Locus of Control, Organizational Climate, and Participation In Staff Development: A Study of College Instructors

by

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify the factors affecting community college instructors' participation in staff development activities. The literature pertaining to social learning theory suggested that both situational and personal factors affected behavior. Therefore, sex, academic attainment, college teaching experience, locus of control, and organizational climate were the independent variables included in the study.

A theoretical model incorporating these variables was developed. The model suggested that each of the independent variables affected staff development participation rates directly. It also suggested that locus of control and organizational climate intervened between the effects of the other variables on staff development participation rates.

Data regarding these variables were collected by questionnaires distributed to approximately 400 full-time instructors at Red River Community College in Winnipeg, in early April, 1988. Three scales measuring participation in different dimensions of staff development activity were created, and instructors were asked to assess their participation on each dimension. In addition, two dimensions of organizational climate and three dimensions of locus of control were identified through factor analyses and principal components analyses, and scales to measure these dimensions of the two variables were created. Three levels of academic attainment and five categories of college teaching experience were also identified.

After defining the variables, Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients and multiple regression coefficients were computed to determine the bivariate and multivariate relationships between the variables. The study found that sex, academic attainment, college teaching experience, locus of control, and organizational climate explained between 3.9 and 10.5 per cent of the variance in staff development participation rates. Higher participation rates were associated with fewer years of college teaching experience, internal locus of control orientations, and perceptions that the organizational climate supported work goal achievement.

In explaining these findings, it was argued that instructors with more teaching experience possibly had more

external locus of control orientations, and that their staff development participation levels might be partially attributable to the structure of the reward system in the colleges. It was further argued that unless instructors believed that participation in staff development activities improved performance, and that good performance was desirable, participation levels might be affected. The key role of the administrator in encouraging staff development was suggested.

Given the size of the remaining unexplained variance in staff development participation rates, further research is recommended to determine whether results are attributable to the theoretical model itself, the methodology employed, or the sample.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The staff development movement emerged in Canada and the United States in the early 1970's, as educational administrators attempted to deflect public criticisms of the post-secondary educational sector (Campbell, 1977; Centra, 1978; Konrad, 1983; Nelsen, 1983). In Canada, these criticisms arose in part from disappointment with the results that had emanated from the expansion of the post-secondary educational sector in the previous decade. At that time, the public had funded the creation of a community college system. The expectation was that the provision of greater vocational training opportunities to supplement the academic training available at universities would allow Canadians to meet the labour market needs of a rapidly evolving technological society, without having to import skilled workers from outside the country (Dennison, 1984). When dislocations in the labour market persisted, the public re-examined the post-secondary educational system, and began to express concerns about the quality of instruction in colleges and universities, the non-responsiveness of these institutions to changes in the marketplace, and their

reluctance to incorporate new knowledge about adult learning, human development, and instruction into the classroom (Campbell, 1977; Dennison & Gallagher, 1986; Konrad, 1983). In response to public demands for greater institutional accountability and flexibility (Parliamentary Task Force On Employment Prospects For The Eighties, 1981), and assurances of some advocates that staff development would enhance instructional excellence Blackburn & Baldwin, 1983; Dillon-Peterson, 1981; Glenn, 1976; Kozoll & Moore, 1979), administrators began allocating additional funds to staff development, knowing that the major resources available to them were the instructors. The effectiveness of the initiatives was diminished, however, because of the low morale of the faculty, and non-participation by the instructors in greatest need of improvement was reported (Konrad, 1983). Concerns were expressed about the ability and willingness of the instructors to respond to the challenges they faced (Bumpus,1983; Cross, 1977; Nelsen, 1983; Schuster, 1985).

The evaluation of these staff development efforts proved disappointing. While some programs were obviously successful in terms of outcomes and participant satisfaction, some of the participants in other programs spoke disparagingly about program effectiveness and were highly resistant to further involvement in staff development activities (Gaff &

Morstain, 1978; Siegel, 1980). Another concern was that follow-up studies on some of the "successful" programs had indicated that the impact of staff development activities had been short-lived.

When the uniformly positive results that had been expected from these staff development initiatives failed to materialize, questions were raised about faculty resistance and the short-term impact of these programs. Reasons put forward for faculty resistance were numerous: instructors did not recognize the need for better instruction; they were pessimistic about the outcomes of staff development programs; they did not feel that staff development efforts were geared to their needs; the organization did not demonstrate a clear commitment to staff development; and the necessary technical and social supports did not exist (Armes & O'Banion, 1983; Cross, 1977; Gaff, 1978; Group For Human Development In Higher Education, 1974; Nelsen, 1980; Schuster, 1985). In one case it was suggested that the organizational structure was responsible for low faculty participation (O'Connell, 1983), and in another that an examination of the organizational environment might be helpful in explaining the short-term impact of these programs (Toombs, 1983). However, little effort was made to assimilate or reconcile the contradictory explanations for the success and/or failure of programs, or to develop and

test models that explained the prerequisites of successful staff development programs.

The failure to examine the determinants of program success and failure empirically was not the only problem with this research. There was also a tendency among researchers to address questions about the effectiveness of various staff development activities to the persons in charge of staff development, rather than to the instructors themselves, and as O'Connell (1983) pointed out, administrators' perceptions and those of instructors were apt to be very different. Since administrators wanted instructors to participate in staff development programs to ensure their effectiveness, they had to make the instructors' participation worthwhile. Programs had to be geared to instructors' needs, not administrators' perceptions of their needs, in order to be more effective. Consequently, direct instructor input was needed to make programs effective.

The Problem

Therefore, while educational administrators conscientiously expended staff development funds in an effort to improve instructional effectiveness and appease the public, the instructors' perceived needs were overlooked and a theoretical framework to guide administrators' efforts

to develop effective staff development programs was virtually non-existent. There was a need to identify the prerequisites of effective staff development programs. It was argued that one of these prerequisites was the instructors' willingness to participate in such programs. Identifying the factors that influenced that decision, from the instructors' viewpoint, was the intent of this study.

A social-psychological perspective was taken to identify the variables that affected staff development participation rates (Clark et al., 1986; McGinnies, 1970; Mead, 1934; Pugh, 1969; Schneider, 1983). Social learning theory acknowledged that personal characteristics had a major impact on behavior, but situational factors were important as well (Argyris, 1964; Davis, 1969; Perry, 1980; Sanford, 1971; Sayer, 1980; Verma, 1984; Williams et al., 1974). It was necessary to take the social context into consideration, and since the behavior occurred within an organizational setting, it was therefore necessary to consider how organizational rules, rewards, and structures affected behavior. Consequently, both psychological and organizational variables were considered in arriving at an explanation of staff development participation rates.

The literature suggested that the environment of the organization was important, being comprised of "patterns of

activities, interactions, norms, sentiments, beliefs, attitudes, values and products..." (French & Bell, 1973, p.17) which were evident in the quality of working relationships, and the degree of shared problem-solving in the organization, were important. Also, previous studies indicated that the psychological construct of locus of control, a generalized expectancy regarding the source of reinforcement for behavior, intervened between other variables affecting behavior. Locus of control therefore promised to be a predictor of staff development participation rates. Since research studies had indicated that locus of control was affected by sex and an internal orientation had been correlated with higher academic attainment, both sex and academic achievement were considered in the model. Finally, since length of service in the public sector had been correlated with increased externality (Andrisani & Nestel, 1976), college teaching experience was included. The proposed model of the determinants of staff development participation rates is presented in detail in Chapter 2.

Significance of the Study

It has been argued that effective staff development permits institutions more successfully to adapt to the needs of their students and of the communities they serve, while

at the same time providing their employees with opportunities for growth. Since educational resources, including faculty complements, appear likely to remain frozen for the foreseeable future, it is imperative that staff development dollars are spent wisely. Until it is known how to generate enthusiastic faculty participation in staff development activities, achieving that goal is difficult. Nevertheless, identifying some of the factors that influence faculty willingness to participate may be a step forward.

The significance of this study is that it will add, in a small way, to the theory that attempts to explain staff development participation rates. The knowledge gained is used to formulate a tentative explanatory model of the major determinants of staff development participation rates, that may be the basis of future research. Moreover, some of the findings may interest other researchers seeking explanations of specific behaviors.

The study may be justified from a practical perspective as well. In order to overcome the well-documented resistance of faculty to staff development initiatives, the factors that affect the instructors' decisions to participate must be clarified. Only then will administrators have the knowledge necessary to successfully implement staff

development programs. In addition, the results of this study may encourage faculty members to examine their own behavior in regard to staff development.

Limitations

A number of limitations arose in carrying out the study that reduced the power of the model to explain staff development participation rates. The most important limitation was that while the location of the study was the largest of the three community colleges in Manitoba, employing 400 full-time instructors, it was a small college relative to other colleges in Canada and the United States. Moreover, the return rate on the questionnaire of 43 per cent reduced the generalizability of the findings. The results may not be representative of the instructors who did not return questionnaires. The applicability of the results to other institutions can only be a matter of speculation, although the results may suggest useful avenues for further investigation.

Methodological problems were encountered in conducting the study. It was difficult to locate appropriate survey instruments, and additional difficulties arose in collecting the data and interpreting the results. Using a different methodology, such as interviewing the instructors rather than using a questionnaire, may have elicited less resistance and perhaps resulted in better data.

The model developed to explain staff development participation rates considered sex, academic attainment, college teaching experience, locus of control and organizational climate. Despite the care taken in selecting instruments to measure organizational climate and locus of control, objections to these instruments were noted on several questionnaires. Respondents also indicated that completing the instrument measuring staff development activity levels was difficult, so it might have elicited inaccurate responses. Including additional variables might have yielded a better explanation of staff development participation rates.

Nevertheless, it is anticipated that while this study was conducted under the contraints of funding, time limitations, and the limited availability of appropriate instruments, the study is valuable because it attempts to develop and test a model of the determinants of staff development participation rates.

Overview of the Report

This thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces and provides background on the study. In addition, it identifies the problem and the intent of the study, indicates why it is of interest from a theoretical and practical standpoint, and provides an overview of the report.

Chapter 2 describes the context for staff development in the colleges in Manitoba, reviews the literature on staff development, and develops the theoretical framework for the study. The chapter concludes with the presentation of a theoretical model to explain staff development participation rates.

In Chapter 3, the sample, the methodology, and the operationalization of the variables included in the theoretical model, are described. These are staff development participation rates, organizational climate, locus of control, sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience. In addition, the analyses of the data are described in this chapter.

In Chapter 4, the results of the study are reported. Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients and standardized and unstandardized multiple regression coefficients are presented. The effects of organizational climate, locus of control, sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience on staff development participation rates are indicated.

In Chapter 5, the report is summarized and the results of the study are discussed within the context of the literature. Anticipated and unanticipated findings are noted, and the theoretical and practical implications of the

findings are discussed. Areas where additional research is needed are also identified.

Chapter 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter provides the theoretical framework for the study. Initially, the context within which staff development occurs in community colleges in Manitoba is described, and the effect of organizational climate on behavior, and particularly on staff development participation rates, is identified. Then, the effects of the locus of control and background variables are considered. Finally, the proposed model of how background, locus of control and organizational climate variables affect staff development participation rates is presented.

