatives to flourish. Lastly, research can help teachers identify gaps in their knowledge by gathering data on their practice and comparing it to other sources of information such as published research, journals, and the experiences of other teachers. According to Suryani and Widyastuti (2015), in order for teachers to be able to research their teaching practice, they must be aware of their needs and classroom setting, and have the necessary skills to synthesise and evaluate the data collected.

The next section focuses specifically on the activities and experiences presented by interviewees that serve as triggers for reflection, learning and development. They include, the APGP, student evaluations, and interactions with colleagues.

6.2 Triggers for Reflection

6.2.1 The APGP

The APGP is a document completed by faculty members and reviewed annually by their respective supervisors. The APGP is mandated by management, with the aim of having faculty members identify goals for the academic year. The goals set out in the APGP are expected to contribute to the improvement of individual practice and the profession in general.

The level of commitment to the APGP by faculty members differs. As one of the active veterans (interviewee 29) mentioned, “we are a small department and we all complete our professional growth plan at the beginning of the semester. I know that this is not the case in all other departments. Not all faculty take the

growth plan seriously*".* However, unlike the sentiments expressed by interviewee 29, interviewee 13, also an active veteran, sees it as:

> important for reflection and lifelong learning, and helps with being able to set goals, whether it be short term or long term. And actually, checking in on those goals, where am I at with that goal? Are there barriers or challenges, and are there any additional resources that my supervisor could help me with, or other faculty members could help me with, so that I can overcome those, or am I on track whether it be for short term or long term. But if you don't have, like for professional development, if you're not setting a goal in your professional growth plan, how can you reflect on it?

The APGP has the potential to serve as a trigger for reflection when used as a reflective writing tool. As Moussa-Inaty (2015) notes, reflective writing takes different forms such as reports, portfolios, journals, and emails. A type of report, the APGP is completed by faculty members at the beginning of the academic year and reviewed at the end of the academic year with one's immediate supervisor. When used effectively, the questions can act as a guide to help faculty members reflect carefully on their practice, contemplate feedback from peers, students and their supervisor, and identify initiatives that can help advance their professional growth. It can also act as a bridge of communication between faculty members and their supervisor, allowing for a closer look and deeper understanding of the experiences of faculty members. With feedback and support from their supervisor, faculty members can better understand their practice and purposefully set a course for their CPD.

6.2.2 Student Evaluations

Student evaluations are an important form of feedback for faculty members. The evaluation results contain information that can assist faculty members in reflecting on their teaching and learning practices, and ways to improve on future iterations of a course. Student feedback can also serve as a key source of information to inform curriculum and course development (Nair, Patil & Mertova, 2012).

At the college, student evaluation of courses takes place at the end of every semester or intake. In addition to the college collecting this summative feedback, faculty members are free to collect formative feedback from students throughout the semester.

Several interviewees echoed the importance of student feedback as an important trigger for reflection on past experiences. According to one participant from the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading:

> Another way I identify my professional development needs is through student feedback. It helps me think back to the semester and identify gaps in my knowledge. If the student feedback says that there's something that I need, like software, or I need to change something in my course, I can translate that student feedback into a professional development initiative. And that is something that I do. (Interviewee 14)

The use of student feedback to improve practice also extends to the online learning environment. As another participant (interviewee 20) from the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading notes:

> I look at student feedback and needs as well. As an example, seeing changes in the way that students use online resources, so I've adjusted my teaching, and I've gone to teaching conferences that have sessions on using online materials.

That said, not all faculty members have a favorable view of student evaluation of teachers and as such do not pay as much attention to it or use it deliberately as a trigger for reflection. They believe that students do not have the knowledge and experience to evaluate their teachers. For example, interviewee 1, a non-active mid-career professional with 4 – 6 years' experience in the HE sector, notes that "having students evaluate me on my performance is bullshit – pardon me, but it is. How can they evaluate somebody that has been out in the field for 40 years?".

Despite the differences of opinion among faculty members, studies (e.g. Hoban & Hastings, 2006; Nair, Patil & Mertova, 2012; Siu, 2012) show that student feedback promotes reflection on one's practice and CPD. This is mainly because student comments help identify areas in one's teaching that are effective, and those that require attention. Student feedback is also "an alternative perspective that is contextual to the teachers' own experiences and may trigger reflection by challenging a teacher's assumptions about practice" (Hoban & Hastings, 2006, p. 1014).

6.2.3 Interactions with Peers and Supervisors

As mentioned in Chapters two and three, reflection can take place individually or in a group. Dialogue in a group setting can serve as a trigger for reflection by helping individuals realise themselves through civil discourse and intersubjective recognition (Raelin, 2001). This suggests that through interactions with their peers and supervisor, faculty members can gain alternative perspectives on teaching and learning practices, and obtain feedback on issues and ideas. That said, for meaningful interactions to take place, they must be willing to be challenged on their ideas by members of the group setting (Raelin, 2001).

Group reflection can take place in formal settings (e.g. a book club or study group) or informal settings (e.g. discussions around the faculty lunch room table). Interviewees shared the importance of formal and informal dialogue with their peers in helping them make decisions and reflect on their professional practice. Interviewee 2, an active newbie, noted,

> we collect various statistics about our clients, and our team meets to discuss these as a group to make sense of the data and to determine needs and priorities. We consult with each other almost every day and then we do a formal team meeting every two weeks where we consult again.

Interviewee 17, an active veteran, also mentioned the importance of dialogue with one's supervisor as a way to reflect, identify and pursue meaningful CPD opportunities and enhance one's growth:

> One's supervisor should be able to review faculty goals, and then make suggestions for growth and the next steps. They should be asking faculty members – what is your plan for the next goal? They should be assisting faculty to think ahead because a lot of focus sometimes is just on the goal in hand, but once you have met that goal, where do you go from there? So, you should always be looking for the branches to stem out in different directions.

Beyond serving as a trigger for reflection, interviewees also discussed the importance of dialogue in building community and providing support among faculty members. This is consistent with findings from other studies such as Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011), and Suryani and Widyastuti (2015). According to Suryani and Widyastuti (2015), without the sharing of ideas with others, teachers may become absorbed in their daily teaching routine and miss important aspects of their teaching practice. Suryani and Widyastuti (2015) also found that when teachers share ideas in professional communities, they learn new things and also share ideas that may benefit other teachers as well. Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011) explore the impact of building a community by comparing teachers that receive no systematic support to those that receive formal support from their supervisors. The initial part of the study by Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011) involved 32 experienced teachers who were monitored over a period of 14 months with no systematic learning support. Four of the 32 teachers were closely followed by the researchers in a multiple case study. This entailed videotaping their lessons and having individual interviews regarding their lessons. The four teachers were also interviewed about "the concerns and challenges of their teaching practice and the conditions for learning they

experienced in their direct work environment" (Hoekstra & Korthagen, 2011, p. 81). In a follow-up study, one of the teachers was offered formal support in the form of a formal learning trajectory of 45 to 60 minutes of individual supervisory meetings every three weeks. During the supervisory sessions, the supervisor provided the teacher with feedback about their core qualities and engaged in meaningful dialogue that encouraged the teacher to discuss any challenges that they faced in the classroom. The study also reveals the long-term impact of providing support to teachers. Two years following the formal support received one teacher continues to apply the skills and insights that they acquired from their supervisor. Furthermore, the teachers were found to be using their newly acquired skills to encourage group work and reflection on learning among their students, and to build a community among the teachers. As captured in Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011),

> As the teacher continued her own learning process, she had also started to transform her workplace learning environment: "After I became aware of how I wanted to enact my vision, I realized that there was little support for this kind of learning within my school. . . . I started my own teacher team." (p. 87)

The study by Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011) demonstrates that supervision plays a critical role in teacher development and has long term positive effects on the teaching and learning environment. Support from supervisors also helps teachers to become more aware of their practice and any personal biases that may be obstructing their teaching practice.

Like the teacher in the study by Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011), interviewees recognize the importance of building community and connecting with peers at work. Interviewee 10, a participant in the School of Trades and Heavy Industrial, for example, spoke about their efforts to connect with colleagues in other departments and the need for more opportunities for inter-departmental dialogue:

> I have friends in the university studies program, I have friends in other parts of the trades program, in other walks or other disciplines here at the college, and I enjoy getting together with them socially and talking about their challenges in the classroom, or how they do things. And I find that is real, you know, it'd be nice to have some cross-pollination kind of here, I think at the college. You know, it gives you another facet or another perspective again, that you can learn from. And yeah, it's just another way to improve your delivery, and your personality as well. I think the more you talk to people, and the more you are involved with, even people that don't have the same ideas as me, you know? I think that helps me grow.

Interviewees 2, 17, and 10 all expressed strong sentiments towards the importance of group dialogue in reflecting on one's practice. However, not all interviewees had the same disposition. Several view reflection as a solely private affair. The next section discusses these divergent views in more detail.

Before exploring self and others in reflection further, it is important to note that while the above triggers have the potential to encourage reflection, additional research is necessary to assess whether that is achieved when used

effectively. As reflection continues to grow in popularity and usage, it is important to start to transition towards the identification of ways in which reflective processes can be evidenced. It is not sufficient to assert that reflection is encouraged by a procedure or technique, means must be specified to demonstrate that particular kinds of reflecting are taking place (Smith & Hatton, 1992).

6.3 Self and Others in Reflection

More and more, studies (e.g. Birchak, Connor, Crawford, Kahn, Kaser, Turner, & Short, 1998; Çimer, Çimer, & Vekli, 2013; Raelin, 2001; and Rodgers, 2002) show the importance of dialogue and sense making with others as an important aspect of reflection and professional development. Reflection with others and social interactions benefit people in the following ways:

1) Human beings are social animals whose good is bound up with the good of others. As such, we need to discuss with others our life's experience and meaning. It is through dialogue with others that we are able to realize ourselves within a civic community (Raelin, 2001).
2) Dialogue with others reveals both the strengths and weaknesses in our ideas and thinking. As such, group discussions force us to clearly formulate and articulate our ideas and experiences.
3) Others offer us encouragement in our journey as educators, and new and alternative meanings, broadening the field of understanding (Rodgers, 2002).
4) Groups provide support and help hold us accountable. The self-discipline required to reflect and focus on one's CPD, especially given the growing demands on teachers' time, is difficult to sustain alone.

"When one is accountable to a group, one feels a responsibility toward others that is more compelling than the responsibility we feel to only ourselves" (Rodgers, 2002, p. 857).

5) Group interactions can help force us to incorporate reflection into our daily lives by allowing time for dialogue with others about teaching and learning (Birchak et al., 1998).

Çimer, Çimer, and Vekli (2013) purport that each practitioner needs critical friends to support them with reflective practice, particularly because it may involve challenging deeply held beliefs, attitudes and values. Critical friends are skilled practitioners that offer a supportive and trusting environment for collaborative discussions. They help practitioners make sense of their practice so they can reflect, analyse and discuss their own practice. "Therefore, if schools want to foster reflective practice in the workplace or the classroom, they must create an environment that values communication, participation, and the ability to openly discuss problems without fear of embarrassment" (Çimer, Çimer, & Vekli, 2013, p. 137).

Although reflection with others is beneficial, a number of interviewees feel strongly about reflection being a private and individual undertaking. The reasons for this range from lack of trust in management in an era of new managerialism in HE, to resistance to more work due to current workloads, and the fear of showing vulnerability in a profession were teachers are often considered to be the holders of knowledge. This is consistent with the observation by Cooper and Boyd (1998) who note that one of the reasons why educators do not pursue collaborative reflection is fear – "to pursue one's own

learning, of being seen as incompetent, of building relationships with others that are more than social, of lacking the confidence to be that intimate and vulnerable with others, and with oneself – so, educators make excuses" (p. 50).

Interviewee 15, a non-active veteran with over seven years' experience in the HE sector, is one of the interviewees that feels strongly about reflection being a private exercise. They noted,

> I don't think that people should have to share their experiences with others. Because if people have to do that, then they have to engage in the reflection process. Some faculty members might not like that. They might say that it is a bit too personal, that reflection is a personal experience, and shouldn't be forced upon anybody, that it shouldn't be shared.

Another interviewee touches on the intervention of administration on faculty members' practices and how that could impact on their CPD involvement and choice. They allude to the mandated PD day recently held at the college (the first in its history) involving faculty members, staff, and management.