Organizational Context Of Staff Development

In the late 1950's, the college system in Manitoba consisted solely of a vocational training center located in Winnipeg. However, as part of the massive expansion of the post-secondary educational system in the following decade, vocational training institutions were built in Brandon in 1961 and in The Pas in 1966, and an Applied Arts division was incorporated into the Winnipeg institution in 1966. Highly skilled practitioners from business and government were hired to be instructors in these institutions, because

they were to train students for jobs (Dennison and Gallagher, 1986; Task Force On Post-Secondary Education In Manitoba, 1973). Although few of the instructors had teaching experience, and they were dealing with students from a diversity of backgrounds, which made their instructional responsibilites unusually heavy, (Campbell, 1977), little concern was exhibited about the quality of classroom instruction, and little effort was made to help instructors maintain their technical competence after they were hired.

Through the 1970's and the 1980's, federal and provincial task forces expressed concerns about the lack of responsiveness of the colleges to the demands of the labour market, and the deteriorating quality of training in the college system. These comments seemed to be ignored, as were recommendations that greater staff development initiatives be undertaken in the colleges (Parliamentary Task Force On Employment Opportunities For The Eighties, 1981; Royal Commission On The Economic Union And Development Prospects For Canada, 1985; Task Force On Post-Secondary Education In Manitoba, 1973).

At the same time, reports produced by the college division of the Department of Education identified serious problems with worker satisfaction and morale, as well as with performance in the college division (Post-Secondary,

Adult and Continuing Education Division, 1982, December). These reports also seemed to be ignored.

The lack of concern for staff development was reflected in the budget appropriations for that purpose. In this respect, little funding was available for staff development. For example, despite the recommendation of the 1973 Manitoba Task Force that 3 per cent of the colleges' operating budget be set aside for staff development, the actual allocation in the 1981/1982 fiscal year was just over one quarter of one per cent (Post-Secondary, Adult and Continuing Education Division, 1982, September). In 1987/1988, Red River Community College allocated just under one half of one per cent of its operating budget to staff development. For the other two colleges, the comparable amount was just under one quarter of one per cent (Based on personal communications with Joan McLaren, Red River Community College, Bob Lawson, Keewatin Community College, and Diana Youdell, Assiniboine Community College, on August 31, 1988).

The lack of concern for staff development in the past seems at least partially responsible for the difficulties facing the Manitoba colleges currently. The implementation of the Canadian Jobs Strategy in 1984, which drastically reduced college revenues, simultaneously forced the colleges to compete for training funds with private industry and non-government sponsored training institutions. Already facing

budget restrictions, demands for accountability, and pressures to respond more flexibly to the needs of new student populations and to changes in the labour market, the colleges are now challenged to "sell" their product in a more open marketplace, using existing resources. If they are unable to do so, they will lose their viability as job-training institutions. Dennison & Gallagher (1986, p.177) note that the colleges have a number of choices: they can change willingly, be changed, or cease to serve.

It could be assumed that the difficulties facing the colleges and the predictable low morale of instructional staff forced to adapt to the stress of change, would force the college administrators seriously to consider staff development as a possible means of enhancing the vitality and effectiveness of the instructors and the institutions (Blackburn & Baldwin, 1983; Dillon-Peterson, 1981; Glenn, 1976; Kozoll & Moore, 1979). Two initial obstacles would be the issues of how to overcome faculty resistance to staff development efforts, and how to ensure that the money spent on staff development was cost effective, given budget contraints and the well-documented fact that many of the programs implemented in the past had failed to have any permanent impact (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978; Nelsen, 1980; Pankratz, 1980; Toombs, 1983; Verma, 1984). Efforts to overcome these problems could force college administrators

to examine how their past actions could have contributed to the creation of an organizational climate which may be resistant to change.

Organizational Climate and Behavioral Change

Organizational climate is defined as "...the prevailing patterns of activities, interactions, norms, sentiments, beliefs, attitudes, values and products [within the organization]..." (French & Bell, 1973, p.16). Studies show that organizational climate creates conditions within the organization which can facilitate or complicate the change process.

It appears that organizational climate affects faculty morale, job satisfaction, organizational effectiveness and implementation of change by determining the extent to which individual needs can be satisfied at work (Argyris, 1964; Briggs, 1986; Clark & Corcoran, 1985; Davis, 1985; Duttweiler, 1986; Rasmussen & Bank, 1973). A "healthy" organizational climate is characterized by high interpersonal trust, shared decision-making, frequent communication, resource sharing, negotiation of conflict and encouragement of risk behavior (MacKenzie, 1985). High morale occurs when a healthy climate exists in an environment where abilities are recognized, goals are clearly stated and feelings of success and personal

fulfillment prevail (Briggs, 1986). A poor climate increases the degree of stress workers experience on the job (Blackburn & Baldwin, 1983; French et al., 1982; McKeachie, 1983), may be a contributor to burnout (Centra, 1985), and affects job satisfaction (Hage & Aiken, 1970).

Job satisfaction in turn is very clearly related to organizational effectiveness and the implementation of change. As Wexley and Latham (1981, p.32) point out:

> If a group of employees perceive the company and their jobs as congruent with their own personal needs, goals and aspirations, then the environment within the organizational unit will be one of trust and willingness to cooperate. On the other hand, if employees see the company and their jobs as being antagonistic to their personal needs, goals and aspirations, then the environment in their unit will be characterized by mistrust and resistance to change.

Recently, attention has focused on organizational development efforts designed to rectify deficiencies in the organizational climate to permit planned and constructive adaptation to change (Schmuck et al., 1977). These efforts focus on "improving the quality of life of individuals, as well as the functioning and performance of the organization..."(Fullan et al., 1980, p.135). The

implication is clearly that if organizational climate is not satisfactory, change will not be implemented.

Organizational Climate and Staff Development

Individual autonomy and responsibility, the degree of structure imposed on the position, reward orientations, and consideration, warmth and support from managers and peers constitute some of the dimensions of organizational climate (Clark et al., 1985). Certain aspects of organizational climate are particularly important to staff development efforts. Staff development consists of any activities geared toward the development of instructional skills, the improvement of curriculum design skills, professional development, personal growth, or improving the functioning of the organization.

It is argued that unsupportive administrators, peer pressure to conform to the status quo, inadequate communication, and unclear goals reduce staff development participation rates (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975; Bergquist & Shoemaker, 1976; Clark & Corcoran, 1985; Culver et al., 1973; Duttweiler, 1986; Fullan, 1980; Gaff, 1976, 1980; Lieberman & Shuman, 1973). An additional factor that is cited in explaining staff development participation rates is the low priority given to instructional excellence in tenure and promotion decisions (Chait & Gueths, 1981; Cross, 1977; Geis, 1980; Jalling, 1980; Konrad, 1983).

There is some controversy about the importance of the reward system in affecting behavior, compared to other organizational and personal factors (Clark & Corcoran, 1985; Clark et al., 1985; Katz, 1969; Petri, 1981; Sistrunk, 1986), but it is clear that organizational factors alone do not induce permanent change. Staff development is needed to support the change effort by providing the "training, motivation, resources and information" needed to carry through on change initiatives (Group For Human Development In Higher Education, 1974, p.16). Staff development may be a vehicle for change (Blackburn & Baldwin, 1983; Fullan et al., 1978; Nelsen, 1979), but organizational climate may determine whether staff development efforts can produce changes in behavior that will contribute to organizational effectiveness (Wexley & Latham, 1981).

Social-Psychological Variables

In the last section, the role of organizational climate and staff development in effecting behavioral change was examined, to indicate that organizational factors must be taken into account in change processes. However, organizational variables by themselves cannot explain differences in behavior when the job circumstances appear to be the same. Social learning theory suggests that behavior is based on the individual's expectations, past experiences, values, attitudes and beliefs (Petri, 1981).

Several researchers suggest that the internalization of change, which might, for example, be reflected in the permanent adoption of new instructional methods, requires a concommitant change within the individual (Bergquist & Shoemaker, 1976; Galloway et al., 1980; Harootunian, 1980; Nelsen, 1979; Verma, 1984). Change involves the reorientation of value and belief systems whereby the need for change is recognized, and new behavior patterns replace the old. This cognitive restructuring is a very difficult but essential part of behavioral change (Galloway et al., 1980), so any effort to explain existing behavior or to change behavior must begin from a determination of the existing attitudes, expectations, perceptions, and motivations, which affect behavior. With respect to motivations, one theory suggests that the force behind human behaviors is the need to be effective in controlling one's environment (Petri, 1981). A construct associated with this theory, the locus of control, may prove to be an important determinant of staff development participation rates.

The Locus of Control

The locus of control construct emerges out of social learning theory which proposes that behavior is a function of three factors: the situation itself, the expectancy that the behavior leads to reinforcement in that situation, and the value of that reinforcement to the individual. In social

learning theory, reinforcement strengthens an expectancy that a specific behavior will be followed by the same reward in the future. The expectancy diminishes when the reinforcement for that behavior is withheld because the subject perceives that the reward is not contingent on the behavior. These expectancies may be specific to a particular situation, or they may carry over into situations that are perceived to be similar. In a relatively new situation, where the individual has limited previous experience, generalized expectancies may be more important than they would be otherwise (Rotter, 1966, 1971, 1975).

Research in social learning theory led to the realization that individual characteristics determined how expectancies changed in response to reinforcement and situational factors. Rotter postulated that individuals exhibited generalized beliefs about the source of reinforcement for behavior (Rotter, 1975, p.57). An individual who attributed his rewards to luck, chance, fate, or powerful others had an external orientation, and was called an external. An individual who attributed rewards to his own behavior or to relatively permanent characteristics within himself, had an internal orientation and was called an internal. Rotter argued that these generalized expectancies affected behavior (Rotter, 1966).

Behavioral Characteristics of Internals and Externals

The first investigations of the locus of control construct, along with efforts to develop an instrument to measure it, began in 1957. By the time the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale was published in 1966, a considerable body of research existed. Based on these early reports, a profile of the internal and the external began to emerge. Summarizing the early research, Rotter stated:

> ...the individual who has a strong belief that he can control his own destiny is likely to: (a) be more alert to those aspects of the environment which provide useful information for his future behavior; (b) take steps to improve his environmental condition; (c) place greater value on skill or achievement reinforcements and be generally more concerned with his ability, particularly his failures; and (d) be resistive to subtle attempts to influence him (Rotter, 1966, p.25).

This proposition stimulated research efforts geared toward the verification and extension of the correlates of locus of control, and generally confirmed the findings that Rotter had proposed in 1966. Research indicates that an internal orientation is associated with age (Cartledge et

al., 1985; Linder et al., 1985), lifestage (Galejs et al., 1984)), certain values, including self-respect, wisdom, freedom, a sense of accomplishment and intellectualism (Linder et al., 1985), and other personality variables including need for achievement and Machiavellianism (Zuckerman & Gerbasi, 1977). It is also associated with more stable and positive emotional states among medical students (Kilpatrick et al., 1974), with more effective problem-solving among entrepreneurs under conditions of stress (Anderson, 1977), and with good health (Saltzer, 1981).

Certain behaviors are characteristic of internals. While there is little evidence of either a positive or negative correlation between intelligence and locus of control, internals generally demonstrate superior ability to control their environment. They are more attentive to, and have better recall of, information existing in the environment. They make greater efforts to seek out information relevant to their personal goals (Davis & Phares, 1967; Gozali et al., 1973). They show more achievement-striving behavior, have better study habits, and get better grades (Ramanaiah et al.,1975). They display more persistence in their goal-striving behavior (Collins-Eiland et al., 1986; Kurabenick, 1972; Wolk & Ducette, 1973). Internals resist efforts to influence their behavior, while externals are responsive to even slight efforts at influence (Biondo & MacDonald, 1971).