> I'm thinking about the college-wide professional development day…I don't know if that is the way to ensure relevant PDA by the college, because that's assuming that the people at the top making the decision, they're deciding what's relevant for you. And I don't think it should come from the top. Because I mean, I know what's relevant for me, and I think conversations with my supervisor also need to realize that it can't be, the supervisor says, you should take this course, or you should go and get this credential, or you should do this. But having the conversation

> and me as the professional driving the discussion to say, this is what I'm interested in, this is what I'd like to do, and kind of working to achieve those goals together, as opposed to even the supervisor directing my choices in professional development (interviewee 26, active veteran).

The lack of trust in management can also impact the use of reflection as a tool for CPD. Without trust, faculty members are unlikely to show vulnerability or document any gaps in their current practice for fear that it might be used against them during faculty evaluations. As one interviewee noted,

> …I will certainly not be as honest if I am required to record my reflection, and especially if I have to submit it as part of say, my evaluation report or as a part of like I say, as a tie to professional development. For example, if I apply for professional development funds to go to a professional development activity, and then I come back, and then there is a requirement that I have to reflect and do some kind of reporting process, I am not going to be as honest (interviewee 37, active veteran).

There is a balance, therefore, that needs to be struck in terms reflection. For meaningful reflection to take place to help inform faculty CPD, an environment of trust and respect is required. As Benade (2018) argues, the development of critically reflective practice in professional teaching contexts is impossible in the absence of trust.

> While teacher's engagement with appraisal requires critical self-reflection, the intent of critically reflective practice among teachers (to reflect on a range of relevant issues affecting daily life in a school, with a view of taking action) ought to be separated from the appraisal

process. Given that nature of trust in interpersonal relations, critically reflective practice is weakened to the extent it is linked to appraisal (Benade, 2018, p. 124).

In addition to trust, Cooper and Boyd (1998) offer three conditions that are essential for reflection, particularly interactive reflection. They include,

(1) understanding the variety of methods and approaches available – this entails ensuring that practitioners are aware of the various types of methods for reviewing one's learning and development with others. Cooper and Boyd (1998, p. 49) make a distinction between four types of collaborative reflective approaches – individual reflective practices (e.g. journals and portfolios), partner reflective practices (e.g. mentoring and peer coaching), small group reflective practices (e.g. action research and study groups), and large group reflective practices (e.g. teacher centres and institutes). Individual reflective practices give practitioners the opportunity to make sense of their individual practices and may entail writing notes to ourselves. These could be later shared with groups members to help us process our experiences and thoughts and make meaning from them.

(2) establishing the conditions of collaboration – this refers to the environment within which collaboration should take place. Similar to the argument made by Çimer, Çimer, and Vekli (2013) and Benade (2018), an environment of trust and a commitment to the growth and development of the group is necessary. In addition, effective group skills, reflective thinking skills, and the principles of adult learning are important

conditions for successful and meaningful collaboration. Individual training may be required prior to commencing collaborative reflection to ensure the necessary skills for interactive reflection.

(3) establishing ways to begin implementing these practices – this involves making sure that faculty members have the time required to engage in reflective practice. It may also encompass making reflection a part of the school's continuous professional growth program. These entail both the involvement of faculty members and commitment from HE administrators. Cooper and Boyd (1998, p. 59) provide some successful ways many schools are providing time for teachers to take part in reflective practice – organize the coaching and reflective teams in triads, so one or two teachers can take a teacher's class; use part of staff meetings for partner or small group reflection; use your business/community partnership people to take the class; meet at lunch time once a week or bi-weekly; have an administrator or teacher on special assignment take your class; record the class and meet with partner or small group to discuss; and meet before or after school. The viability of these options will depend on the school and existing policies.

Chapter nine discusses the above in more detail, including a model for reflection that takes into account key attributes by faculty members and the college. Attributes (such as open-mindedness, responsibility, and leading by example) help drive reflection and is a foundation for teachers and management to work together to build an environment of trust and respect, and encourage reflective practice.

Chapter 7 Discussion of Findings: Reflection as a Tool to Facilitate Responsibility and Participation in Professional Development Activities

The focus of this chapter is on the second research question – do faculty members believe that reflection could facilitate responsibility and participation in PDA? All interviewees agreed that reflection as a tool not only has the potential to help faculty members grow as professionals, but to also aide in lifelong learning by helping faculty members to identify learning needs and opportunities for growth. Reflection can also assist faculty members to identify PDA that support their teaching and learning to meet the learning needs of students. Despite the strong views expressed by faculty members about the inherent benefits of reflection, there are roadblocks that hinder them from pursuing CPD; specifically, time and types of PDA supported by the college. The three sections of this chapter discuss these points in more detail.

7.1 Reflection, Lifelong Learning and Professional Growth

This section captures the main ideas shared by interviewees on how reflection can help facilitate responsibility and participation in PDA, particularly as it relates to lifelong learning and professional growth. Reflection serves as a tool for individuals to think about their current knowledge and skills, and gaps that may exist in keeping up with current practices. For example, interviewee 33, who is an active CPD user, noted that

> As instructors, we are always looking and reflecting and saying, what may be best for students five years ago is not the best for today. So, we look at our education, how we are teaching; what we are teaching is constantly changing. It is constantly growing, and for us, we always

> have to keep ahead of it. And as an educator, we have to be one step farther ahead than everybody else, and kind of predict what is going to change, and make sure we go the right pathway.

Reflection also allows teachers to look at their own selves and decipher areas of growth. “Reflection can help instructors improve – it is the corner building stone of any professional development. It can help with identifying gaps in knowledge to basically allow for growth. If I don’t know where the gaps are, then how do I know what to look for in professional development?” (interviewee 12, active veteran). This comment is particularly important in a time when advancements in technology are impacting the way we teach and interact with students.

If done meaningfully, reflection can also lead individuals to not only think, but to set goals and take actions that lead to learning and growth throughout their career. This is also captured in the comments by interviewee 42, who is a non-active CPD user:

> Reflection gives you an opportunity to look back on the progress of your career. And you can see what’s working, and what’s not working well for you. And so, what that does, I mean, if you’re someone who’s committed to improving your craft and improving your profession, once you’re able to pinpoint what’s not working well, then that provides a springboard from which now you can look at taking measures that can help to improve your skills, whether it be your teaching skill or use of technology, whatever it might be.

The comments by interviewee 42 also point to another important aspect of reflection captured by interviewees, which is that it is a continuous process that persists throughout an individual's life. Interviewee 23, an active veteran, went as far as stating that there is a direct link between reflection and lifelong learning. "Lifelong learning and reflection go hand-in-hand. I don't think that you can have one without the other in many ways because in order to pursue knowledge, lifelong learning, you need to be able to reflect, and reflection I guess is what drives lifelong learning and professional growth" (interviewee 23).

It was clear from the comments by most interviewees that, as an educator, not reflecting is not an option. According to interviewee 32, an active veteran that has been at the college for over seven years,

> If instructors are not reflective they are not going to see or think about the things they do not know, right? In addition, they state that one never stops reflecting and growing as a teacher. According to them, I truly believe in that saying, the more you know, the more you know you don't know or something. I believe that the more reflection you do, and the more advanced you become, I think the more you are aware of various different areas that you need training on.

Though the above excerpts from interviewees touch on the notion of reflection being similar to looking at a mirror, it does not tell us what factors drive reflection among faculty members. Interviewees 1 and 10, who are both non-active mid-career professionals, talked about curiosity and the desire to be better, as factors that drive reflection. For example, interviewee 1 stated that "reflection

can promote lifelong learning only if you are curious as a teacher and want to be the best in your field". Likewise, interviewee 10 noted that,

> to me, reflection is tied to curiosity. If I run into something in the classroom or even in my personal life that I do not understand, I want to know. I want to figure out the right answer and it's my curiosity that leads me to do that.

In addition to curiosity, many interviewees (4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 21, 23, 29, 30, 36, 38, 40, 43, and 46) also spoke about the urge to become better, as a factor that leads faculty members to reflect. According to interviewee 7, an active veteran, "reflection helps us advance in some ways. It helps us move forward, so that you are not standing still in terms of your professional growth". For interviewee 6 (active newbie),

> education and continuous learning is something that is really important to me. I don't believe that you are ever done learning…I have thought a lot about doing a PhD in XYZ because I know that it will help me to be an even better instructor.

In addition to lifelong learning and professional growth, reflection also helps to facilitate responsibility and participation in PDA by faculty members to meet the learning needs of students. The two factors discussed above – curiosity and the need to remain current and continue to improve – also contribute to the improvement of students. As discussed in the next section, reflection can drive faculty members to remain up to date in their field of practice in order to provide students with the right sets of skills to succeed in today's global society.

7.2 Reflection and the Learning Needs of Students

“Reflection encourages us as instructors to think about our role as educators” (interviewee 50, active mid-career professional). This section focuses on the impact reflection can have in aiding the performance of faculty members and meeting the learning needs of students. The previous comment by interviewee 33 (p. 121) stresses the importance of why faculty members need to remain current in their field. By reflecting on one’s practice and staying current in one’s field, faculty members are able to teach accurate and up to date information to students and converse with their colleagues about new ideas. New ideas include, but are not limited to:

(1) New terms and terminologies that get introduced to the education field each year – as Kearney (2013) notes, staying current not only allows faculty members to converse with colleagues but to also become informed, and at other times to do the informing.

(2) Research and experiments by other experts in the field – this helps to ensure that faculty members are teaching the latest theories and concepts in the field. As interviewee 18 (a non-active veteran) notes, “as academia, we need to make sure that we have the updated information to teach to the students. So, in order to do that, we have to kind of even reflect on the knowledge. Is this up to date? Is this appropriate? Are we teaching the right material?”. Although the rate of change in each field differs by discipline (for example, the field of science and technology tends to experience frequent changes), transformation impacts all disciplines (Kearney, 2013).

(3) New technologies and ways of communication particularly with students is changing rapidly. Kearney (2013) argues that understanding the newer technologies and the present world of students must extend to the social and cultural spheres. For example, what do they watch on television? What are their career interests and expectations? How do they interact with their peers? Understanding these may help to provide insights into how faculty members can relay their course to students and help them understand how it relates to the world around them.

Also of importance is the role of reflection in aiding the performance of faculty members. Suryani and Widyastuti (2015) argue that the role of teachers ought to shift from teacher-centred to student-centred learning. Student-centred learning aids teachers to serve in different roles and increase their professionalism in "inspiring expert and skillful human resources which are practically competent in their areas and have higher capacity in problem solving" (p. 4). The comments by interviewees, such as interviewee 27, an active veteran, allude to this point and place reflection at the centre of student-centred learning.

> I see reflection as a periodic pulse check for instructors to look at their own contribution, behaviors, strengths and weaknesses, and then do some gap analysis versus what is needed in both the classroom and the job market. So, I think the rest of the multiple dimensions of that one is you know, what is one's understanding of the job market? The other one is, well what is and should be part of what is being relayed and taught within the classroom. I call it striking that balance between the

> labor market needs and the classroom opportunities. And so, then if there are significant gaps identified, I would suggest that maybe there's room for improvement, there's room to close some of those gaps, to reduce some of those gaps, and that could be through professional development (interviewee 27, active veteran).

The literature offers suggestions on how faculty members can promote student-centred learning. According to Suryani and Widyastuti (2015) and Esteve (2000), teachers can achieve this by viewing their role as that of facilitator rather than source of information for students. As facilitators of information, faculty members help to guide students' learning and coach them on how to learn various and complex things (Darling-Hammond, 2006), which requires more than content knowledge. Classroom management, curriculum development, assessment, and teaching methods are examples of additional skills and knowledge which faculty members would need. As interviewee 18 (p.125) notes, reflection is critical to help support faculty members in promoting student-centred learning.

Further to the points made by Suryani and Widyastuti (2015), faculty members can promote student-centred learning by the use of approaches that (1) lead to powerful thinking and proficient performance on the part of students, and (2) are responsive to individual students' experiences, interests, talents, needs, and cultural backgrounds (Darling-Hammond, 2006). This is not easy to achieve. In the book, *Powerful Teacher Education: Lessons from Exemplary Programs*, Darling-Hammond (2006) discusses seven programs in the United States that have been successful in achieving this. Though the programs are

teacher education programs, their design and delivery contain critical lessons which can be applied to teachers in various fields. One of the things that all seven programs have in common is

> the focus by teachers on linking what students already know and understand to new information, correcting misimpressions, guiding learners' understanding through a variety of activities, providing opportunities for application of knowledge, giving useful feedback that shapes performance, and individualizing for students' distinctive learning needs. Teachers do all this while juggling the social and academic needs of the class and of individuals, the cognitive and motivational consequences of their moment-to-moment teaching decisions, the cultural and community context within which they teach and much more (p. 5).

In a nutshell, reflection can help faculty members to develop themselves for improving their own self and their students. Through CPD, faculty members can build inward and outward capacity and learn how to manage their own learning process and their students' learning operation (Suryani & Widyastuti, 2015, p. 5). Inward capacity refers to faculty members' ability to be self-aware of their learning process, while outward competency means being able to apply what is learnt to facilitate and enhance students' learning (Suryani & Widyastuti, 2015). In analyzing the data from the interviews, the main factor that guides the reflection of faculty members on the overall learning needs of their students are trends in one's field. As discussed throughout this section, staying current in one's field aids the performance of faculty members and helps to ensure that

students are learning relevant materials to be successful after they complete their education. As mentioned in Chapter two, both formal and informal PDA, such as subscribing to blogs and making time to read them; taking part in webinars; attending conferences with networking opportunities; and having a presence on social media, can help faculty members stay current in their field.

However, there are some barriers that prevent faculty members from taking advantage of CPD opportunities. These roadblocks are discussed further in the next section.

7.3 Roadblocks that Hinder Responsibility and Participation in PDA

Despite the overwhelming comments by interviewees regarding the importance of reflection as a tool to encourage participation in PDA, particularly as they support lifelong learning, professional growth, and the learning needs of students, there are hindrances that need to be overcome, namely, time and the types of PDA supported by the college. These roadblocks hinder faculty members from taking advantage of reflection as a tool to inform their CPD.

7.3.1 Time and Workload

The majority of respondents, regardless of the school they belong to, identified time and workload as the primary impeding factor for reflecting and taking part in CPD. For example, all nine interviewees from the School of Trades and Heavy Industrial are non-active CPD users primarily due to the constraints of time and workload. As one interviewee put it:

> right now, the college has about half of the instructors it had seven years ago. Every department is running a skeleton crew. There's just enough

> to get by, so much so that when somebody gets out sick it's like, arghhh! (interviewee 4, non-active mid-career professional).

Another interviewee in the School of Continuing Education also noted – "we have a lot on our plate, so doing more and finding that extra time to reflect and take part in CPD is challenging" (interviewee 28, active veteran). The same sentiments were shared by faculty members in the largest school at the college, University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading. Though it is the largest, the program areas are small and often have one faculty member with specialization in a given area, which makes it difficult for another faculty member to cover their classes when they are away. As interviewee 39, a faculty member in the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading, noted,

> I don't do a lot of CPD. I haven't done one in over six years because…I can't take time off during the academic year because there is no other faculty to cover me when I go…in the last couple of years the college has been discouraging us from leaving during the school year and most CPD happens during the academic year.

Given the benefits of reflection and CPD, it is important therefore for faculty members and HEIs to have an open discussion about ways to support faculty, while meeting the needs of students. Guidelines for managing short-term absences due to CPD could be drafted, with the following possibilities: minimizing faculty teaching load in the spring semester (either every year or every other year), hiring contract faculty to cover classes, and using blended learning where faculty may flexibly deliver and manage parts of a course online.

7.3.2 Types of PDA Supported by the College

Another barrier to reflection and participation in CPD is the types of PDA supported by the college. Often, when individuals reflect critically, they identify gaps in their knowledge and seek training, resources, or materials that can help them to improve. One major hindrance to achieving this is the limitations on the types of PDA that faculty members will receive funding for from the college. Interviewee 18 who has been at the college for over seven years, for example, noted:

> even when I reflect and plan it doesn't always work out because I either don't have the resources, or the environment is not conducive to help me with my request…so it is difficult to develop strategies to make sure your ideas and plan come alive, without that support.

The concern by interviewee 18 about not feeling supported by the college with certain CPD requests was echoed also by interviewees 39 and 8 (non-active veterans).

> I pick PDAs that I feel like the college wouldn't fight me on because I have had a lot of negative experience in the past with applying for professional development funds. Even before my application gets to the professional development committee, I am made to feel like my request is outside of what is normally funded by the college or that my research field isn't supported (interviewee 39).

> CPD should be considered in a much broader perspective than affecting only teaching. The focus should be – so, does the activity help me as a

> professional to develop as a professional in that area, to be part of the academy for that area? You know, the only thing that colleges can do in that sense I think, is be less directive and allow faculty to actually decide on their own CPD, which isn't necessarily so tightly tied to teaching. There have been initiatives in the past that I could have used somewhat for research, and it's an interest-based research. It doesn't result in a product, which there is kind of an overwhelming drive for applied research; maybe it's government pushing whatever the colleges engage in. But there're a lot of fields that aren't so easily applied. Like how do you apply philosophy, history or some of the humanities, arts and social sciences research? But that would still be considered professional development by the person. So, I think the college needs to be less prescriptive and allow more freedom for faculty to choose. I know there needs to be some restrictions, like you don't want a physicist doing CPD which is like yoga, or basket weaving, but in general, if colleges treated faculty as professionals, they would choose meaningful professional activities and not try to abuse the system. And you could have a check and balance for that (interviewee 8).

The above leads to an important question linked to a comment that was made by interviewee 35, an active veteran – the college needs to be more open and flexible about funding of PD initiatives, but how do we also ensure that the activities contribute to the development of the individual and how can it be measured within the context of reflection and reflective practice? Documenting what constitutes critical reflection and how it impacts faculty knowledge and development has been a topic of discourse by several researchers, such as

Donald (1986), Wilson and Berne (1999), and Reynolds (2011). Not only is documenting faculty knowledge difficult, it requires a significant amount of time and energy (Wilson & Berne, 1999). More so, is the return from doing so worth it? Perhaps, the focus by HEIs should be encouraging the engagement of faculty members in a broad range of PDAs, with the perspective that students stand to benefit as well in the form of improved student learning and achievements. Considerations for a model that builds on the connections between reflection, CPD, and student learning is discussed further in Chapter nine.

Having examined faculty members' perceptions about whether reflection could facilitate responsibility and participation in PDAs, the next chapter investigates how often they actually reflect and to what extent it informs their practice.

Chapter 8 Discussion of Findings: Reflection by Faculty Members on their Professional Development Needs

The discussions in this chapter centre on the third research question – to what extent do faculty members reflect on their PD needs? When asked about whether they believe reflection can help faculty members grow as professionals and improve their practice, all interviewees said yes. However, differences of opinion emerged when interviewees were asked how often they engaged in reflection and how it informs their CPD. This chapter sheds more light on the main ideas that emerged from the interviews including the nature of the reflection that faculty members engage.

8.1 How Often Faculty Members Reflect on their Professional Development Needs

A key observation from the interviews is that faculty members in particular fields/areas of specializations within the various schools are more familiar with the concept of reflection; both in terms of the meaning, purpose, and application of reflection to practice. Specifically, faculty members in the areas of human and health services and English language instruction. This is consistent with the findings from research by Boud and Walker (1998). They note that for more than 10 years, we have seen the translation of ideas of reflection and reflective practice into courses and programmes, particularly in professions, such as teaching, nursing, and social work, where field experience and academic study need to be closely integrated (Boud & Walker, 1998).

Interview participants in the fields of human and health services and English language instruction are more aware of reflection and reflective practice

because it is a part of their program delivery to students and is often a requirement for maintaining their professional standing. For example, interviewee 35, an active veteran in the school of Continuing Education, talked about how they use reflection to support student learning: *"*reflection is actually part of our program. Students are required to do it, although instructors are not. But it's kind of you know, you start doing it just because you're teaching it". Also, interviewee 41, also an active veteran but in the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading, noted,

> I get my students to reflect after each set of their shifts, and look at what went well, what was a situation that maybe you could have done different, what can you teach your peers, and what is your biggest learning from that?

The excerpts below from interviewees 6 and 18 also discuss how reflection and reflective practice is a part of the profession and in some instances, is a requirement to maintain their professional standing.

> To be registered in my field, we have to sign to a code of ethics, and everything like that. And a big part of our code of ethics is to be making sure we are being reflective in our practice. So, to me, it's something I have to do. I'm driven by my code of ethics to be reflective in my practice. And to me, that's whether I'm serving as a frontline worker or teaching new students in my field (interviewee 6, active newbie).

> In my field, reflective practice is a widespread concept. So, even the regulatory body in my field, in which we as faculty are part of, we have what we call, my CPP, which is continuing competence program. That

> has two-fold parts of it – one of it is reflective practice, and the other one is CPD. So, yearly in order to get our license, we have to do that. So, we are encouraged to reflect on our practice, what went well, what didn't go well, how do we improve ourselves, how do we develop a deeper understanding? So, that is probably kind of instilled in us, so we continuously reflect (interviewee 18, non-active veteran).

One can therefore make the argument that faculty members in the above-mentioned areas are more likely to engage in reflection and use it as a tool to inform their practice. This includes the use of reflective practice as a means to faculty professional growth and development. However, faculty members in other fields, were less conversant about reflection, for example, those from the School of Trades and Heavy Industrial. In fact, several interviewees admitted to looking up the term prior to the interview. One case in point is interviewee 36, a non-active newbie in the school of Trades and Heavy Industrial, who noted, "okay, reflection, actually when you sent me the interview invite, I had to Google it". It is likely that the faculty members in the School of Trades and Heavy Industrial do reflect but perhaps do not consider what they do as reflection. The implications of this is that faculty members in this school are likely to need additional training and support to help them not only understand the meaning of reflection, but the different forms, its application and how it helps to inform one's professional development.

Overall, over half of the interviewees mentioned reflecting on their practice and PD needs on an ongoing basis. By ongoing, most faculty members were referring to daily. This was mostly faculty members in the School of University

Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading, which includes the human and health services areas. Several other faculty members also discussed reflecting at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the academic year. This is done intentionally to coincide with the APGP. As mentioned previously, faculty members are expected to complete the APGP at the beginning of the academic year, review it at least once during the academic year, and discuss any accomplishments and gaps with their supervisor at the end of the year. For example, interviewee 2, an active newbie in the Student Services department, stated that

> reflection takes place for me at the beginning of the year, in like September, and afterwards in December and April. Kind of at the beginning, follow through in December, which is kind of the middle, and then at the end of the year in April to see if I attained the goals that I set out in my growth plan.

On the other extreme, some interviewees mentioned not engaging in reflection. Put bluntly by interviewee 8, who is in the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading and has been at the college for 4 – 6 years, “how often I reflect is around zero”. Similarly, interviewee 31, who is from the School of Trades and Heavy Industrial and has also been at the college for 4 – 6 years, stated – “I fly by the seat of my pants”. Perhaps interviewees 8 and 31 engage in reflection but do not see their actions as reflection. Researchers such as Jack Mezirow remind us of the different ways people may reflect, which sometimes may not seem like reflection. According to Mezirow (1998), reflection can mean “letting one’s thoughts wander over something” (p. 185)

and “does not necessarily imply making an assessment of what is being reflected upon” (p. 185). Based on that, one may argue that we all reflect. The difference, however, is in the nature of the reflection – does it involve a process of inquiry with the goal to improve one’s understanding and practice? Smyth (1989) also reminds us that “reflective practitioners and nonreflective practitioners are not two fundamentally irreconcilable groups. Rather, they are at different points in working to overcome the social, cultural, and political amnesia that has gripped the entire teaching profession in recent times” (p. 16). The next section examines the question about the process of inquiry further by discussing the differences between reflection and critical reflection.

8.2 Reflection Versus Critical Reflection

To reflect can be as simple as an awareness of an object, a perception, an action, or one’s habits of doing things. It can be argued that it is something we do all the time without noticing (Fook & Askeland, 2006). Critical reflection, on the other hand, involves being purposeful, with the end objective of forming a deeper understanding about something and identifying new possibilities. As mentioned in Chapter three, critical reflection also involves the use of tools and techniques such as reflective journals and coaching.