High-status communicators have a greater impact on the behavior of externals than do low-status communicators (Ritchie & Phares, 1969). In line with previous findings however, internals are willing to conform when it is to their advantage to do so, as in an educational setting (Ramanaiah et al., 1975).

Several of these studies demonstrate the importance of situational factors which interact with personal variables to affect behavior. For example, it is evident that internals adapt better to an environment that yields to their control efforts, whereas externals prefer to be unable to control their environment (Houston, 1972; Phares & Lamiell, 1974; Sandler et al., 1983; Wolk & DuCette, 1973). Strickland (1978) reports that internals perform better when allowed to work independently, while externals perform better in more structured situations. Other findings are that work can affect the locus of control orientation (Andrisani & Nestel, 1976; Linder et al., 1985; O'Brien, 1984); internals out-perform externals in complex learning situations (Wolk & DuCette, 1974); internals are better able to evaluate their performance in the absence of external reinforcements and are more likely to rate their performance positively than are externals (Bellack, 1975); and, internals are more likely to pursue recommended health practices (Saltzer, 1981).

Once the locus of control construct was identified and its impact on behavior determined, subsequent research attempted to clarify the process by which locus of control affected behavior. Findings suggest that the value the individual places on the behavior being predicted is an important issue in some cases. A study that took place in a junior high school investigated academic performance, social popularity, sports achievement, and achievement in home-centered activities. The study shows that competent performance in these areas is correlated with locus of control, but only for those who value competent performance in that area (Naditch & DeMaio, 1975). The same study indicates that while the value the individual places on the behavior is important in predicting competent performance for men, the best predictor for women is locus of control, regardless of the value placed on the behavior. Saltzer (1981) shows that the value placed on the behavior is important in weight loss programs. She concludes that individuals who believe that certain behaviors lead to highly-valued outcomes are more likely to perform those behaviors.

Further to the relationship between locus of control and behavior, the purpose of one study was to indicate whether taking locus of control into consideration could lead to better prediction of certain achievement behaviors (Wolk &

DuCette, 1973). Performance on classroom tests, preference for intermediate levels of risk, and estimates of likelihood of success in a task situation were used as the dependent variables. The study concludes that only when the situation allows control, and only for subjects with internal orientations, is the prediction of achievement behavior possible. A study of the relationship between achievement behavior and attributions for success and failure to internal or external factors, concludes that generally, achievement activities are more likely to be undertaken when success is attributed to internal factors. Persistence in tasks where failure is encountered occurs when failure is attributed to unstable factors like lack of effort and bad luck (Weiner et al., 1972).

Locus of Control and Staff Development Participation

While the previous studies indicate that in some cases locus of control intervenes between other variables to affect complex behavior patterns, the impact of locus of control on staff development participation rates has never been tested. Nevertheless, researchers speculate that locus of control may explain why the current post-secondary educational environment, characterized by reduced university funding, an aging professoriate, reduced opportunities for job mobility and reduced opportunities for professional development (Schuster, 1985) has reduced the vitality of

university faculty members. The argument made is that professors perceive loss of control under these conditions, which is at odds with their internal orientation. This situation induces helplessness (Bumpus, 1983). According to learned helplessness theory, learning that outcomes are uncontrollable has a cognitive, motivational, and emotional effect upon individuals (Abramson et al., 1978). Moreover, when the loss of control is attributed to global, stable, and internal factors, chronic helplessness results. It expresses itself in reduced efforts to regain control (Lefcourt, 1980), so that the perceived helplessness is reinforced. Reduced staff development participation rates might be partially explainable within this frame of reference.

Another possible explanation for staff development participation rates that implicates locus of control is that locus of control acts as a mediator between intended and actual levels of participation in staff development activities, in a way similar to that which was demonstrated in the weight loss study reported previously. The study demonstrated that behavioral intentions approximated behavior for subjects with internal control beliefs, as long as health or appearance were valued. That relationship was non-existent for externals (Saltzer, 1981).

Finally, a possible link between locus of control and staff development participation rates is presented by Sistrunk (1986). In contrasting fresh, energetic, imaginative, challenge-seeking professionals with others who are perpetually tired, bored, and lacking in both energy and imagination, Sistrunk (1986, p.1) makes an important observation. He states that "[t]he principal cause of this perceived difference could be intelligence, training, character, personality type, compensation, colleagues, supervisors, ambition, opportunity, laziness, love or fear of adventure, and/or motivation and satisfaction". But he goes on to say that when a person believes external events and people prompt his behavior, his belief severely limits his goal-striving behavior, particularly self-renewal activities. He acknowledged that external pressure could force externals into staff development, but argued that without ego-involvement, genuine self-renewal would not occur. It is interesting to note that the suggestion that externals would be less inclined to develop skills and other techniques for achievement than would internals had been made in an earlier study (Rotter & Mulry, 1965), but it has not been tested.

Background Variables

The foregoing discussion of the impact of organizational climate and locus of control on behavioral change and staff

development activity levels virtually ignores the impact of other background variables, including sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience. As there is some evidence in the locus of control literature that they are important factors, the inclusion of these variables in the model is argued to be necessary.

There is some evidence that sex is not directly correlated with locus of control (Edwards & Waters, 1981; Ramanaiah et al., 1975; Wolk & DuCette, 1974; Zuckerman & Gerbasi, 1977), but other studies suggest that it is correlated (Linder et al., 1985; Gozali et al., 1973). The latter studies suggest that males have a more internal orientation than do females, which is predictable if one assumes that males do in fact have greater control because of their dominant position in society. As a consequence of these studies, sex is incorporated into the model.

In addition, one of the characteristics most frequently associated with internals is their drive for achievement and their persistent, goal-striving behavior (Collins-Eiland et al., 1986; Kurabenick, 1972; Ramanaiah et al., 1975; Wolk & DuCette, 1973). Since they also value achievement reinforcements (Rotter, 1966), and achieve better grades (Ramanaiah et al., 1975), academic attainment is considered in the study. It is noteworthy that one of the studies indicates a gender difference in the process by which locus

of control affects competent performance (Naditch & DeMaio, 1975), which lends further support to the inclusion of sex as well as academic attainment in the model.

One of the research findings is that belief in internal control increases with age (Cartledge et al., 1985; Edwards & Waters, 1986; Linder et al., 1985). In the present study, as it is argued that age and college teaching experience are highly correlated, college teaching experience is studied instead of age. Also, studies show that work can affect locus of control orientations over time (Andrisani & Nestel, 1976; Linder et al. 1985; O'Brien, 1984). One study specifically associates length of service in the public sector with increases in externality (Andrisani & Nestil, 1976). For these reasons, college teaching experience is one of the variables included in the model. It is anticipated that the background variables, together with the locus of control and organizational climate variables, will explain staff development participation rates.

The Theoretical Model

As indicated, the literature supports the notion that both organizational and personal variables must be considered in attempting to explain behavior (Clark et al., 1986; McGinnies, 1970; Mead, 1934; Pugh, 1969; Schneider, 1983). Specifically, this literature identifies the

possible determinants of staff development participation rates to be sex, academic attainment, college teaching experience, locus of control, and organizational climate. A tentative model to explain staff development participation rates is presented in Figure 1.

In this respect, it is argued that organizational climate, which affects job satisfaction and morale, sets the framework for the instructors' willingness to participate in staff development activities. Instructors' interest in competent performance may well be at least partially a function of the way in which the organization rewards and punishes performance. However, individual beliefs as to the effectiveness of staff development activities in achieving a higher level of competence, and differences in the degree to which an individual is drawn to manipulate the environment in order to achieve his goals, as well as the congruence between the individual's desire to control the environment and the degree to which that desire can be met in the work setting, may affect his perception of the organizational climate. Yet, these factors may be irrelevant to his goal-striving behavior if he believes that staff development will aid him in achieving his goals. Under these circumstances, his participation rates may be high regardless of his perception of organizational climate. Furthermore, sex, academic attainment and college teaching experience may be significant to the individual's locus of control.

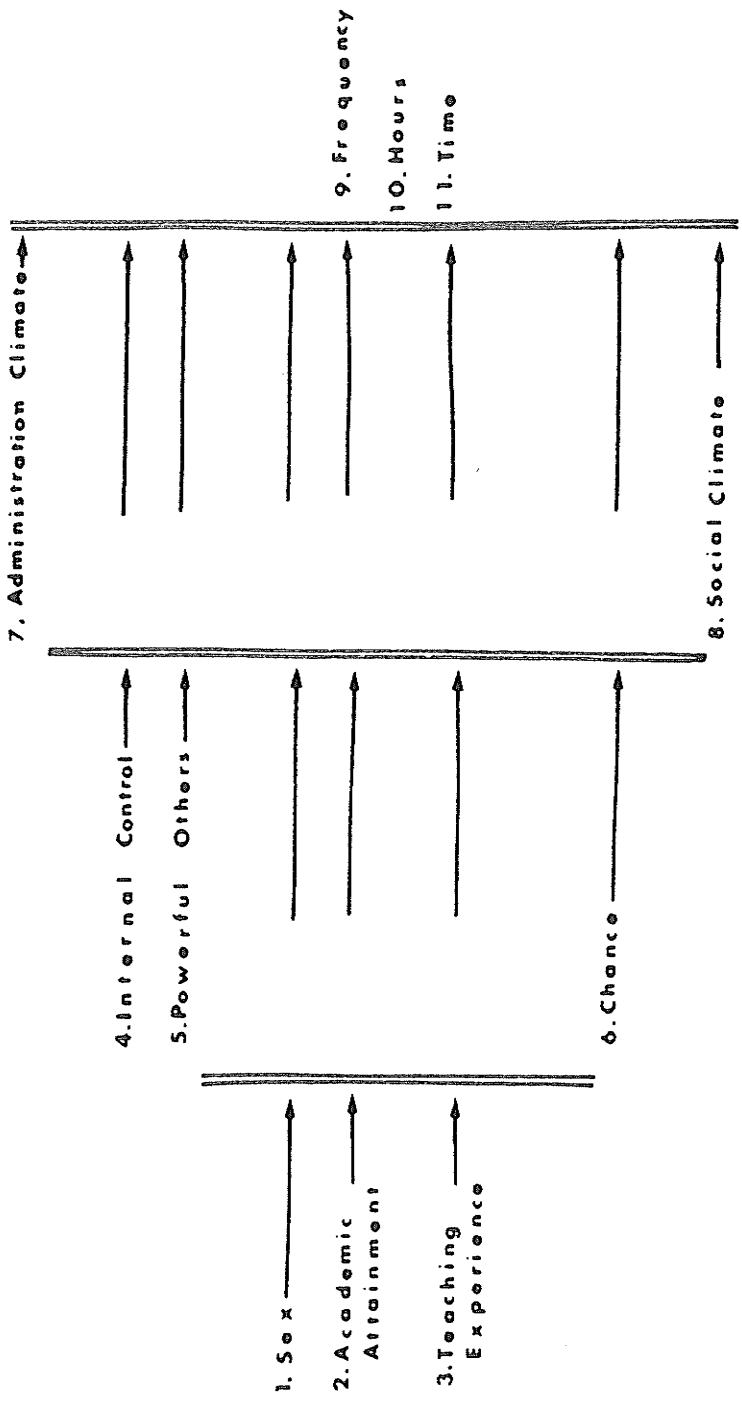

FIGURE 1

The Theoretical Model

The model indicates that the background variables sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience have a direct impact upon locus of control, organizational climate, and staff development participation rates, and that in addition, locus of control intervenes between the effects of the background variables on organizational climate and staff development participation variables. Locus of control and organizational climate have a direct effect upon staff development participation rates as well, and perceptions of organizational climate intervene between the effects of the locus of control on staff development participation rates. The relationships described in this model will be examined in Chapter 4. The sample, the means by which the variables were operationalized and the methodology employed in conducting this study are described in detail in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the sample and the operationalization of the variables included in the study. The variables considered are staff development participation rates, organizational climate, locus of control, sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience.