Another important aspect of reflection is reflexivitiy. Fook and Askeland (2006) define reflexivity as

> an ability to recognize our own influence – and the influence of our social and cultural contexts on research, the type of knowledge we create, and the way we create it. In this sense, then, it is about factoring ourselves as players into the situations we practice in. (p. 45)

Thus, reflexivity is driven by an individual's response to their context including how they process information and create knowledge to guide their choices. For faculty members, reflexivity is driven by their academic environment and impacts decisions on their teaching practice. It is, therefore, "a key part of making sure that reflective practice is critically reflective practice" (Thompson & Pascal, 2012, p. 319).

"Regretfully, teacher reflection often remains a superficial phenomenon" (Korthagen, 2014, p. 2). Cursory reflection has implications that may lead to ineffective changes to one's teaching practice. For example, following an incident that happens in one's classroom or after the use of a particular method to convey information about a topic to students, a teacher may decide to make changes. Without critically reflecting on the situation, the teacher runs the risk of trying a superficial, ineffective solution in the next lesson. As Korthagen (2014) rightly notes, doing so has the added risk of the teacher concluding that reflection is not very helpful.

A study by Gunnar Handal also offers some insights into why teacher reflection often remains a superficial phenomenon. Handal's (1990) study was concerned with promoting the articulation of tacit knowledge through the counselling of practitioners in Norway. In exploring how teachers can formulate and develop their own personal practical theory of teaching, including having the personal skills necessary to do this, the skills to share them with others, and the time to do so, Handal (1990) split the concept of reflective practice into three hierarchical levels: actions (level P1), practical and theoretical reasons (level P2), and ethical justification (level P3). The study found that teachers in Norway

were used to operating at the actions level. That is, talking about their work, deciding the next steps, when to carry them out, and how to accomplish them. The teachers rarely operated at levels P2 and P3. They did not discuss specifically their reasons or justification for taking a particular course of action. The main reason for this, as provided by Handal (1990), is that the justifications and reasons at levels P2 and P3 are not highly in demand in the busyness culture of schools today. Based on his findings, he concludes that teachers spend more time planning and acting (level P1) and less on observation and reflection (levels P2 and P3). At that time, the fundamental attitude of critically studying one's own practice was not yet established within most schools (Day, 1993, p. 85). However, in current times "[f]or a deeper awareness of challenges faced by teachers in the classroom, what is needed is critical reflection that includes the dimensions of thinking, feeling, wanting, and acting" (Korthagen, 2014, p. 2).

In some ways, this study found patterns similar to Korthagen (2014) and Handal (1990), discussed above. Interviewees often made reference to the differences between reflection and critical reflection, albeit they referred to them as informal and formal reflection respectively. For example, interviewee 23, an active veteran, noted that

> reflection can be formal or not formal. So, you could leave a class thinking, oh my god, I'm never going to do that again. And it could be something as simple as, oh, when I organize the groups, I have really bad instructions, or it could be something way more significant.

Like interviewee 23, most other interviewees discussed reflecting informally by mentally going over the events that took place in their classes – what worked and didn't work, the relevance of the instructional materials, and the level of student engagement. This is not done necessarily with the intention to make changes right away. Instead, those mental run-throughs serve more as a mental check-in on the overall success (or lack thereof) of the day's teaching.

Further to the comments by interviewee 23, reflection takes place for some faculty members during meetings and informal gatherings with colleagues. According to interviewee 14, an active veteran, "in my department some faculty members reflect every day you know, we sit around during lunch every day and we talk about things that go right, and things that go wrong, and give each other support and help". Interviewee 29, an active veteran as well, also alluded to this – "part of the process of reflection for me would be speaking with my colleagues or superiors. Because the reflection also helps me get feedback on some things professionally that need to be developed".

For the above experiences shared by faculty members to be meaningful, a critical approach is required. This is not to suggest that previous reflections were wrong. Instead, a critical approach will help faculty members to utilize fully their current process of reflection. A well-developed approach to reflective practice would incorporate both the notion of reflection as an analytical and reflexive process or approach, with an emphasis on the mirroring of practice, thereby a self-analysis (Thompson & Pascal, 2012). Doing so will help ensure that: (1) "the professional knowledge base is being used to the full; (2) our actions are consistent with it; and (3) there are opportunities for learning and

development being generated" (p. 319). Drawing from researchers such as Donald (1986), Wilson and Berne (1999), and Reynolds (2011), the following must be present for the above experiences shared by faculty members to be critical reflection:

- Be intentional – faculty members have to go beyond "thinking things through in their minds" (interviewee 7, active veteran), whether during class or conversations with colleagues, and start to be more intentional and systematic in both thought and action.
- Involve the use of reflection tools or techniques – these help faculty members to collect relevant information, assess the data collected, and identify any gaps.
- Produce change – faculty members will need to act on the information collected and identify a process for making change. This could be in the form of making changes to their practice and taking part in CPD.
- Consider individual versus group reflection – some situations require self-reflection while others entail collaborative reflection, in which experiences can be shared with colleagues and possible outcomes discussed. Regardless of whether reflection takes place individually or in a group, the "basic idea of learning from experience remains the same" (Rees, 2017, para. 8).

Further to the above, one important observation from the interviews is that only three interviewees articulated a clear process of how they engaged in reflection and used it specifically to inform their PD needs. Consistent with the literature on reflection, their approach involved the use of a tool or technique for

reflection, and a plan of action to either address any gaps or maintain practices that work well. To help support more faculty members to engage in critical reflection, two things need to be addressed: time for reflection and information and training support on reflection. The next section discusses these further.

8.3 Bridging the Gap Between Reflection and Critical Reflection Among Faculty Members

To help bridge the gap and support faculty members to move towards critical reflection requires commitment from both the college and faculty members. The college needs to encourage reflective practice by earmarking time for faculty members to make meaning of their experiences, and identify any corrective actions that may be required as a result. Faculty members on the other hand, need to commit to learning more about reflection and identify ways to be intentional about learning from their experiences.

8.3.1 Time

Time and workload were discussed previously as factors that hinder faculty members from participating in PDA. Interviewees also acknowledged the importance of allotting time for reflection as “reflection is very time-consuming” (interviewee 18, non-active veteran), and “[w]hen I have a bit of spare time, I just want to take a breath” (interviewee 10, non-active mid-career professional).

As mentioned previously, critical reflection involves systematic inquiry into one’s actions and experiences, may involve engagement with others, and can inform CPD. These require a considerable amount of time in addition to an individual’s assigned workload. With the growing demands on faculty time, faculty members feel overworked, with little to no time to engage in additional

initiatives. However, researchers like Thompson and Pascal (2012) argue that retorts by practitioners about not having time for reflection is short-sighted. They believe that such arguments fail to recognize an important principle of reflective practice, which is that the busier we are, the more reflective we need to be.

> That is, the more pressure we are under, the clearer we need to be about what we are doing, why we are doing it, what knowledge is available to help us do it to best effect, and so on… Without the space for reflection, there will be no scope for critically reflective practice. (Thompson & Pascal, 2012, p. 320)

In as much as Thompson and Pascal (2012) make a good point, they fail to account for the fact that some external factors beyond one's control have significant impact on one's time. For example, family and employers. This presents an opportunity to engage such parties in a dialogue to help ensure that faculty members are taking the time that they need to engage in critical reflection. The college, therefore, in collaboration with faculty members, needs to identify strategies for faculty members to reflect on their practice. Any strategy would have to take into account the current workload of faculty members and factor in additional time for the use of tools (e.g. reflective journaling). In addition, it would have to involve diverse approaches such as group dialogues with peers about one's practice and independent approaches to examining one's practice. Several interviewees noted that such support from the college would help encourage more engagement in reflective practice. For example, interviewee 2, an active newbie who has been at the college for 1 – 3 years, noted that "allowing more time and occasions for faculty members to

openly discuss learning needs and priorities, and maybe be more creative, will help to encourage reflection".

Another way to encourage more faculty members to critically reflect on their PD needs is to support them in learning about reflection including how to reflect, as discussed below.

8.3.2 Learning to Reflect

As mentioned earlier, not every faculty member is familiar with the concept of reflection. More so, reflection can mean different things to different people, as stated by interviewee 5, an active newbie:

> I think everybody's different in terms of reflection and how they approach it…at the same time I think we need to be taught the different ways to reflect so that we can decide the best approach. That could be something that is done through some sessions of engagement.

Formally supporting faculty members on learning to critically reflect can serve several purposes, such as:

- provide information on what reflection is and isn't;
- demonstrate the college's commitment to reflective practice;
- help to create an opportunity for dialogue, which in itself can encourage reflection;
- better equip faculty members with information and tools to help them become reflective practitioners, that is, how to critically reflect on their practice and set goals for its improvement;

- increase the confidence of faculty members on their current approach and practices as academics; and
- enable faculty to engage in meaningful and relevant CPD informed by critical reflection.

Support for faculty members on learning to reflect can take many different forms. For example, providing training on-site at the college, circulating relevant materials (videos, blogs, etc.) electronically, brown bag lunch sessions, and paid conferences and workshops. The college's support in allocating time for reflection and equipping faculty members with information on reflection is likely to result in not only an increase in faculty engagement in critical reflection but also engagement in reflective processes that lead to learning and improvements in practice.

In supporting faculty members to learn to reflect, it is important to address the issue of "over self-critical inspection and the infinite regress of reflection on action" (Smith, 2011, p. 211). This can lead to "self-conscious cynicism, isolated thinking, and self-absorption" (Smith, 2011, p. 215). Another issue, which was also noted by interviewees is dwelling on past mistakes during reflection. According to interviewee 4, a non-active mid-career professional, "one of the challenges of reflection is you run the risk of continuing to reflect back without moving forward." Put differently by interviewee 34, a non-active veteran, "you can always visit the past when you reflect, but don't try to live there." Ghaye (2011) offers some suggestions on how faculty members can grow forward from past experiences and the importance of focusing more on the present.

> You can understand your practice by looking backwards – but work needs to be lived forwards. Looking back on your experiences and learning from them is important – but reflecting on the past can be limited by what we can remember and by what has happened. It is also important to reflect on the here and now – to reflect not only on what has happened or what we would like to happen, but on what is happening now. (Ghaye, 2011, p. 1).

In a nutshell, supporting faculty members in learning about critical reflection can also have the added benefit of making them aware of some of the potential pitfalls associated with reflection.

Having established the importance of teaching faculty members about reflection, it is necessary to examine a few models which can aid faculty members in the reflective process for their professional development. The stages in the critical reflection process discussed in Chapter three provide a foundation for these models.

8.3.2.1 Models of Reflection for Professional Development

We established in Chapter three that reflection is a staged approach and requires several skills, and that it is a personal awareness discovery process, with no agreed upon linear path. Furthermore, in the section above we discussed the importance of teaching faculty members about reflection, “as a means for them to examine their beliefs, values, and teaching practices” (Farrell, 2010, p. 36). This section builds on these by presenting several models of reflection that offer a structured approach to reflection for PD by faculty

members. The models presented will be particularly useful for faculty members that are not familiar with the concept of reflection.

The ALACT Model. Korthagen (1985) set out to contribute to the construction of a theory which makes explicit the relationship between the concept of reflection and fundamental views on good teaching. Korthagen (1985) published this model describing a process consisting of five phases, which student teachers can use to reflect and foster an inquiry-oriented approach to their practice. By so doing, they can learn and develop as professionals. Although Korthagen (1985) provided the model to help prospective teachers, the basic principles behind it are applicable to faculty members as discussed below. The five phases of reflection put forth by Korthagen (1985) are shown in Figure 8.1 and include: (1) action; (2) looking back on the action (analysis); (3) awareness of essential aspects; (4) creating alternative methods of action; and (5) trial. As can be seen, the name of the model (ALACT) is derived from the first letter of each phase, and is currently in use in several teacher education programs in the Netherlands and Australia (Korthagen, 2014).

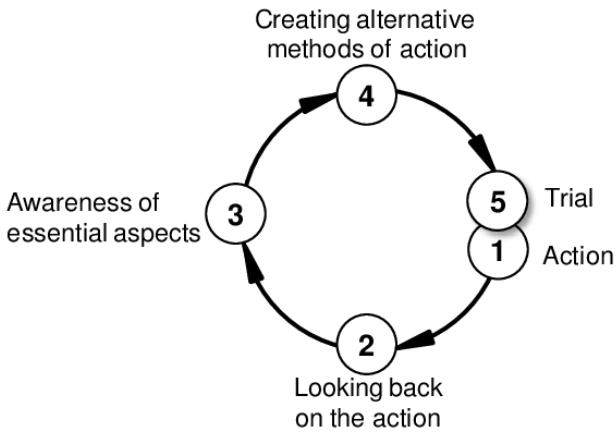

Figure 8.1 The ALACT model describing a structured process of reflection. Reprinted from *Promoting core reflection in teacher education: Deepening professional growth*, p. 5, by Korthagen (2014)

The action phase builds on the experiences of faculty members. These experiences are the basis on which faculty members can reflect on their practice. These experiences span both in-class and out of class experiences. Zeichner (1981) supports this notion – “reflection which is directed toward the improvement of practice does not necessarily need to take place within the boundaries of the classroom to have an impact” (p. 10). For example, conversations with colleagues during lunch breaks and department meetings can offer opportunities for reflection on one’s practice and the impact of the social and political landscape. As discussed in Chapter six, there are other experiences that can trigger the action of reflection among faculty members, specifically the APGP and student evaluations. In the second phase, faculty members analyse their actions to determine what worked and areas for improvement. Korthagen (2001) suggests eight questions that can serve as a guide for faculty members as they look back on the action. Four of the questions focus on the teacher - What did you want? What did you do? What were you thinking? How did you feel? – and four focus on the students, these are: What did the students want? What did the students do? What were the students thinking? How did the students feel? (p. 7). Finding answers to the last questions may be problematic for faculty members as they may have no idea about what their students are thinking or feeling. Nonetheless, “it is a good starting point for discussing the question what the faculty member could do in the next class to find answers” (Korthagen, 2001, p. 7).

The analysis of one’s actions gradually leads to an awareness of essential aspects of those actions (phase three). In order to arrive at meaning-oriented reflection, phase three is absolutely necessary. It involves the use of theory to

make meaning of the situation and one's actions. Korthagen (2001) distinguishes between theory with a small t and Theory with capital T.

> …theory with a small t should help the teacher to perceive those characteristics of the situation that are important to the question of how to act in the situation. This is a major difference with Theory with [a] capital T, formal academic theory, which aims at understanding a situation. This means that theory with a small t is not a reduction or simplification of formal academic knowledge, but fundamentally different in nature. Theory with [a] capital T is conceptual knowledge, generalized over many situations, theory with a small t is perceptual knowledge, personally relevant and closely linked to concrete contexts. (p. 8)

Phase three is the most critical aspect of the model because one's experiences lead to a shift in one's mental structure and approach, or the forming of a new mental structure. With each class, faculty members discover their personal style of teaching and use reflection as a tool to develop and grow in their practice. As part of the model, Korthagen (1985) also offers helping skills which supervisors can extend to teachers. For example, help in finding useful learning experiences; finding and choosing solutions; and in continuing the learning process; and acceptance, empathy, genuineness, concreteness. New faculty members (*newbies*) are likely to need more support from their supervisors than experienced ones (*veterans*). Gradually, as faculty members grow in their practice, they become more confident in their style as teachers and develop the skills needed to be reflective practitioners.

Although the ALACT model is helpful in providing faculty members with a structured process of reflection, it does not support them in knowing what to reflect on (Korthagen, 2014). This can easily make the reflection somewhat superficial; this is also referred to as surface reflection by Larrivee (2008). As mentioned previously, strong PD processes for faculty members should take into account the values, beliefs, and assumptions that lie beneath the surface. Korthagen (2014) refers to these as "second-order changes" (p. 6). To help facilitate these changes in faculty members, Korthagen proposes the Core Reflection Model, also known as the Onion Model. Since Korthagen conceptualized the model, he has applied it to various educational contexts with colleagues such as Annemarieke Hoekstra and Theo Wubbels.

The Onion Model. This model consists of various layers and utilizes a multi-level learning approach. The model centres on:

1. promoting meaning-oriented reflection;
2. addressing professional identity;
3. taking cognition, emotion, and motivation into account, without creating an artificial dichotomy between these aspects; and
4. building not only on negative but also on positive experiences. (Hoekstra & Korthagen, 2011, p. 78)

As seen in Figure 8.2, the model consists of six distinct layers in which teacher learning can take place: "environment, behavior, competencies, beliefs, identity, and personal mission (sometimes referred to as the layer of spirituality)" (Hoekstra & Korthagen, 2011, p. 79). Figure 8.2 also provides the questions related to each of the six layers. The layers show that there are

different levels in faculty members that can be influenced. The outer levels (environment and behavior) are at the surface level and can be directly observed by others. Specifically, the environment includes things like the classroom setting, the students, and the culture of the HE institution. Behavior, on the other hand, refers to how faculty members handle issues that arise in the environment. Together, the environment and behavior layers can be of the most concern to faculty members, as they lead them to focus on issues that are visible such as problems in the classroom and ways to address them.

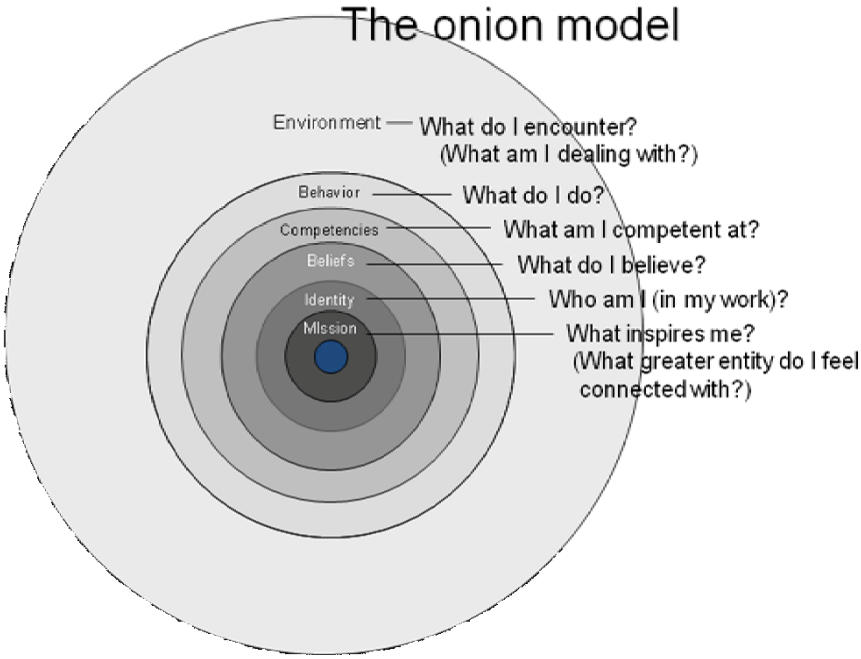

Figure 8.2 The onion model. Reprinted from Teacher learning in a context of educational change: Informal learning versus systematically supported learning, p. 79, by Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011)

Competencies refers to what the faculty member is proficient at doing. Korthagen (2004) makes a clear distinction between the levels of behavior and competencies.

Competencies are generally conceived of as an integrated body of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. As such, they represent a potential for

> behaviour, and not the behaviour itself. It depends on the circumstances whether the competencies are really put into practice, i.e. expressed in behaviour. (p. 80)

In practical terms, when a situation arises, faculty members not only reflect on what occurred and what to do, but are likely to react based on their competencies. That said, as faculty members reflect, it is important that they also focus on the inner layers to ensure that they identify solutions that are ideal and fit with their level of mission (the innermost layer of the Onion model). This demonstrates a level of interconnectedness within the first three outer and inner layers of the model. “A reverse influence, however, also exists, that is, from the inside to the outside” (Korthagen, 2004, p. 80). The first of the inner layers – belief – refers to what faculty members believe about a situation that they may find themselves and their outlook on the world, which is often unconscious. According to Korthagen (2004), the beliefs faculty members hold in regard to teaching and learning determines their actions. For example, a faculty member that believes learning is an individual endeavor is unlikely to seek PD opportunities to learn about collaborative learning techniques. One’s beliefs can also be shaped by past experiences, and can take the form of images (retained for example from previous school days), and emotional, volitional, and behavioral aspects (Korthagen & Lagerwerf, 1996). It is important for teachers to know what they believe because it can influence their decisions on PDAs.

The fifth layer of the onion model – identity – refers to how people define themselves in their professional role. This is often influenced by “critical past events, phases, and significant others” (Korthagen, 2004, p. 82). For example,

in a study by Koster, Korthagen, and Schrijnemakers (1995), which investigated the influence of previous teachers on student teachers, they discovered that former teachers can serve both as positive and negative role models for student teachers. Although professional identity is, by definition, an internalized identity (Brownell & Tanner, 2012), it influences the decisions and actions of faculty members, including decisions concerning participation in PDAs. Therefore, “the more that teachers know about themselves – the private curriculum within – the more their personal decisions are apt to be about how to pave the way for better teaching’’ (Hamachek, 1999, p. 82).

The final layer – mission – is concerned with what gives meaning and significance to the work of faculty members. It is concerned with the question of what moves and inspires faculty members to do what it is they do. Korthagen (2004) provides a clear distinction between identity and mission:

> Where the identity level is concerned with the personal singularity of the individual, the mission level is about the experience of being part of meaningful wholes and in harmony with superindividual units such as family, social group, culture and cosmic order. In short, it is about giving meaning to one’s own existence. (p. 85)

In the centre of the Onion model lies the core qualities of faculty members – enthusiasm, flexibility, curiosity, etc. To foster reflection for professional development, faculty members must seek to promote awareness of these core qualities and alignment between the six layers. The onion model enables faculty members to be mindful of the inner and outer influences on their practice, and to make a conscious effort to connect the level of mission.

The Farrell Model of Reflective Practice. This model was conceptualized by Thomas Farrell, a professor in applied linguistics. The model consists of five components:

1. Providing different opportunities for teachers to reflect through a range of different activities;
2. Building ground rules into the process and into each activity;
3. Making provisions for four different categories of time;
4. Providing external input for enriched reflection; and
5. Providing for low affective states. (2010, p. 37)

Figure 8.3 is a depiction of the model. As shown in the figure, all five components are interconnected. Each element builds on the other, and all should be treated as a whole (Farrell, 2010).

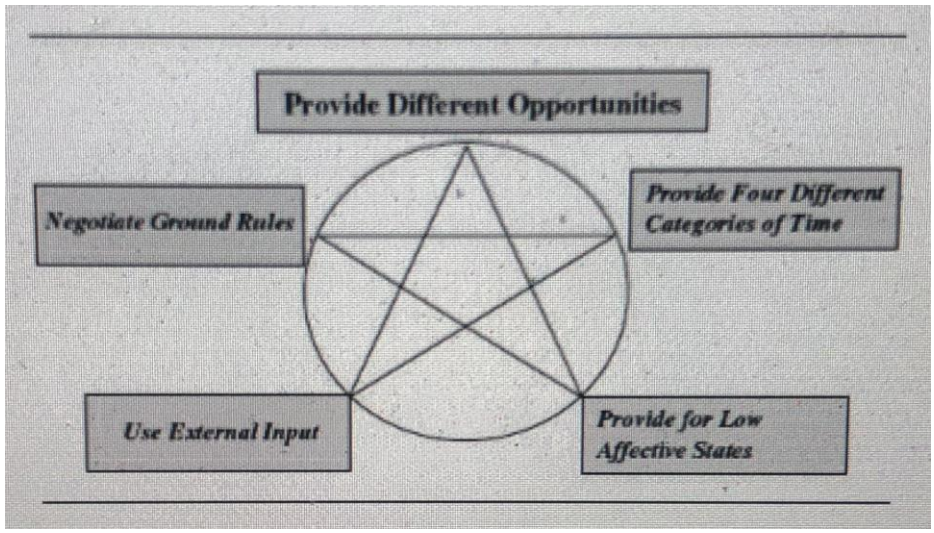

Figure 8.3 A model of reflective practice for teachers. Reprinted from *Reflective practice in action: 80 reflection breaks for busy teachers*, p. 37, by Farrell (2003)

The first component speaks to the importance of activities (referred to in this study as tools) that facilitate reflection among faculty members. Providing opportunities for faculty members to reflect on is the main component of this

model. Examples of activities that facilitate reflection include journal writing, teaching portfolios, coaching, classroom observation, and group discussions. The array of activities support both individual and collaborative reflection. As noted in Chapter six, not all faculty members want to engage in group reflection. Those that are not interested in getting feedback from others can focus on individual activities such as journal writing. For the implementation and practice of reflection to be effective, the four remaining components of the model are needed to establish a conducive environment for faculty members (Farrell, 2010).