The Sample

The potential population for this study consisted of full-time instructors in the three community colleges in Manitoba, including approximately 400 instructors at Red River Community College in Winnipeg, approximately 110 instructors at Assiniboine Community College in Brandon, and approximately 60 instructors at Keewatin Community College in The Pas. The possibility of drawing a stratified random sample from each of the three colleges was considered, but since the prospective samples from Assiniboine and Keewatin Community Colleges would have been too small to produce significant findings for these colleges, the study took place at Red River Community College.

In early April, 1988, questionnaires (See Appendix A), with covering letters and stamped return envelopes, were delivered to Red River Community College, to be distributed through the internal mail system to the full-time instructors. The covering letter requested the cooperation of the instructors, assured them of confidentiality, and offered summary findings to anyone who was interested. Each questionnaire was numbered to facilitate follow-up, and a response was requested by April 26.

In late April, a second letter was sent out to remind instructors to return their questionnaires. It again invited instructors to take part in the study, and asked for a response by May 6. Instructors who had misplaced their questionnaires or had concerns about the study were encouraged to contact the researcher for assistance.

On May 13, the instructors who had not returned their questionnaires were again sent copies of the questionnaire, with another letter and a stamped return envelope. (The three covering letters can be found in Appendix B). Two weeks later, telephone and personal contact was made with the instructors. By the end of May, all data were collected. The final number of respondents was 171, for a response rate of 43 per cent. This rate is within the range of normal return rates for research using questionnaires (Borg and Gall, 1983).

Background data were collected in Section IV of the questionnaire. Once collected, the data were coded, categorized and cross-tabulated to permit description of the sample by academic attainment, sex, and college teaching experience. Results of this analysis are presented in Table 1. The table summarizes the data for 142 respondents. Twenty-nine cases are excluded because of missing data on one of these variables.

An overview of the totals columns indicates that 64 per cent of the respondents are male. In terms of academic attainment, 27 per cent of the respondents do not have university degrees, and 87 per cent of those are male. Of the 104 respondents with university degrees, 74 per cent have bachelor degrees and 26 per cent have graduate degrees. Generally, those who have graduate degrees are male. An examination of teaching experience reveals that 65 per cent of the female instructors were hired in the last ten years, while only 29 per cent of the male instructors were hired in that time period. In contrast, 60 per cent of the male instructors and 22 per cent of the female instructors were hired 16-25 years ago. An examination of academic attainment by college teaching experience reveals no consistent pattern, except that a higher proportion of females than males have degrees.

Table 1

Sample By Academic Attainment, Sex and Teaching Experience

Years Teaching	Academic Attainment						Totals	
	Less Than Bachelor's Degree		Bachelor's Degree But Not Master's		Completed Master's/Doctorate			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1-5 years	4	1	5	16	1	2	10	19
6-10 years	10	3	4	10	2	1	16	14
11-15 years	3	0	3	6	4	1	10	7
16-20 years	11	1	19	5	10	3	40	9
21-25 years	5	0	7	2	3	0	15	2
Totals	33	5	38	39	20	7	91	51

Note: This table excludes missing data for 29 cases.

Measurement of the Variables

The theoretical model developed in Chapter 2 includes the variables that are most significant in affecting staff development participation rates. These variables are organizational climate, locus of control, sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience. This section describes in detail how the variables in the model were operationalized.

Staff Development Participation Rates

As stated in Chapter 2, the literature defines staff development as any activity geared toward the development of instructional skills, the improvement of curriculum design skills, professional development, personal growth, or improving the functioning of the organization. Previous studies define approximately 45 separate staff development activities (Centra,1976: Konrad,1983; Toombs,1985). This subsection describes the staff development activities that were included in this study, and how the activities were combined into three scales measuring different aspects of staff development participation.

The following staff development activities were examined in this study: attendence at workshops and conferences addressing the topics of instructional methods, instructional content, curriculum development, trends and

issues in education, institutional concerns, personal growth, and the teaching/learning process; participation in performance assessment practices; engaging in individual activities such as reading and discussion concerned with instructional methods, subject content, curriculum planning, program evaluation, trends and issues in education, institutional concerns, the teaching-learning process and career or personal development; involvement in courses, workshops, seminars delivered by peers or to peers; visits to other educational institutions or to industry; participation in faculty exchange programs; participation in educational leaves or returns to industry; performance of non-instructional duties, such as doing committee work or working full-time on curriculum development.

For this study, these activities are organized into three general categories: those which concern participation in formal programs which are sanctioned by administrators, such as attendance at workshops or seminars (See Appendix A, Section III, questions 1-3); those which involve individually-motivated activities such as reading (See Appendix A, Section III, question 4); and those which occur infrequently, because they are difficult to arrange, such as taking a course from another instructor (See Appendix A, Section III, question 5).

Instructors were asked to estimate how frequently they performed each of the activities. Responses to the items for each of the three categories of staff development activity were summed, resulting in the creation of three scales, each measuring participation rates for one of the categories of staff development activity. These participation rate scales were labelled frequency, hours, and time.

Examination of the data revealed the need to reduce the number of response categories in order to approximate normal distribution curves for these scales. The calculation of Pearson correlation coefficients identified items that should be removed from the scales because they were not related to the participation dimension being measured. The items finally included in the frequency scale were questions 1.a-g, 2.a,b,d-g, and 3.a-c; those items included in the hours scale were 4.a-h; those included in the time scale were 5.a-d,k,and 1. Alpha reliability coefficients generated for the three scales were .82, .80, and .65 respectively. Descriptive statistics compiled for each of the three scales are reported in Table 2.

Organizational Climate

The Organizational Climate Index was designed to measure the individual's perceptions of the situational factors within the organizational environment which affected his

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics For The Staff Development Participation Scales

Variables	Frequency	Hours	Time
Mean	20.50	27.83	10.64
Mode	17.00	26.00	6.00
Standard Error	.76	1.15	.47
Standard Deviation	9.52	14.44	6.01
Kurtosis	-.62	-.46	-.39
Skewness	.30	.11	.28
Maximum	45.00	60.00	27.00
Minimum	1.00	0.00	0.00

need satisfaction (Richman & Stern, 1975). This instrument was validated primarily in schools and colleges in The United States and Canada. Richman and Stern (1975) report Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficients for the short-form OCI ranging from .65 -.82, based on 1533 respondents.

Richman and Stern (1975) indicated that the OCI calculated six first-order factors of organizational climate including achievement standards, intellectual climate, practicalness, supportiveness, orderliness, and impulse control, and two second-order factors, development and control. Achievement standards measure the emphasis colleges place on personal achievement. The intellectual climate indicates how much colleges encourage scholarly pursuits. Practicalness refers to how well-organized colleges are in terms of programs, objectives, organizational hierarchy, and specification of rights and duties of employees. Supportiveness indicates the level of administrative and peer support for individual integrity, and the degree of fairness and openness in the work environment. Orderliness measures pressure toward structure and procedure. Impulse control measures the retrictiveness of the work environment. With respect to the second-order factors, development measures the level of concern for both intellectual achievement and individual growth in the work environment, while control measures the emphasis on orderliness and restraint in the work environment.

For this study, the 80 items in the short form OCI were reduced to 30 and modified in some cases in order to reduce the length of the questionnaire, and improve the clarity of the questions. For example, the statement "People here spend a great deal of time thinking about and discussing complex problems", was modified to read, "People spend a great deal of time discussing complex problems." (See Appendix A, Section I, question 4.)

The organizational climate data were subjected to factor analysis (Ferguson, 1981) to determine whether the items loaded on the factors predicted by previous researchers (Richman & Stern, 1975). Preliminary analyses initially revealed ten factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, but subsequent analyses resulted in the allocation of the items to two scales, which were then subjected to principal components analyses. In these procedures, some factors were eliminated. Two dimensions of organizational climate were ultimately identified: the perceived degree to which the workplace facilitated the achievement of work goals, labelled the administration climate, and the perceived degree to which the workplace supported personal need satisfaction, labelled the social climate. Alpha reliability coefficients for the scales measuring these two dimensions of organizational climate were .86 and .73 respectively. It is noteworthy that the dimensions of

organizational climate identified through this analysis are similar to the dimensions identified by Richman and Stern (1975).

Table 3 reports the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients between the items in the administration climate scale. The correlation coefficients range from .023 to .460. Table 4 illustrates the loadings of each of these items on the administration climate factor. The loadings range from .352 to .699, with an eigenvalue of 5.263. Table 5 reports Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients between the items in the social climate scale. The correlation coefficients range from .006 to .480. Table 6 illustrates the loading of each of these items on the social climate factor. The loadings range from .340 to .747, with an eigenvalue of 2.574.

Tables 7 and 8 present the descriptive statistics for the administration and social climate scales. Note that in interpreting these statistics, high scores on the administration climate scale indicate that the instructors feel that the work environment is supportive of the achievement of work goals, and that high scores on the social climate scale indicate satisfaction with the degree to which the work environment supports personal need satisfaction.

Table 3

Intercorrelations
Between The Items Making Up the Administration Climate Scale

Question No.	1	2	3	4	7	10	12	13	14	16	17	18	21	23	24	25	27	28	29
1	1.000																		
2	.397	1.000																	
3	.119	.295	1.000																
4	.316	.343	.205	1.000															
7	.271	.256	.093	.023	1.000														
10	.347	.350	.270	.342	.187	1.000													
12	.116	.239	.153	.257	.099	.217	1.000												
13	.235	.214	-.036	.168	.213	.153	.126	1.000											
14	.244	.450	.199	.296	.222	.239	.163	.209	1.000										
16	.195	.361	.293	.283	.164	.460	.351	.027	.377	1.000									
17	.301	.454	.247	.352	.189	.282	.242	.212	.403	.350	1.000								
18	.330	.337	.189	.215	.293	.218	.207	.181	.309	.395	.308	1.000							
21	.273	.357	.134	.127	.222	.288	.150	.418	.210	.246	.297	.351	1.000						
23	.132	.295	.164	.320	.211	.266	.290	.198	.197	.366	.320	.237	.301	1.000					
24	.212	.436	.241	.455	.279	.252	.283	.104	.326	.450	.311	.280	.236	.591	1.000				
25	.133	.195	.097	.184	.092	.119	.171	.152	.147	.155	.120	.291	.311	.073	.147	1.000			
27	.332	.155	.164	.155	.265	.285	.074	.061	.139	.146	.265	.279	.230	.145	.135	.106	1.000		
28	.133	.254	.094	.183	.165	.179	.198	.083	.197	.071	.161	.236	.163	.150	.145	.168	.208	1.000	
29	.292	.255	.161	.175	.151	.307	.155	.087	.175	.197	.126	.224	.331	.169	.183	.138	.484	.133	1.000

Table 4

Factor Vector For The Administration Climate Scale

Question No.	Loading	Question No.	Loading
1	.549	17	.623
2	.699	18	.600
3	.406	21	.566
4	.560	23	.566
7	.429	24	.642
10	.566	25	.352
12	.444	27	.448
13	.360	28	.367
14	.573	29	.466
16	.599		
Eigenvalue			5.263