The second component – negotiate ground rules – centres on the need for clear rules and guidelines to ensure a mutually beneficial and safe reflective environment for all. This is particularly important for collaborative reflection – group meetings, classroom observations, etc. With set ground rules, the activities for reflection are likely to be successful in ensuring meaningful reflection among groups. Ground rules help to answer pertinent questions like what are the protocols for meetings? Who will chair the meetings? What are the responsibilities of the observer during class observations? Will lectures be recorded? Ground rules also apply to individual activities for reflection to help ensure accountability. For example, for journal writing, one must decide in advance the frequency and types of entries, and the level of description. This may be challenging for individual faculty members, in which case one may want to consider engaging a critical friend to help deepen the reflection.

As stated in earlier sections of this chapter, time is a major deterrent for faculty reflection. Other studies have also found similar results. For example, Schön

(1991) identified four main practical issues for reflection among teachers, one of which is finding time to reflect. The third component of the above model is about faculty members giving due consideration to time for reflection. According to Farrell (2010), in the reflective process, time can be broken down into four different categories that help teachers begin thinking about reflective practice and how they intend to maintain it – individual, activity, development, and reflection (p. 42). Faculty members must individually assess the amount of time that they can commit to their reflection. This is even more critical for group reflection where group buy-in and participation is necessary for activities. Faculty members must also determine how much time to spend on each activity. For individual reflection, they can decide on their own what suits their schedule. However, for team activities, each group must negotiate issues like the number of classroom observations, and when journal entries will be submitted and read by others in the group for feedback. Development takes into account the fact that it takes faculty members varying lengths of times to develop new skills as a result of reflecting on their work. As Farrell (2010) notes, “analytical reflection takes time to develop and progresses at a rate specific to each teacher. This may also impact a pair or group of teachers, as individuals within the pair or group may develop at different speeds” (p. 43). Lastly, reflective time by faculty members has two aspects. The first is the amount of time dedicated to group meetings and the duration of the reflective practice. The second is the amount of time dedicated to reflection itself each time groups meet. Farrell (2010) recommends that groups dedicate at least a semester to meeting as a group due to the length of time that it typically takes to become adept at reflection (p. 44).

The third component of the model is the use of external input. External input helps to ensure deeper levels of reflection and includes professional journals, lessons learned from research and literature on teaching practice, published case studies, and others' theories. Without external input, groups of faculty members are likely to readily accept and support each other's opinions regarding their teaching, which may inhibit change. As discussed in the next chapter, faculty members at the college currently rely on external resources such as professional journals for their choice of PDAs. If used in a reflective manner, in conjunction with the other components of the model, faculty members can use these external inputs to examine their beliefs, values, and teaching practices.

The final component of the model takes into account the difficulties that are associated with reflection. Changing one's teaching practice is not easy. To change years of practice takes time and can sometimes lead to anxiety. This is why faculty members must ensure that reflection takes place in a supportive and nonthreatening environment. Farrell (2010) suggests ways for groups to incorporate low anxiety measures into their meetings. For example, consciously emphasizing description and observation over critical judgement.

Multi-dimensional Model of Reflection. This model, presented by Black and Plowright (2010), shows the underlying complexities of reflective learning for professional development. As seen in Figure 8.4, the model represents the learning process of individuals through three dimensions of reflection – the source of reflection, the target of reflection, and the purpose of reflection.

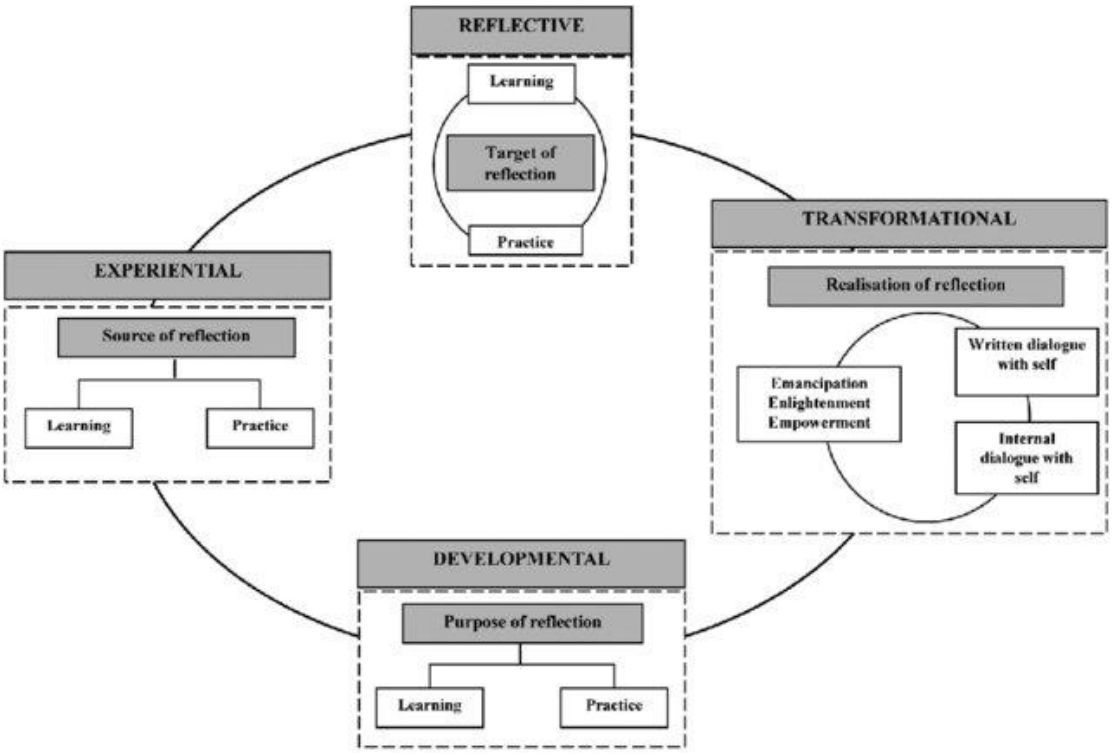

Figure 8.4 A multi-dimensional model of reflective learning for professional development. Reprinted from *A multi-dimensional model of reflective learning for professional development*, p. 251, by Black and Plowright (2010)

The source of reflection for faculty members can be learning experiences (formal or informal) and professional practice experiences. Formal learning experiences may include engagement in teaching and learning sessions and conferences. Informal learning experiences, on the other hand, are experiences that are not part of a faculty member's routine practice, and may include activities such as reading a book or listening to a podcast. Informal learning experiences can also be seen as non-traditional PDAs that contribute to a faculty member's knowledge and understanding. Professional practice experiences refer to experiences that relate directly to one's teaching practice, such as course delivery. The second dimension of reflection presented in Figure 8.4 is the target of reflection. For faculty members this also includes two elements – reflection on learning and reflection on professional practice (Black & Plowright, 2010). The final dimension of reflection – the purpose of reflection

– has two aims. The first is to promote knowledge and understanding, while the second is to improve one's professional practice. There is a causal relationship between both in that as a faculty member reflects, with the aim of developing as a professional, new knowledge gained can lead to improvement in professional practice. The final element of the multi-dimensional model of reflection is the realisation of reflection. This can be facilitated through the use of tools and techniques such as reflective journals and coaching to help faculty members think through and reflect on their learning and professional practice. It can also take place individually (self-reflection) or in a group (reflective community), and can lead to emancipation, enlightenment, and empowerment.

As the study by Black and Plowright (2010) demonstrates, the progression from each of the dimensions of reflection leads to a greater understanding of one's professional practice. This stages of progression are seen throughout all the models.

The models discussed above serve as guides for faculty members as they learn to reflect and use them as a tool to inform their CPD. While not all faculty members will become critically reflective teachers, nonetheless it is the desired goal to reach over the course of one's professional career (Larrivee, 2008). A major drawback about the models is the minimal focus on the role of others in reflection. Aside from the Farrell Model of Reflective Practice, no other model makes provision for adaptation to suit self-reflection and group reflection. As discussed in Chapters three and six, dialogue with others (critical friends) can help faculty members to make sense of their practice and to discover aspects of it which otherwise may remain hidden to them.

We established in this chapter that faculty members reflect but do not necessarily engage in critical reflection of their PD needs. This raises a pertinent question – how do faculty members currently identify PD initiatives? The next chapter examines this question further. In addition, Chapter nine further explores reflection as a means to CPD, with insights from reflective thinking theory.

Chapter 9 Discussion of Findings: Identification of Professional Development Activities by Faculty Members, and Summary of Findings

The discussions in this chapter build on previous chapters and focus specifically on the fourth research question – how do faculty members identify PD initiatives that enhance their professional growth? So far, we have established the importance of faculty engagement in meaningful and relevant CPD in today's academic environment; the role of critical reflection in informing one's practice; how little reflection currently informs CPD among faculty members at the college due to time and workload; and the types of PDA supported by the college. This chapter discusses the three ways in which faculty members currently identify PD initiatives aimed at enhancing their professional development, namely, self-interest, external sources to the college, and sources internal to the college. It also presents a summary of the research outcomes and the contribution to knowledge.

9.1 How Faculty Members Identify PDA

At the heart of this research is understanding to what extent faculty members use reflection as a tool to direct their steps regarding CPD. The findings show that though faculty members agree unanimously that reflection is important and contributes to lifelong learning and growth in one's practice, there is very little evidence that they actually engage in deliberate and systematic reflection on their practice. On the contrary, their choices for CPD are mainly guided by self-interest, external resources, and internal resources.

9.1.1 Self-interest

Self-interest refers to the various personal considerations that faculty members take into account when planning their CPD. It includes, interest in a particular topic or area, what works with their schedule, and planned personal growth trajectories. Below are sample excerpts from interviewees.

Interest in a particular topic or area: “I choose my CPD based on my interest, or my field” (interviewee 41, active veteran). Interviewee 36, a non-active newbie, also noted that “when I choose my professional development activity, I consider what is of interest to me at the moment, which has shifted over time”.

One’s schedule: “[W]hen I see professional development opportunities, I decide whether or not I am interested in them based on my schedule” (interviewee 7, active veteran). Likewise, “[M]y choice of CPD tends to be what works for me…sometimes it comes down to just logistics of where and when the activity is taking place” (interviewee 32, active veteran).

On planned personal growth trajectories: “[W]hen choosing my CPD, I look at areas where I think there might be opportunities for growth, and there might be demand for those skills” (interviewee 42, non-active newbie); and “when I choose my CPD I ask myself where do I see myself in a few years?” (interviewee 4, non-active mid-career professional).

The above excerpts paint a picture of how self-interest drives CPD selection by most faculty members. What is striking from the interviews is the lack of mention of planning or discussion of tools that guide these CPD choices. This is also consistent with discussions regarding external and internal sources.

9.1.2 External Resources

External sources refers to groups outside of the college that influence the selection of CPD by faculty members. These include professional designation bodies and associations, e-newsletters, and peers at other institutions. For example, interviewee 12, an active newbie with over seven years of experience in the HE sector, noted

> I am subscribed to professional memberships and I think that they are great. With those professional memberships, I basically get emails sent to me that highlight training in certain areas in my field. And basically, due to that I get some CPD opportunities there.

Interviewee 15, a non-active veteran who also has over seven years of experience in the HE sector, also noted, “I use a lot of networking with my peers…both in post-secondary institutions as well as regulatory professional bodies and provincial bodies”. It is important to note that while faculty members identified CPD opportunities via external sources, it did not mean, necessarily, that they took advantage of every opportunity. The external sources served more as an awareness mechanism of available CPD opportunities. Overall, faculty members strived to take advantage of those opportunities when possible.

9.1.3 Internal Resources

Another important way in which faculty members identify CPD opportunities are through sources internal to the college, such as colleagues and supervisors. Through consultations and discussions with colleagues and supervisors, faculty members are made aware of CPD opportunities that could benefit their learning

and growth. According to interviewee 27, an active veteran in the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading, “part of how I identify CPD opportunities is through consultation with peers and colleagues at the college”. Likewise, interviewee 45, who is also from the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading, also made mention of “word-of-mouth with other colleagues at the college”. For interviewees 7 and 42, conversations and emails from their supervisors are also important aspects of how they identify CPD opportunities. For example, interviewee 7, an active veteran from the School of University Studies, Career Programs, and Academic Upgrading noted, “my department chair forwards me emails regarding important CPD opportunities. Recently, they sent me information about an international conference taking place in the province”.

Similar to external sources, it did not mean that faculty members took advantage of every CPD opportunity that they identified internally, as interviewee 7 alluded to further – “if it was easier to get to the conference, I might have gone to it. But it’s a bit of a process to get everything organized, and then go away from your responsibilities in the community here”.

Through self-interest, external, and internal sources, faculty members are exposed to many CPD opportunities. It was not clear through the interviews how faculty members assessed the applicability and relevance of each opportunity to their professional growth, and, ultimately, how they decided on a particular CPD opportunity. This is not to say that there is not an informal process inherent in how faculty members choose their CPD activities. As professionals, faculty members know their practice best and are in the best

position to identify areas for development. However, in a time of resource constraints and growing scrutiny by administrators, there is a need for a more structured approach to how faculty members identify CPD opportunities that inform their practice. Whatever the approach, it must be integrated into the daily activities of educators.

9.2 Summary of Research Outcomes

This study set out to examine reflection as a means for faculty engagement in CPD. To accomplish this task, four research question were posed. Table 9.1 captures the research questions, along with a summary of the research outcomes.

Research Questions (RQ)	Research Outcomes
RQ 1. What are faculty members' perceptions about reflection?	1) The most common view of reflection by faculty members is reflection-on-practice, regardless of their trajectory into HE. 2) Faculty members place greater emphasis on thinking and planning for action, and less emphasis on action itself. 3) The major reason for engaging in reflection is to improve one's practice. 4) The main activities and experiences that trigger reflection among faculty members include the APGP, student evaluations, and interactions with colleagues. 5) Though some faculty members acknowledged the importance of group reflection, others saw reflection as a private and individual endeavour, partly due to mistrust of management.
RQ 2. Do faculty members believe that reflection could facilitate responsibility and participation in PDA?	1) All interviewees agreed that reflection can serve as a tool to help faculty members grow as professionals, aide in lifelong learning, and meet the learning needs of students. 2) The main roadblocks that hinder faculty members from pursuing CPD include time and workload, and the types of PDA supported by the college.

RQ 3. To what extent do faculty members reflect on their professional development needs?	1) Faculty members in particular areas of specialization (e.g. health and human services, and English language instruction) are more familiar with the concept of reflection. 2) The majority of interviewees indicated they reflect on their practice and PD needs on an ongoing basis. 3) For reflection to be meaningful, faculty members ought to take a critical approach to reflection by being purposeful with their reflection, with the end objective of forming a deeper understanding about something and identifying new possibilities. 4) Allocating time for reflection and supporting learning opportunities about reflection are two ways in which the college and faculty members can help promote critical reflection.
RQ 4. How do faculty members identify professional development initiatives that enhance their professional growth?	1) The identification of PDA by faculty members is driven by self-interest, internal sources and external sources to the college. 2) Key attributes by the college and faculty members also play a key role in driving reflection.

Table 9.1 Research questions and a summary of the research outcomes

As shown in Table 9.1 all interviewees, regardless of their trajectory into HE, believe reflection to be an important tool for teachers. This is consistent with other studies by Çimer, Çimer, and Vekli (2013); Wood and Bennett (2000); Yost, Sentner, and Forlenza-Bailey (2000). Reflection helps teachers to reflect on their practice and identify meaningful and relevant CPD initiatives. These findings not only apply to faculty members at the college but have implications for HE teachers in general. In using reflection as a tool, there are several key points for all faculty members to note.

1) "Reflection is not an end in itself but a tool or vehicle used in the transformation of raw experience into meaning-filled theory that is grounded in experience, informed by existing theory, and serves the larger purpose of the moral growth of the individual and society" (Rodgers, 2002, p. 863).
2) Reflection is an iterative process that spirals from one's teaching practice and is driven by key attributes.
3) Reflection involves the use of diverse tools and techniques such as reflective writing, journals, e-portfolios, diaries, and group discussions.
4) The institutional context impacts the level of engagement of faculty members, what kinds of reflection it is possible to foster, and the ways in which this might be done (Boud & Walker, 1998).
5) HEIs (specifically, management), should not lead the charge on reflective practice, or attempt to make it mandatory. It should be a collaborative endeavor built on trust between faculty members and management.

6) Reflection is an exercise that is best driven by the individual and supported by colleagues and management. Management can empower individuals by allowing time for reflection on one's practice and supporting opportunities for individuals to learn about reflection. Individuals, in turn, need to commit to and maximize available time to learn about reflection and engage in it.
7) Reflection is highly context specific, and, as such, needs to be flexibly deployed (Boud & Walker, 1998).
8) Reflection is not thinking, and reflection can be learned. "While we cannot learn or be taught to think, we do have to learn how to think well, especially acquire the general habit of reflecting" (Boud & Walker, 1998).

Despite the promise of reflection as a powerful tool for engagement in CPD, there are several challenges to keep in mind. The first, and perhaps most important, is time. Reflection requires time to make meaning of one's experiences. This poses a great challenge given the growing demands on faculty time. Also connected with time is the variation in the number of times faculty members engage in reflective practice, something that Wood and Bennett (2000) observed as well. Some faculty members noted that they reflect on an ongoing basis, while others say they reflect sparingly or not at all. As discussed in Chapter eight, the variations in the number of times faculty members reflect can be associated with workload, knowledge of how to engage in reflective practice, and the field of specialization. Another challenge associated with reflection is determining what constitutes evidence of it. Researchers (e.g. Dinkelman, 2003; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Reynolds, 2011;

Wilson & Berne, 1999) continue to grapple with documenting teacher knowledge due to reflection, and identifying an operational framework that can help with the assessment of reflection. Though some studies have used discourse analysis as a technique to help address this gap (Wilson & Berne, 1999), it requires considerable commitment to examining teacher talk in interviews, group conversations, and classroom behaviors and also requires significant amounts of resources, particularly time and energy.

Given the challenge of determining what constitutes evidence of reflection, HEIs may be better served by focusing on the linkage between reflection, professional development, teaching practice and student achievement. As discussed in Chapter three, several research studies on reflection (and self-study) (e.g. Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1990; and Zeichner, 1993) claim that the process helps to generate knowledge that is useful in improving one's own work. More so, the growing research on reflection is not only creating exposure to accounts of engagement of teachers in reflection, but also shows that teachers are finding value in it.

Chapter 10 Conclusion

This chapter presents the contribution to knowledge made by the study, and limitations and opportunities for further research. This is followed by concluding remarks about the research.

10.1 Theoretical Contributions

One thing is clear from this study – critical reflection is a complex enterprise with varying factors that influence one's ability to reflect on their practice. Despite the complexity of reflection, it serves as a means for faculty engagement in meaningful CPD. This is important given the centrality of CPD to professional activity (Cole, 2000). Specifically, CPD is a vital part of the professional growth of faculty members, it contributes to knowledge building and helps to ensure that faculty members remain current with their practice. The findings from this research align with several aspects of the theory on reflection and CPD. There are also additional considerations to take into account, as presented in this section.

Findings from this study contribute to the discourse and align with the theory on the importance of self and others in one's immediate environment in the practice of reflection. In fact, internal resources (including the exchange of ideas with colleagues and one's supervisor) are one of the primary ways in which participants of this study identify PDA. As noted by Raelin (2001) and Vangrieken, Meredith, Packer, and Kyndt (2017), reflecting on one's own experiences and those of colleagues provide a basis for inquiry and action towards the improvement of one's practice. Such experiences can stem from reading, peer mentorship and coaching, and reflective journaling (Ferman,

2002). Dialogue with others help faculty members make sense of their experiences, share ideas, and learn from colleagues. Also of importance in the discourse of self and others in reflection, is support for the various kinds of reflection. As discussed in Chapter three, the literature on reflection identifies four main kinds: reflection-on-practice, reflection-in-action, reflection-for-action, and reflection-with-action. Like other studies (e.g. Ghaye, 2010), findings from this research point to reflection-on-practice as the dominant view that faculty members have about reflection. More needs to be done to promote the various kinds of reflection, not just reflection-on practice. This can be achieved through information sessions, electronic distribution of materials, and one-on-one support by the instructional development offices at HEIs.

Another important contribution made by this study is it affirms the theory on the criticality of time and support for meaningful reflection to take place. As Cole (1997) noted, “teachers are fundamentally reflective practitioners who strive to develop and grow as persons and professionals. And yet, in day-to-day professional lives this notion is not always readily apparent or easily actualized” (p. 13). As per the findings from this study, the lack of support from management and balancing multiple priorities, including the growing demands on workload, impact faculty engagement in critical reflection. Until “these issues are addressed teachers will not be able to freely and meaningfully engage in the kind of reflective practice and CPD that brings meaning to their own lives and the lives of their students” (Cole, 1997, p. 14).

An additional consideration in the discourse of reflection and CPD is the lack of consensus in the literature about how reflection is evidenced and the varied

knowledge faculty members have about reflective practice (including how to become a more reflective practitioner). Researchers such as Dinkelman (2003), Farrell (2012) and Ghaye (2010) discuss the importance of faculty members making deliberate and systematic attempts to reflect on their practice. However, for faculty members to achieve this, they first need support with information and training on reflection. As noted in the findings from this study, several participants expressed not knowing what reflection is and had limited knowledge on how to go about becoming a more reflective practitioner. The models offered by Korthagen (1985), Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011), Farrell (2010), and Black and Plowright (2010), serve as a starting point to help guide faculty members to becoming more reflective practitioners, and use reflection for professional development. These models (e.g. the ALACT model, the Onion model, the Farrell Model of Reflective Practice, and the Multi-dimensional Model of Reflection) were discussed in Chapter eight. Though the models provide a roadmap for faculty members, more research is needed to test their usefulness and viability for promoting reflective practice among HE practitioners.

10.2 Practical Contributions and Recommendations

Reflective thinking theory provides a foundation on which we can begin to make sense of our reflection as a means to CPD. “Theory can help us ‘name’ our practice by illuminating the general elements of what we think are idiosyncratic experiences” (Brookfield, 1998, p. 200). Theory not only provides us with multiple perspectives on situations but can ultimately help to inform the improvement of our practice. A model of how this can be achieved follows.

The model stems from findings from this study and insights from the literature on reflective practice and CPD, and serves as a practical suggestion for practitioners on how reflection can guide their engagement in meaningful CPD. Future research is required to explore and test how this model might contribute to faculty reflection and improvements in teaching practice.

10.2.1 Double Loop Model for Reflection

As stated earlier, reflection is a powerful tool that can help faculty members interpret their experiences as teachers and make informed decisions about their CPD. Figure 10.1 illustrates how this can be achieved.