Table 5

Intercorrelations Between The Items In The Social Climate Scale

Question No.	5	6	8	9	11	19	20	22	26	30
5	1.000									
6	.186	1.000								
8	.016	.186	1.000							
9	.009	.094	.300	1.000						
11	.122	.193	.373	.234	1.000					
19	.142	-.006	.063	.189	.064	1.000				
20	.184	.160	.140	.128	.230	.192	1.000			
22	.276	.180	.081	-.076	.157	.063	.074	1.000		
26	.048	.200	.087	.261	.165	.246	-.027	.096	1.000	
30	.229	.284	.201	.130	.480	.130	.450	.240	.207	1.000

Table 6

Factor Vector For The Social Climate Scale

Question No.	Factor Loading
5	.400
6	.499
8	.503
9	.424
11	.675
19	.340
20	.541
22	.378
26	.410
30	.747
Eigenvalue	2.574

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics For The Administration Climate Scale

Mean	27.59	Standard Error	.43
Mode	30.00	Standard Deviation	4.95
Kurtosis	-.98	Skewness	.14
Maximum	38.00	Minimum	19.00
Potential Maximum	38.00	Missing Cases	41.00

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics For The Social Climate Scale

Mean	15.22	Standard Error	.21
Mode	16.00	Standard Deviation	2.38
Kurtosis	-.63	Skewness	-.23
Maximum	20.00	Minimum	10.00
Potential Maximum	20.00	Missing Cases	36.00

Locus of Control

Locus of control was measured using Levenson's IPC Scale, which was derived from Rotter's Inter-External Locus of Control Scale (Levenson, 1981). Levenson argued that there were likely to be significant differences between individuals who attributed outcomes to luck and chance and those who attributed outcomes to powerful others. To differentiate these categories, some of the Rotter scale items were adapted and new ones were added, resulting in the creation of three scales. The I Scale measures the extent that individuals believe they have control over their own lives, which is known as a belief in internal control. The P Scale measures the extent that individuals feel powerful others control their lives, which is known as a belief in powerful others. The C Scale measures the extent that individuals attribute outcomes to luck or fate, which is known as a belief in chance. Kuder-Richardson reliability estimates range from .51-.67 for the I Scale, .72-.82 for the P Scale, and .73-.79 for the C Scale. Levenson's instrument was used without modification (See Appendix A, Section II).

Preliminary factor analyses revealed that several of the items designed to measure either belief in internal control, belief in powerful others, or belief in chance, loaded on more than one factor. Consequently, the items were allocated

to the three scales according to Levenson's conceptual model. It indicated that questions 1,4,5,9,18,19,21, and 23 should load on the Internal Control scale; questions 3,8,11,13,15,17,20, and 22 should load on the Powerful Others scale; and questions 2,6,7,10,12,14,16, and 24 should load on the Chance scale (See Appendix A, Section II). Principal components analyses were performed and generally satisfactory factor vector loadings were obtained. However, the ninth question did not load on any factor and was not included in any scale. Moreover, the twentieth item did not load until it was removed from the Powerful Others scale and allocated to the Chance scale, where it had a satisfactory loading. The item stated, "Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver." The instructors obviously interpreted getting into an accident to be a matter of chance, rather than the effect of a "powerful other". Overall, the structure of the three scales derived from principal components analysis supported the theoretical structure identified. Alpha reliability coefficients for the final scales measuring belief in internal control, powerful others and chance were .69, .78 and .77 respectively.

Tables 9 and 10 present inter-item correlations and factor loadings for the belief in internal control scale. The items included in this scale are questions

Table 9

Intercorrelations Between The Items Comprising The Belief In Internal Control Scale

Question No.	1	4	5	18	19	21	23
1	1.000						
4	.101	1.000					
5	.036	.307	1.000				
18	.138	.195	.089	1.000			
19	.139	.096	.044	.634	1.000		
21	.035	.077	.364	.253	.280	1.000	
23	.122	.177	.154	.498	.414	.277	1.000

Table 10

Factor Vector For the Belief In Internal Control Scale

Question No.	Factor Loadings
1	.266
4	.387
5	.389
18	.798
19	.748
21	.562
23	.726
Eigenvalue	2.411

1,4,5,18,19,21, and 23 from Section II of the questionnaire (See Appendix A). Table 9 presents the Pearson Product Momemt correlation coefficients, which range from .035 to .634. Table 10 presents the factor loadings for the items in the belief in internal control scale, which range from .266 to .798. The eigenvalue is 2.411.

Tables 11 and 12 present inter-item correlations and factor loadings for the belief in powerful others scale. The items included in this scale are questions 3,8,11,13,15,17,and 22 from Section II of the questionnaire (See Appendix A). Table 11 presents the Pearson correlation coefficients for these items, which range from .221 to .645. Table 12 presents the factor loadings, which range from .579 to .774. The eigenvalue is 3.220. Tables 13 and 14 present inter-item correlations and factor loadings for the belief in chance scale. The items included in this scale are questions 2,6,7,10,12,14,16,20 and 24 from Section II of the questionnaire (See Appendix A). Table 13 presents the Pearson correlation coefficients, which range from .033 to .407. Table 14 presents the factor loadings, which range from .331 to .695. The eigenvalue is 3.255.

It is to be noted that the loadings on the internal control scale, which measures the extent to which people feel they have control over their own lives, are somewhat lower than the loadings on the scales measuring belief in

Table 11

Intercorrelations Between the Items Comprising the Belief In Powerful Others Scale

Question No.	3	8	11	13	15	17	22
3	1.000						
8	.221	1.000					
11	645	.265	1.000				
13	.380	.368	.542	1.000			
15	.273	.473	.325	.489	1.000		
17	.319	.270	.410	.401	.382	1.000	
22	.288	.243	.316	.401	.391	.274	1.000

Table 12

Factor Vector For The Belief In Powerful Others Scale

Question No.	Factor Loadings
3	.667
8	.579
11	.759
13	.774
15	.703
17	.641
22	.601
Eigenvalue	3.220

Table 13

Intercorrelations Between The Items Comprising The Belief In Chance Scale

Question No.	2	6	7	10	12	14	16	20	24
2	1.000								
6	.298	1.000							
7	.381	.308	1.000						
10	.320	.288	.260	1.000					
12	.337	.378	.381	.233	1.000				
14	.305	.389	.343	.328	.396	1.000			
16	.245	.258	.257	.219	.177	.268	1.000		
20	.078	.158	.161	.084	.279	.167	.033	1.000	
24	.265	.288	.394	.243	.316	.407	.351	.192	1.000

Table 14

Factor Vector For The Belief In Chance Scale

Question No.	Factor Loading
2	.613
6	.639
7	.669
10	.548
12	.664
14	.695
16	.511
20	.331
24	.656
Eigenvalue	3.255

powerful others and chance. The range in the factor loadings is .266 to .798, with the greatest range occurring on the internal control scale. Tables 15-17 present the descriptive statistics for these three scales.

Background Variables

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 indicates that certain background variables are partially responsible for staff development participation rates. As such, background information was collected in Section IV of the questionnaire. The background variables considered in this study were sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience. The following is a description of how each of the background variables was measured.

Sex. In Section IV of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to check off whether they were males or females. Males were coded as "1" and females as "2". Completed questionnaires were received from 111 males and 59 females (See Table 1). One respondent failed to specify his or her sex.

Academic Attainment. Question 3 of Section IV asked instructors to respond to the question "Highest academic credential attained?" The data collected in this question were recoded into three categories, ranging from attainment of "less than a Bachelor's degree", coded "1", to "completion of a Master or Doctoral degree", coded "3".

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics For The Internal Control Scale

Mean	34.00	Standard Error	.34
Mode	37.00	Standard Deviation	4.40
Kurtosis	-.22	Skewness	-.34
Maximum	42.00	Minimum	22.00
Potential Maximum	42.00	Missing Cases	7.00

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics For The Powerful Others Scale

Mean	21.12	Standard Error	.53
Mode	18.00	Standard Deviation	6.77
Kurtosis	-.72	Skewness	.04
Maximum	37.00	Minimum	7.00
Potential Maximum	42.00	Missing Cases	10

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics For The Chance Scale

Mean	22.81	Standard Error	.56
Mode	27.00	Standard Deviation	7.03
Kurtosis	-.44	Skewness	.34
Maximum	43.00	Minimum	9.00
Potential Maximum	54.00	Missing Cases	12

Instructors who had completed Bachelor degrees or were pursuing advanced degrees were coded "2". Twenty-six per cent of the instructors did not have university degrees. Fifty-five per cent had Bachelor, but not Master or Doctoral degrees, and nineteen per cent had advanced degrees. Nineteen instructors did not respond to this question (See Table 1).

College Teaching Experience. Data were compiled by asking the instructors to specify how many years they had taught in a college. The data were recoded into 5-point categories varying from 1-5 years to 21-25 years (See Table 1). Teaching experience of 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, and 21-25 years was coded "1", "2","3","4" and "5", respectively.

Summary

One purpose of this chapter was to describe the sample, which consisted of 171 instructors at Red River Community College. Another purpose was to describe the methodology of the study, and the operationalization of the variables in the theoretical model. These variables were organizational climate, locus of control, sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience. In the next chapter, the results of the study will be reported.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS

The literature review indicated that it was essential to consider the effect of both organizational and personal variables in attempting to explain staff development participation rates. Consequently, a theoretical model of the determinants of staff development participation rates was developed which included organizational climate, locus of control, sex, academic atainment, and college teaching experience. In this chapter, the impact of these variables on staff development participation rates is reported.

The first section of this chapter reports the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients that measure the bivariate relationships. Subsequently, standardized and unstandardized multiple regression coefficients, that measure the relationships between the variables when other relevant variables are controlled, are reported. Both the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients and the multiple regression coefficients are calculated on the basis of pairwise deletion of missing values.

Bivariate Relationships

The Pearson correlation coefficients calculated for the eleven variables in the model are presented in Table 18. The order in which the relationships are considered is as follows. First, the interrelationships between the variables in each category are examined in the order in which they were presented in the theoretical model: background variables, locus of control variables, organizational climate variables, staff development participation variables; then the remaining relationships between the varibles are considered.

In this respect, it is notable that among the background variables, only one relationship is significant. Sex is negatively correlated with college teaching experience (-.396, $p \leq .001$), indicating that females tend to have less teaching experience than do males. A strong correlation between the variables measuring locus of control exists. A belief in internal control is moderately to strongly negatively correlated with belief in powerful others and belief in chance (-.256 and -.302, $p \leq .001$, respectively), while there is a strong positive correlation between belief in powerful others and belief in chance (.646, $p \leq .001$). A similarly strong correlation exists between the organizational climate variables, administration and social

Table 18

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Matrix For All Variables

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. Sex	1.000										
2. Academic Attainment	.115	1.000									
3. Years Teaching	-.396***	.081	1.000								
4. Internal Control	.117	-.041	-.240***	1.000							
5. Powerful Others	-.201**	-.012	.008	-.256***	1.000						
6. Chance	-.149*	.011*	.055	-.302***	.646***	1.000					
7. Administration Climate	.244**	-.051	-.260**	.223**	-.238**	-.175*	1.000				
8. Social Climate	.260***	-.040	-.237**	.234**	-.235**	-.194**	.700***	1.000			
9. Frequency	.107	-.036	-.070	.072	-.109	-.042	.317***	.221**	1.000		
10. Hours	.128*	-.078	-.264***	.084	-.090	-.044	.189*	.178*	.381***	1.000	
11. Time	.012	.026	.083	.094	-.105	-.059	.108	.060	.487***	.345***	1.000

*p≤ .05

**p≤ .01

***p≤ .001

climate (.700, $p \leq .001$). The different aspects of staff development participation are strongly correlated with one another as well. Frequency is positively correlated with hours and time (.381 and .487, $p \leq .001$ respectively), and hours is positively correlated with time (.345, $p \leq .001$).

The remaining relationships between the variables are presented in the order suggested by the theoretical model. The first relationship considered is the relationship between the background variables and locus of control variables. An examination of the findings indicates that sex and belief in chance are moderately negatively correlated (-.149, $p \leq .05$), suggesting that females tend not to believe that chance affects their lives. Similarly, sex and belief in powerful others are negatively correlated (-.201, $p \leq .01$), which indicates that females also tend not to believe that powerful others affect their lives. The strongest relationship in this group of variables is a negative one between college teaching experience and belief in internal control (-.240, $p \leq .001$), which indicates that a decrease in internal locus of control orientation is associated with longer teaching experience.

The second category of relationships examined is the relationship between the background and organizational climate variables. Both sex and college teaching experience,

but not academic attainment, affect perceptions of organizational climate. The correlations between sex and perceptions of organizational climate are .244 ($p \leq .01$) and .260 ($p \leq .001$) for the administration and social climate dimensions, respectively. The correlations between college teaching experience and perceptions of organizational climate are -.260 and -.237, for the administration and social climate dimensions, respectively. The latter relationships are negative, indicating that perceptions of organizational climate become less favorable as college teaching experience increases.

The background variables have some relationship to staff development participation variables, but only the relationships between sex and hours (.128, $p \leq .05$), and between college teaching experience and hours (-.264, $p \leq .001$), are significant. The moderate positive relationship between sex and hours indicates that females are somewhat more likely to engage in the type of activities measured by hours than are males, while the strong negative relationship between teaching experience and hours indicates that fewer hours are spent in that category of staff development as college teaching experience increases.

Significant relationships exist between all of the locus of control and organizational climate variables. Perceptions

of the administration climate are positively related to a belief in internal control (.223, $p \leq .01$), and negatively related to belief in powerful others and belief in chance (-.238, $p \leq .01$ and -.175, $p \leq .05$, respectively). Perceptions of the social climate are similarly positively correlated with belief in internal control (.234, $p \leq .01$), and negatively correlated with belief in powerful others and belief in chance (-.235 and -.194, $p \leq .01$). These correlations indicate that a belief in internal control is associated with positive perceptions of organizational climate, while a belief in powerful others and a belief in chance are associated with less favorable perceptions of organizational climate.

An examination of the relationships between organizational climate and staff development participation variables indicates that perceptions of organizational climate are related to staff development participation rates. Administration climate is strongly related to frequency (.317, $p \leq .001$), as is social climate (.221, $p \leq .01$). Administration and social climate are also correlated with hours (.189 and .178, $p \leq .05$, respectively), but there is no significant relationship between organizational climate and time.

Multivariate Relationships

The theoretical model presented in Chapter 2 suggests that background variables, locus of control variables and organizational climate variables affect staff development participation rates directly. It also suggests that locus of control is an intervening variable between the background variables, and the organizational climate and staff development participation variables. In this section, standardized and unstandardized regression coefficients are presented. However, the discussion focuses on the standardized regression coefficients to permit comparison between the variables, regarding their impact on staff development participation rates. In interpreting the standardized regression coefficients, values less than .10 indicate that the relationship between the variables is weak, while those greater than .25 indicate that a strong relationship exists (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973).

Locus of Control

Table 19 shows the effect of the background variables on the three dimensions of locus of control, belief in internal control, belief in powerful others and belief in chance. The standardized regression coefficients, the unstandardized regression coefficients, and the total amount of explained variance in each of the dimensions, are reported.

Table 19

Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Coefficients For The Effect of Background Variables On Locus of Control Variables*

Variables	Internal Control	Belief In Power	Belief In Chance
Sex	.031	-.239**	-.156
	(.286)	(-3.386)	(-2.301)
Academic Attainment	-.026	.023	.030
	(-.173)	(.232)	(.313)
Years Teaching	-.226**	-.089	.009
	(-.747)	(-.452)	(-.047)
R^2	.059	.047	.023

*Unstandardized regression coefficients in parentheses.

**$p \leq .01$

The first relationships examined are those between the three background variables, sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience, and the three locus of control orientations. This table indicates that college teaching experience is the only background variable that has a significant impact upon belief in internal control (-.226, $p<.01$). The negative relationship suggests that less experienced instructors have a greater sense of internal control than instructors with more teaching experience. Teaching experience is also negatively related to belief in powerful others (-.089), indicating that belief in powerful others tends to decrease the longer one teaches in the college system, but sex is more strongly related (-.239) to whether or not an instructor believes that powerful others control his destiny. This suggests that female instructors have less tendency to believe that powerful others control their lives than do male instructors. Sex is again negatively related to belief in chance (-.156), indicating that female instructors have less tendency to believe that chance controls their lives. One could reasonably assume that since females tend not to believe in powerful others or in chance, they should tend to believe in internal control, but this is not supported in Table 19. The relationship (.031) is relatively weak. The background variables explain 5.9, 4.7, and 2.3 per cent, respectively, of the amount of

variance in belief in internal control, belief in powerful others, and belief in chance.

Organizational Climate

The effects of the background variables on organizational climate are reported in Table 20. An examination of this table reveals that females have more favorable perceptions of both the administration and social climate than do males, with coefficients of .177 and .206, respectively. Moreover, college teaching experience is negatively associated with perceptions of both administration and social climate (-.185 and -.151, respectively). In explaining perceived social climate, sex has the greatest significance, while both sex and college teaching experience are significant in explaining perceived administration climate. The background variables explain 9.4 percent of the variance in perceptions of administration climate, and 9.2 per cent of the variance in perceptions of social climate.

When the intervening effect of locus of control is considered, the amount of explained variance in administration climate increases from 9.4 to 14.9 per cent, while the explained variance in social climate increases from 9.2 to 14.7 per cent. Table 21 indicates that belief in powerful others and college teaching experience have the largest effect on perceptions of administration climate

Table 20

Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Coefficients For The Effect of Background Variables On Organizational Climate Variables*

Variables	Administration Climate	Social Climate
Sex	.177	.206*
	(1.838)	(1.030)
Academic Attainment	-.056	-.051
	(-.411)	(-.180)
Years Teaching	-.185	-.151
	(-.689)	(-.271)
R^2	.094	.092

Unstandardized regression coefficients in parentheses.

*$p \leq .05$

Table 21

Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Coefficients For The Effect of Background and Locus of Control Variables On Perceptions Of Organizational Climate*

Variables	Administration Climate	Social Climate
Sex	.130	.162
	(1.353)	(.810)
Academic Attainment	-.049	-.043
	(-.359)	(-.153)
Years Teaching	-.175	-.134
	(-.651)	(-.241)
Internal Control	.119	.135
	(.134)	(.073)
Powerful Others	-.189	-.152
	(-.138)	(-.054)
Chance	.013	-.023
	(.009)	(-.008)
R^2	.149	.147

*Unstandardized regression coefficients in parentheses.

(-.189 and -.175, respectively), while sex and internal control are also important (.130 and .119, respectively). These relationships suggest that instructors who believe that powerful others control their lives and those with the most teaching experience, have the least favorable perceptions of the extent to which the workplace facilitates work goal achievement. Females and those with internal orientations have some tendency to view the workplace more favorably. When the social climate is considered, similar effects are revealed. The two factors that most negatively impact upon favorable perceptions of social climate are a belief in powerful others, and greater college teaching experience (-.152 and -.134, respectively), while being female and having an internal orientation are conducive to viewing the workplace as a place where personal needs can be met (.162 and .135, respectively). Recalling that the bivariate relationship between social and administration climate was .700 ($p \leq .001$), the similarity of the variables affecting social and administration climate is not surprising.

Staff Development Participation Rates

The ultimate objective of this study was to identify the strength of the factors that affect staff development participation rates. The direct impact of the background

variables on staff development participation rates is shown in Table 22, which indicates that they have little impact on frequency and time, explaining only 1.4 and .9 per cent of the variance. The relationships between sex and frequency, and sex and time, are weak and non-significant. The relationship between college teaching experience and time is weak and non-significant as well, but it is interesting to note the direction of the latter relationship, because it indicates that more experienced instructors engage more frequently in this category of staff development activity than do less experienced instructors. The positive relationship between sex and time (.051) suggests that there is a slightly greater chance that females will take part in these activities, but the relationship is not significant.

Background variables are of greater significance in explaining hours spent in individually-initiated activities like reading. The impact of college teaching experience and academic attainment on hours is negative in both instances, although college teaching experience has much greater impact than academic attainment (-.243 and -.063, respectively). These findings suggest that the number of hours spent in individually-initiated staff development ativities decreases as college teaching experience increases. In addition, hours spent in individually-initiated activities decreases as academic attainment increases. Sex, academic attainment,

Table 22

Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Coefficients For The Effect of Background Variables on Staff Development Participation Variables*

Variables	Frequency	Hours	Time
Sex	.102	.039	.051
	(2.033)	(1.168)	(.641)
Academic Attainment	-.046	-.063	.012
	(-.650)	(-1.352)	(.110)
Years of Teachimg	-.026	-.243***	.102
	(-.188)	(-2.638)	(.462)
R^2	.014	.074	.009

*Unstandardized regression coefficients in parentheses.

***p≤.001

and college teaching experience explain 7.4 per cent of the variance in participation in this category of staff development activity.

The degree to which the locus of control variables intervene between the background variables and staff development participation rates proves to be very small, as is illustrated in Table 23, increasing the explanation of variance by less than 2 per cent for all three variables. The strong negative relationship beween college teaching experience and hours spent in individually-initiated staff development activities is reiterated, as is the relationship between college teaching experience and time. A relationship between internal locus of control and time is revealed. A belief in powerful others is negatively related to participation in each of the three aspects of staff development, while a belief in chance is positively related to participation in each of the three aspects of staff development. However, belief in chance has less impact on staff development participation rates than does belief in powerful others. In addition, academic attainment is negatively related to participation in frequency and hours activities, while sex is postively related to participation in frequency activities. This indicates that females are more likely than males to take part in formal, administrator-sanctioned activities such as workshops.

Table 23

Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Coefficients For The Effect of Background and Locus of Control Variables On Staff Development Participation Variables*

Variables	Frequency	Hours	Time
Sex	.081	.019	.030
	(1.610)	(.560)	(.383)
Academic Attainment	-.044	-.062	.016
	(-.621)	(-1.324)	(.146)
Years Teaching	-.027	-.252**	.118
	(-.195)	(-2.736)	(.534)
Internal Control	.042	.004	.105
	(.090)	(.103)	(.144)
Powerful Others	-.124	-.117	-.091
	(-.174)	(-.248)	(-.081)
Chance	.065	.050	.029
	(.088)	(.103)	(.025)
R^2	.026	.082	.028

*Unstandardized regression coefficients in parentheses.