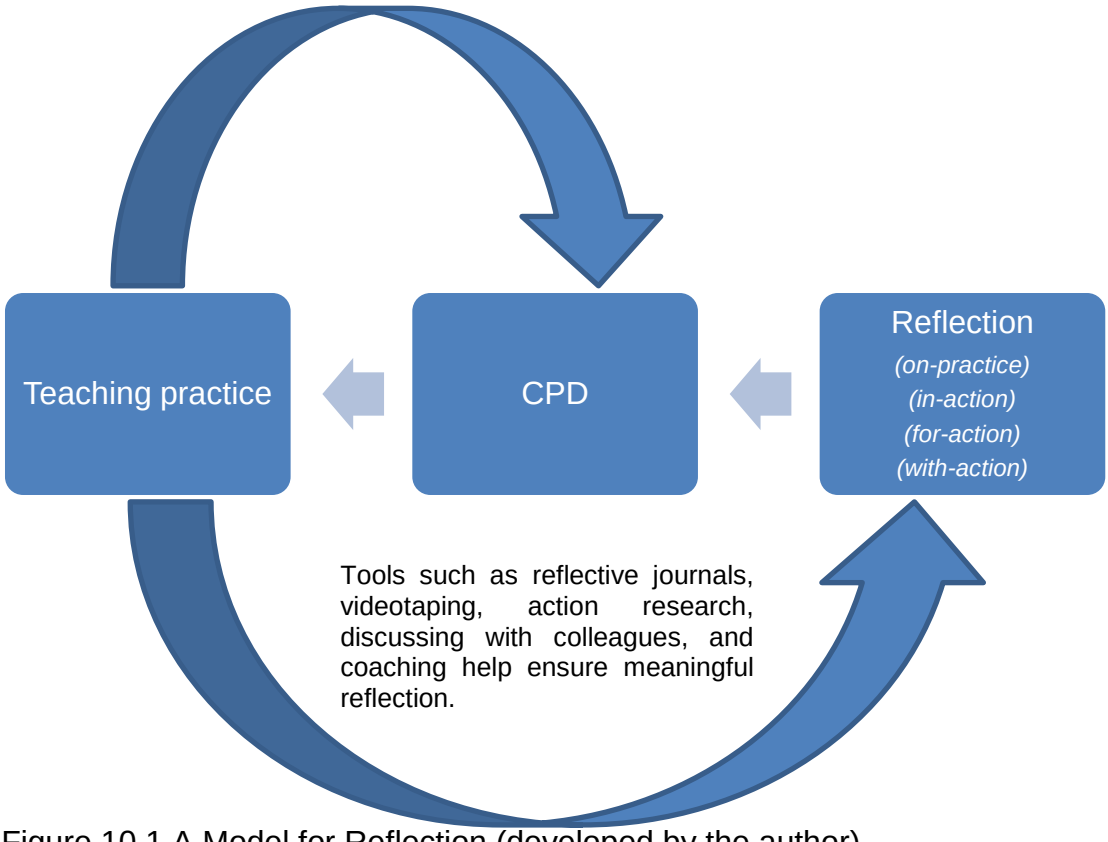

Figure 10.1 A Model for Reflection (developed by the author)

As faculty members reflect on critical moments or actions in their teaching practice, they are able to build on strengths and identify gaps and opportunities

for growth. Tools help them reflect on their teaching and set goals for its improvement, for example,

> by thinking and writing about their lesson and its strengths and weaknesses in a journal; by videotaping their lesson and watching it later; by discussing any of their written reflections or questions with colleagues; or by watching someone else teach and using their style as a tool to reflect on their own style (Bilash, n.d.).

Reflection is a continuous process of thinking and rethinking of one's practice. Double loop reflection occurs when an experience triggers us to rethink our approach and make modifications to our practice. As mentioned earlier, the faculty APGP, student evaluations, and interactions with colleagues are examples of triggers that can lead faculty members to reflect on their approach.

The model shown in Figure 10.1 is similar to other models of reflection that have been advanced in the field of education (for example, Gibb's reflective cycle) in that it involves three fundamental processes (see Quinn, 2000, p. 82).

1) Thinking back about a situation or experience.
2) Critically analysing and evaluating the actions and feelings associated with the experience, using theoretical perspectives.
3) Using the results of self-evaluation to influence future approaches to similar situations or experiences

In addition to the fundamental processes of retrospection, self-evaluation, and reorientation, Figure 10.1 accounts for the iterative nature of reflection and factors in reflection as a means for CPD, that is, using the results of reflection

to not only influence future approaches to similar situations or experiences, but also guide CPD to lead to growth and improvements in one's practice.

The full value of the model depicted in Figure 10.1 cannot be experienced without some key attributes by both the college and faculty members. Attributes help drive critical reflection, as discussed in the next section.

10.2.2 Attributes and Skills

In order to engage in reflection, faculty members need to have at least four attributes; referred to by Rodgers (2002) as attitudes. They are, open-mindedness, responsibility, wholeheartedness, and directness (see Table 10.1) (Farrell, 2012 & Rodgers, 2002). Together, these four attributes increase the chance of faculty members broadening their knowledge and awareness. "Of course, one is seldom wholly open-minded, wholehearted, and so forth, or wholly fearful or needy. We are usually a combination of many of these" (Rodgers, 2002).

Open-mindedness refers to the willingness to listen to multiple views and perspectives about a subject or issue. Responsibility is having the learner at heart when reflecting and considering corrective actions. Wholeheartedness means full commitment and enthusiasm by faculty members to their subject area, regardless of any fears and uncertainties that they may encounter. Lastly, "directness implies a belief that something is worth doing" (Farrell, 2012, p. 15).

	Attributes
Faculty members	Open-mindedness, responsibility, wholeheartedness, and directness
The college	Leading by example and promoting a culture of respect for faculty knowledge

Table 10.1 Attributes by individuals and HEIs that support reflection

In addition to the attributes, teachers require certain skills to aid in their reflection. As discussed in Chapter three, critical inquiry, self-reflection, synthesis, and evaluation are skills that aid reflection and reflective processes. As such, they should form part of any model for reflection. Critical inquiry involves careful consideration of the implications and consequences of our practices; self-reflection refers to periodically stepping back to assess one's actions and assumptions, and how external factors (such as society and politics) impact them; synthesis entails the integration of past and current knowledge to address issues in our practice; and evaluation has to do with assessment of something and determining which changes may be required.

Attributes apply to HEIs as well. Table 10.1 captures the two key attributes that were suggested by interviewees as being crucial to help drive reflection among faculty members. Leading by example refers to support from management by talking about reflection and encouraging its use as a tool to facilitate faculty engagement in meaningful CPD. This includes building time into faculty schedules to allow for reflection. Promoting a culture of respect for faculty knowledge implies the recognition of faculty members as professionals. "Faculty members want to feel respected and that they have control over their own professional development" (interviewee 23).

Further to the key attributes for HEIs mentioned above, the school setting matters as well. Reflective practice is likely to thrive in a HE environment that allows for informal interaction between faculty members, creative problem solving, and resources for CPD activities. For example, a study by Goodman (1984) found that student teachers thrived in settings that allowed them to be themselves and share their experiences freely during group reflections. The depth of reflection by student teachers varied in depth based on three levels of environment – liberal, utilitarian, and analytic. Student teachers in a liberal environment found it to be welcoming of new ideas, techniques, and approaches to teaching. This led more student teachers to reflect on themselves and their teaching, whereas a utilitarian environment did not allow for deep learning and exchanges among participants. According to Goodman (1984),

> The lack of penetration into the complexities of education prevented any in-depth inquiry. Substantive questioning of the curriculum (what's worth teaching and why), the nature and purpose of instruction, the complexity of interpersonal relationships, the power structure of schools/classrooms, and the role of school in society were rarely discussed (p. 16).

The analytical environment made it possible for analytical discussions to take place between student participants. There were opportunities for students to spontaneously raise educational problems and analyze the underlying principles, implications, and issues (Goodman, 1984, p. 17). Therefore, for reflection to take root among faculty members, HEIs must ensure that the

academic environment allows for the open debate of issues, ideas, beliefs, and perceptions, without faculty members becoming defensive or being scared of retaliation from colleagues or management.

We can therefore modify the model presented earlier (Figure 10.1) to account for these skills and factors, and the attributes in Table 10.1. As shown in Figure 10.2, the attributes and skills of faculty members and the college help drive reflection and form part of the proposed model for reflection.

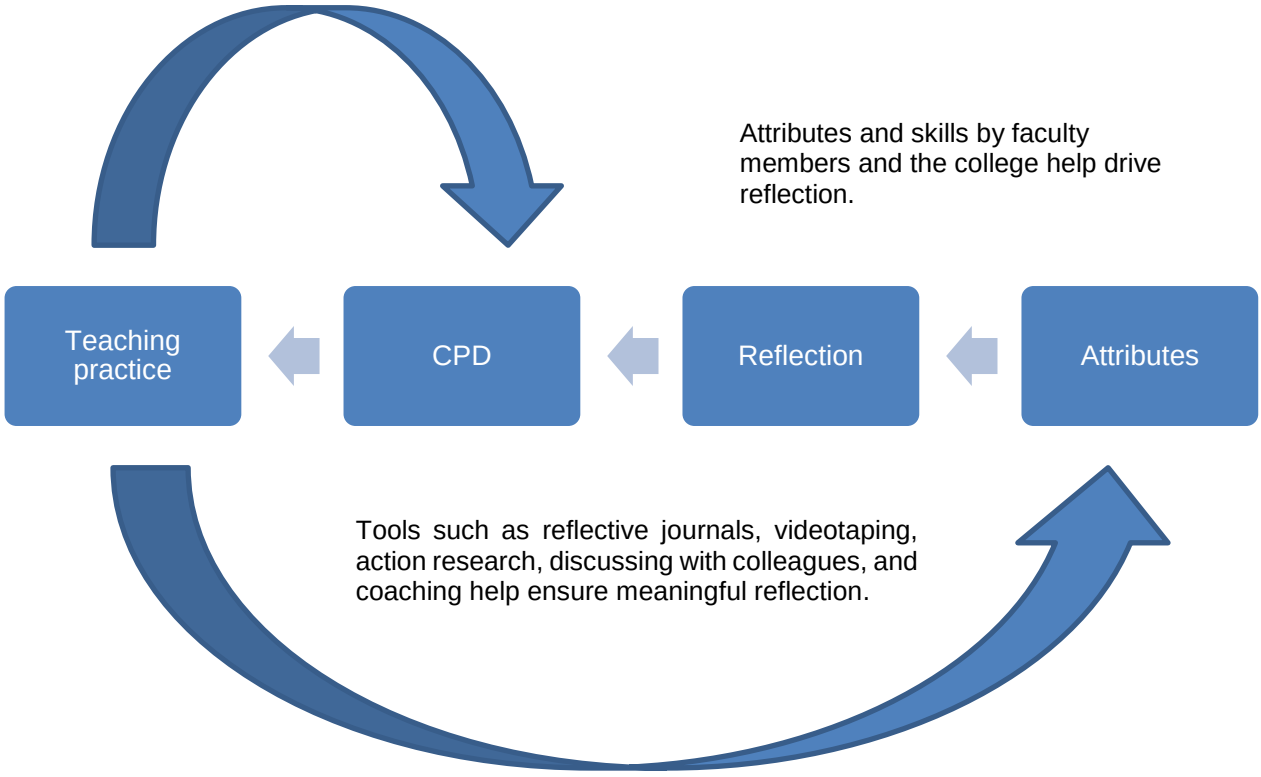

Figure 10.2 An Updated Model for Reflection (developed by the author)

The updated model for reflection (Figure 10.2) presents a broader and more critical approach to reflection that will help faculty members move beyond just thinking about issues to critically examining their actions and how their practice can lead to change, commitment to quality, and meaningful CPD.

10.3 Limitations and Further Research

One limitation of this research is that the results may not be fully generalizable to a wider context. This may be attributed to two factors. Firstly, the research examined CPD and reflection within a particular college and as a result, may not fully account for between-college variation. For instance, even at a regional level, colleges may vary in CPD policies compared to the focal college being studied. Such variations may also apply to employee perceptions of reflection and attitudes towards CPD at the college level. Also, additional sources of variation may come from distinct schools (departments) within colleges, and individual traits or characteristics with respect to the professional identity of faculty members. Hence, findings from this research may be better qualified by research from a more robust design, which takes into account within - as well as between - college variations in faculty perceptions of reflection as a means for engagement in CPD. Secondly, the extent to which one can extrapolate based on the findings from this study may be limited by the cross-sectional nature of the survey data. Further research may address this concern by adopting two potential approaches, which may aid validation of the current findings: (1) a large scale regional or country-level study, which adopts a stratified sampling technique, or (2) a qualitative longitudinal study – that is, a study design with repeated observations over time – which uses discourse analysis as a technique.

Further research is also needed to determine to what extent triggers for reflection actually encourage reflection, when used effectively. As stated in earlier parts of this study, as reflection as a means to improve professional practice continues to grow in popularity and usage, it is important to start to

transition towards the identification of ways in which reflective processes can be evidenced. It is not sufficient to assert that reflection is encouraged by a procedure or technique, means must be specified to demonstrate that particular kinds of reflecting are taking place (Smith & Hatton, 1992).

10.4 Concluding Remarks

Regardless of the limitations, the current research benefits from multiple data sources and trajectories into HE. It also provides an initial framework towards understanding the use of reflection by faculty members as a means for engagement in CPD. Specifically, it discusses the common views faculty members have about reflection and to what extent they believe it could facilitate responsibility and participation in PDA. Furthermore, this study helps us comprehend to what extent faculty members reflect on their PD needs and how they identify PDA that enhance their professional growth.

As discussed in this study, the use of reflection as a tool to inform one's CPD is not without its challenges. However, through a collaborative partnership that is built on trust, teachers and management can overcome these challenges and promote the use of reflection among faculty members.

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