**p≤.01

The effect of the addition of organizational climate variables to the regression model is shown in Table 24. The inclusion of the organizational climate variables improves the explanation of the variance in frequency, but has little impact on the other aspects of staff development activity. The explanation of variance for frequency activities increases from 2.6 per cent to 10.5 per cent when organizational climate variables are considered. As Table 24 indicates, perceptions of administration climate are more important than perceptions of social climate in explaining this improvement. Perceptions of administration climate are somewhat important in encouraging participation in other aspects of staff development as well. College teaching experience has a dual impact: limited teaching experience enhances the amount of time spent in the individually-initiated activities measured by hours, while greater teaching experience makes participation in the type of staff development activity measured by time more likely. An internal locus of control orientation supports the latter type of staff development activity, while a belief in powerful others inhibits participation in all three aspects of staff development. A belief in chance again tends to encourage participation in frequency and hour activities.

It is important to note that when the organizational climate variables are included in the model, the positive

Table 24

Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Coefficients For The Effect Of All Variables On Staff Development Participation Variables @

Variables	Frequency	Hours	Time
Sex	.042	.000	.019
	(.835)	(-.028)	(.245)
Academic Attainment	-.029	-.055	.021
	(-.412)	(-1.191)	(.189)
Years Teaching	.026	-.231*	.136
	(.186)	(-2.508)	(.616)
Internal Control	.006	-.013	.095
	(.012)	(-.042)	(.129)
Powerful Others	-.066	-.093	-.072
	(-.093)	(-.199)	(-.064)
Chance	.060	.051	.026
	(.082)	(.104)	(.023)
Administration Climate	.310**	.073	.134
	(.596)	(.214)	(.134)
Social Climate	-.006	.061	-.040
	(-.026)	(.368)	(-.101)
R^2	.105	.095	.039

@Unstandardized regression coefficients in parentheses.
*$p \leq .05$
**$p \leq .01$

relationships between sex and frequency, hours, and time are strengthened. At the same time, the negative relationships between academic attainment, and frequency and hours are also strengthened. Conversely, some of the impact of college teaching experience, and some of the impact of a belief in powerful others, on frequency, hours, and time are lost when the organizational climate variables are added.

Summary

In conclusion, the bivariate and multivariate relationships between the background variables, locus of control, organizational climate, and staff development participation rate variables, were presented in this chapter. Overall, college teaching experience and perceptions of the administration climate proved to be the most important determinants of staff development participation rates, while locus of control orientations were also important. Notably, sex, academic attainment, and perceptions of social climate, were not found to be very significant in explaining staff development participation rates. The conclusions to be drawn from these findings will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS

The intent of this study was to determine what factors affected instructors' participation in staff development activities. In this chapter, the study is briefly summarized, the findings are discussed, and their implications for theory and practice are determined.

Summary

The 1970's were a decade of upheaval for post-secondary educational institutions in Canada. The public had funded the establishment or expansion of community colleges in the previous decade, to supplement the academic training offered at universities with job training, intended to eradicate dislocations in the labour market. When these goal was not realized, public disappointment expressed itself in complaints about the quality of instruction in colleges and universities, the non-responsiveness of these institutions to changes in their operating environments, and their slowness to incorporate advances in knowledge about human development, adult learning, and instruction into the classroom. The dissatisfaction resulted in increased

demands for accountability. Administrators, hoping to appease the public despite resource freezes and funding cutbacks, turned to staff development in an effort to help instuctors adapt to the demands being placed on them. Unfortunately, studies showed that some staff development programs failed to deliver positive results. In this respect, a theoretical framework to explain why program success and failure occurred had never been developed. Consequently, staff development funds were being utilized inefficiently in some cases, and there was little likelihood that the sitution would be improved in the future.

The present study attempted to create a theoretical model to explain the determinants of one necessary prerequisite of a successful staff development program, instructor participation. A social-psychological perspective was taken in identifying the variables affecting staff development participation rates, based on social learning theory, which attributes behavior to personal as well as situational factors. Since the behavior being explained, staff development participation rates, occurred within an organization, personal and organizational factors were studied.

A review of the literature on staff development identified eight variables that were important.

Organizational climate, characterized as the "patterns of activities, interactions, norms, sentiments, beliefs, attitudes, values and products [within an organization]... (French & Bell, 1973, p.17), was one of these variables. A generalized belief as to whether the outcomes one experienced were attributable to relatively permanent, stable factors within oneself, or to external factors, like chance or fate, had been hypothesized to be an intervening variable in other research, and was therefore included in this study. Since the generalized belief, known as locus of control, appeared to be affected by sex and was associated with higher academic attainment, both of these variables were considered. The final independent variable considered was college teaching experience. Locus of control was associated with age and it was reasonable to suppose that, in this case, college teaching experience and age would be highly correlated. Also, length of service in the public sector had been shown to affect locus of control,

A survey questionnaire was used to gather the data, and standardized instruments were modified and used to measure perceptions of organizational climate and locus of control. An instrument was developed to measure staff development participation rates, which was based on the 45 types of staff development activity defined in the literature. These 45 items were separated into three categories of staff

development activity, those which were formal programs, sanctioned by administrators, such as workshops, those which were initiated individually, such as reading in a subject area, and those which would occur infrequently because they were difficult to arrange, such as taking a course delivered by another instructor. Instructors were asked to estimate how frequently they performed each of the activities, in order to develop scales to measure the three aspects of staff development. Information regarding sex, academic attainment and college teaching experience was collected in the final section of the questionnaire.

The data were collected at Red River Community College in Winnipeg. Questionnaires, covering letters, and return envelopes were distributed to approximately 400 full-time instructors in early April, 1988. Two additional letters were sent to encourage instructors to return their questionnaires, and by late May, 171 completed questionnaires were returned. This represented responses from approximately 43 per cent of the population of instructors.

Sixty-four per cent of the respondents were male, and while they held most of the advanced degrees, overall, a higher proportion of females than males had degrees. The majority of males had worked in the college for 16-25 years,

while most of the females had been hired in the last ten years.

The data were coded and analyzed using a computer. To determine staff development participation levels, responses to the items for each of the three categories of staff development activity were summed, resulting in the creation of three scales measuring staff development participation rates. Frequency distributions were compiled for each scale, then Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients were calculated to ensure that all the items within each scale were related to the participation dimension being measured.

The data regarding organizational climate were factor analyzed and subjected to principal components analyses, resulting in the identification of two dimensions of climate, administration and social climate. Administration climate reflected individual perceptions that the environment within the workplace was conducive to the achievement of work goals, while social climate reflected individual perceptions that personal needs could be satisfied in the workplace. Scales to measure the two dimensions of climate were created.

The same procedure was followed in analyzing the locus of control data. After some preliminary factor analysis, the data were subjected to principal components analyses in

order to allocate them to the three scales conceptually defined as belief in internal control, belief in powerful others and belief in chance.

Sex, academic attainment, and college teaching experience were coded. Three levels of academic attainment were identified, ranging from achievement of less than a Bachelor degree, to completion of a Master or Doctoral degree. Five categories of college teaching experience were established, ranging from 1-5 years to 21-25 years.

Following this, Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients were computed to measure the bivariate relationships between the variables. Subsequently, standardized and unstandardized regression coefficients that measure the relationships between the variables when other relevant variables are controlled, were computed. Both the correlation coefficients and the regression coefficients were calculated on the basis of pairwise deletion of missing values.

The standardized and unstandardized regression coefficients resulted from multiple regression analysis. The study found that the background variables explained 1.4, 7.4, and .9 per cent, respectively, of the variance in frequency, hours, and time. Sex was the most significant determinant of frequency, with females being more likely

than males to participate in this category of staff development activity. College teaching experience had the greatest impact on both hours and time. Instructors who had more college teaching experience tended to participate less in hours activities, and to participate more in time activities.

When the locus of control variables were added, the explanation of variance in frequency, hours, and time increased to 2.6, 8.2, and 2.8 per cent, respectively. Belief in powerful others as well as sex were found to be important in explaining frequency. College teaching experience was the most important determinant of hours, while belief in powerful others was also important. College teaching experience, belief in internal control, and belief in powerful others were all significant in explaining time.

Finally, the addition of organizational climate variables further increased the explanation of variance in frequency, hours, and time to 10.5, 9.5, and 3.9 per cent, respectively. Perceptions of administration climate were the major determinant of participation in frequency activities, with positive perceptions of administration climate tending to encourage participation in frequency activities. Belief in powerful others and belief in chance were also of some importance in explaining frequency. Perceptions of

administration climate and belief in powerful others were the most important determinants of hours, while perceptions of social climate, academic attainment, and belief in chance were also important. Perceptions of administration climate and college teaching experience were the most significant determinants of time, but belief in internal control and belief in powerful others were also of some importance.

The data identified a few key variables that affected staff development participation rates. For example, in explaining frequency, the only variable that was moderately to strongly related to frequency was perceived administration climate; in explaining hours, the only variable that was moderately to strongly related to hours was college teaching experience; and in explaining time, the only variables that were moderately to strongly related to time were college teaching experience and perceptions of the administration climate. This suggests that the most important determinants of staff development participation rates are college teaching experience and perceptions of administration climate.

In addition to these findings, the direction of the relationships between the variables was of some interest. The data showed that belief in powerful others was negatively associated with all three categories of staff

development activity, while belief in chance and favorable perceptions of administration climate were supportive of all categories of staff development activity. However, for the remaining variables, no generalizations regarding the direction of the relationships between the variables were possible without specifying the type of staff development activity being examined. These findings will now be discussed.

Discussion

As mentioned, one of the significant findings of the study was that college teaching experience was negatively associated with individually-initiated staff development activity. That is, the instructors who have taught in the college for a longer time are less involved in individually-initiated staff development activity than are the instructors who have taught in the college for a shorter time. The kinds of individual activities measured by hours included improving instructional methods and subject mastery, developing expertise in curriculum design or program evaluation, exploring issues or trends in education, becoming acquainted with institutional concerns, enhancing understanding of the teaching-learning process, or working on career or personal development. The range of activities is wide, therefore the negative relationship noted between college teaching experience and hours is significant.

There is no indication in the literature that length of service is negatively associated with individually-initiated staff development activity. However, the relationship might be partially explained in that experienced instructors may have already acquired mastery of subject content and have some familiarity with the instructional methods that work best for them, as well as with the techniques of curriculum design and program evaluation. They may also have some understanding of the teaching-learning process.

Nevertheless, there are some difficulties with this explanation of the relationship between college teaching experience and hours. For example, the time spent in some of these areas, such as time spent mastering subject content, could logically decrease as teaching experience increases, but hours spent in areas such as personal or career development could increase as free time became available. If, in fact, more time was spent in these areas, the negative relationship between teaching experience and hours would not exist, because the reduction in hours that might naturally occur as instructors became more experienced, would be offset by the increased hours spent in activities less directly related to instruction.

The data provide some indication of how instructors may be spending their time outside the classroom. For example,

the data suggest that the longer-term instructors spend some of their time in other types of staff development activity, particularly the time category, which consists of activities that occur infrequently because they are difficult to arrange. These items include taking or giving a course, workshop, or seminar, to peers; visiting other educational institutions or businesses to review programs or projects; participating in faculty exchanges; taking educational leaves or leaves to return to industry; having a reduced teaching load to complete temporary, non-instructional assignments, to improve instructional skills, or to improve course course development skills; and working on committees or task forces. It could be argued that these are extremely worthwhile staff development activities, and that instructors should be encouraged to make the effort to participate in them. It should be recognized, however, that involvement in this type of activity requires approval at the departmental level, the college level, and sometimes in the provincial Department of Education, which indicates that unless administrative support exists, instructors will be unable to participate in these types of activities.

The importance of perceptions of the administration climate in encouraging or discouraging such activity is supported by the data, whereby perceptions of the administration climate are positively related to

participation rates. This could be interpreted to mean that if instructors see the workplace as one which facilitates the achievement of work goals, they are more willing to participate in these activities. It could also be interpreted to mean that instructors will not even try to arrange these activities if they anticipate that their requests might be turned down. The negative relationship between belief in powerful others and all aspects of staff development suggests that participation in staff development activities is discouraged by the belief that powerful others control one's life, which lends some support to the second interpretation. If instructors assume that their requests are turned down because the college does not value the achievement of work goals, it could affect all areas of staff development, and result in low participation rates.

Despite the fact that college teaching experience is positively related to participation in time activities, this category of activities occurs infrequently, and therefore cannot be expected to account for much of the time that instructors spend outside the classroom. Nor is much time devoted to frequency activities, so it appears that instructors spend less time on staff development activities the longer they teach. Since teaching hours tend to remain relatively constant from year to year while time spent on staff development activities decreases, one may conclude

that instructors devote less time to their jobs the longer they teach. An administrative system that allows this to happen needs to be examined, and an effort should be made to explain the instructors' actions and to check educational and instructional quality within the college, in order to justify the instructors' lack of involvement in staff development activities. While some effort has recently been made in this respect, existing enforcement procedures have not ensured college-wide compliance. This could be significant in explaining staff development participation rates. Lack of administrative support and a belief that instructional improvement is not necessary have been cited in explaining instructor resistance to staff development efforts (Armes & O'Banion, 1983; Cross, 1977; Gaff, 1978; Group For Human Development In Higher Education, 1974; Nelsen, 1980; Schuster, 1985).

In the discussion of the relationship between perceptions of administration climate and participation in time activities, it was stated that favorable perceptions of the administration climate foster this type of activity. In reality, the data show that perceptions of administration climate are positively related to all aspects of staff development, and are particularly important to participation in the type of staff development activity measured by frequency. The frequency scale measured instructor

participation in formal, administrator-sanctioned activities such as workshops, conferences and programs covering a variety of educational and instructional topics, as well as participation in performance and program assessment practices.

In regard to the positive relationship between perceptions of administration climate and frequency, the literature suggests that two of the aspects of organizational climate that could be detrimental to participation in staff development activities are unsupportive administrators and unclear goals (Armes & O'Banion, 1983; Culver & Hoban, 1973; Tye, 1973; Williams et al., 1974), both of which tend to detract from perceptions that the work environment supports the achievement of work goals. The literature also mentions that lack of recognition of good teaching in tenure and promotion decisions tends to inhibit efforts at instructional improvement.

It is interesting to note that the relationship between perceptions of administration climate and staff development participation rates is not repeated when the relationship between perceptions of social climate and staff development participation rates is examined. Two noteworthy findings are that in all cases, perceptions of social climate have less impact on staff dvelopment participation rates than do

perceptions of the administration climate. Also, the impact of perceptions of social climate on frequency and time activities is very weak, but favorable perceptions of social climate are positively associated with time spent in individually-initiated activities.

These relationships between perceptions of climate and staff development participation rates suggest that participation in staff development activities is most strongly affected by instructor perceptions that the workplace is geared toward the achievement of work goals. Instructors appear to feel that staff development is intended to help them do their jobs better, and if they do not perceive a need to do their jobs better, they seem to have less interest in staff development activities. Administrators have a responsibility to ensure that instructors are doing their jobs well, and to initiate corrective action if necessary. Therefore, they are probably major determinants of the staff development participation levels in the college.

The discussion so far has indicated that certain aspects of the administration climate, including the reward system, affect staff development participation rates, while perceptions of the social climate have little effect. Also, the central role of the administrator in promoting staff

development participation rates has been proposed. However, personal characteristics of the instructors, such as their locus of control orientations, may also be significant.

There has been some speculation in the literature that individuals with external locus of control orientations would be less inclined to develop skills and other techniques for achievement than would individuals with internal locus of control orientations (Rotter & Mulry, 1965; Sistrunk, 1986), and that external pressures might be necessary to force externals into staff development activities (Sistrunk, 1986). It could be presumed therefore, that the reward system would be more important to externally- rather than internally-oriented individuals. Therefore, determining the type of orientation that prevails in the college might indicate what impact improving the reward system might have on increasing staff development participation rates.

The literature suggests that locus of control and the organizational climate in which one chooses to work may be related (Andrisani & Nestel, 1976; Linder et al., 1985; O'Brien, 1984), and one study links increasing externality with years worked in the public sector (Andrisani & Nestel, 1976). The data show that belief in internal control decreases as college teaching experience increases, which

supports the results of the study by Andrisani and Nestel (1976). This could be an adaptive response when working in an environment that is impervious to individual attempts at control, and in fact the "defensive external" who attributes his successes to relatively permanent, stable factors within himself, and his failures to external factors, has been identified in the literature. The researchers note that this can be a realistic, adaptive response when an individual is in a situation that he cannot control (Phares & Lamiell, 1974).

Social learning theory, out of which the locus of control construct emerges, suggests that if behavior is reinforced randomly, expectations that reinforcement is contingent upon one's actions diminish, which make the behavior less likely to occur. It could be argued that repeated lessons that personal efforts are not related to outcomes could lead one to negate one's responsibility for failure, and could change one's locus of control over time. This could account for the negative relationship between college teaching experience and belief in internal control found in this study.

An alternative explanation might be that if an individual places high value on his ability to control his environment, he might find the college environment incongenial, and therefore, seek alternative employment.

There is some evidence that occupational choice arises from personality traits (Bereiter & Freedman, 1962) and that as time progresses organizations tend to attract and retain employees whose goals and values are congruent with the goals and values of others in the organization (Schneider, 1983). In fact, one study (Linder et al.,1985) suggests that internals are more likely to value self-respect, wisdom, freedom, a sense of accomplishment, and intellectualism, while externals are more likely to value family security, a comfortable life, and cheerfulness. In this respect, the community college provides comfort and job security, and the existence of a powerful union reinforces that security. However, the data indicate that self-respect, wisdom, and freedom may be less attainable. The majority of respondents disagreed with the following questions: "Everyone has the same opportunity to advance", "The work atmosphere emphasizes efficiency", "People often get involved in serious intellectual discussions (See Appendix A, Section I, questions 27,21,24). These characteristics of the organizational climate probably would not satisfy internally-oriented individuals, and might therefore compel them to leave.

As the foregoing discussion indicates, the argument that a predominantly external orientation prevails in the college is somewhat justifiable based on the literature. If it is

the case, then the reward structure could be a powerful tool in amending behavior. The cultivation of a more internal orientation with its associated achievement orientation, might be helpful in promoting educational and instructional excellence in the colleges, which would help them to retain their standing as the primary job training institutions in Canada. However, achieving this objective will require a reduction in the job security that instructors currently enjoy and the implementation of comprehensive staff development programs for both instructors and administrators.

It is evident that to accomplish change, the staff development programs initiated must be effective. This study attempted to develop a model to explain some of the determinants of staff development participation rates, as non-participation would make even well designed and well implemented programs ineffective. Unfortunately, the model was not very successful in explaining participation rates in frequency, hours, and time activities. Additional research is needed to clarify whether the results are attributable to the model itself, the methodology employed, or the sample.

In this study, the sample was small, consisting of 171 respondents, and instructors in two of the three community colleges in Manitoba were excluded from the study. The

generalizability of the findings to the other two colleges in Manitoba may be problematic, and generalizability to colleges outside Manitoba may be even more problematic. Thus, it may be advisable to carry out this study on a larger, more general sample, before modifying the model. The ability of the model to predict staff development participation rates in other institutions remains to be evaluated.

The possibility that data should be collected and analyzed by department or discipline rather than by college in order to provide the best explanation for staff development participation rates, needs to be explored. The socializing aspects of the work-group or the professional reference group, known to be factors which affect behavior, were ignored in this study due to the sample size.

A number of additional recommendations could be made to improve the ability of the model to explain staff development participation rates. The instruments used to measure perceptions of organizational climate, locus of control and staff development participation rates may need to be refined. For example, the respondents made several comments that implied that the questionnaire items dealing with the social climate were irrelevant to the stated purposes of the study, which indicates that there may be

some problems with the validity of the instrument used. The secondary importance of perceptions of social climate to staff development participation rates was demonstrated in this study. An additional suggestion for future research is that perhaps these findings need to be supplemented by qualitative research. Some of the subtleties of response may be lost in forced-choice situations. A further point is that there is some evidence that the locus of control orientation may be more multi-dimensional than Levenson conceptualized (See, for example, Collins, 1974; Zuckerman & Gerbasi, 1977), which may indicate a need to locate a different measure of locus of control. Finally, it would be useful to devise a more accurate way to measure staff development participation rates. Staff development records would be one source of more objective data, but access to these records would have to be authorized by the instructors, and would not reflect all aspects of staff development activity, such as time spent in individually-initiated activities. There does not appear to be a way to avoid the use of estimates, with all their inaccuracies.

There are two other concerns with respect to staff development participation rates: additional data that should have been collected, and some data that should perhaps be ignored. First, within the context of social learning theory, the literature suggests that the value to the

individual of the behavior being elicited, as well as the reward structure, are important determinants of behavior. Therefore, data should have been collected to determine the value the instructor placed on participation in staff development activities, and the cost to him of non-participation. The belief that participation in staff development activity is a waste of time, and the absence of negative sanctions for non-participation, would be important determinants of instructor participation rates.

On the other hand, the data collected regarding participation in time activities should perhaps be ignored. Although the staff development activities included in this category are legitimate, they are uncommon, difficult to arrange, and the instructor cannot control whether or not they happen. Consequently, they introduce extraneous factors affecting participation rates which detract from the explanation of how factors within the organization and the individual affect participation rates, which is the real focus of this study.

Finally, while the theoretical model provided only a partial explanation of the staff development participation rates of the instructors at Red River Community College, this study did indicate that college teaching experience and perceptions of the administration climate are important.

Administrators have a major responsibility to ensure that instructional performance is accurately assessed, to provide opportunities for remediation where necessary, and to encourage and facilitate continuous enhancement of skills. Additionally, they must establish a reward system that fairly differentiates between good and bad performance. The reward system itself could be a major factor affecting instructors' willingness to participate in staff development activities. Furthermore, this study suggests areas which may be explored in acquiring a better understanding of the determinants of staff development participation rates, and in validating, extending or disproving the model. Hopefully, this study has provided a starting point for further research in this area.

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APPENDIX A

STAFF DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION I

There are 30 statements to consider in this section, describing the college environment. Please circle "T" when you think the statement is generally TRUE or characteristic OF YOUR COLLEGE, is something which occurs or might occur, is the way people tend to feel or act. Circle "F" if you think the statement is generally FALSE or not characteristic OF YOUR COLLEGE, is something which is not likely to occur, is not the way people typically feel or act.

YOUR ANSWERS SHOULD INDICATE WHAT YOU BELIEVE RRCC IS LIKE, RATHER THAN WHAT YOU MIGHT PERSONALLY PREFER.

1.	When people here disagree with an administrative decision, they work to get it changed.	T	F
2.	People here put a great deal of energy into everything they do.	T	F
3.	People here feel free to show their affections openly.	T	F
4.	People spend a great deal of time discussing complex problems.	T	F
5.	Many social activities arise spontaneously.	T	F
6.	Most people have an active social life.	T	F
7.	Other things are more important than competence in getting ahead.	T	F
8.	The activities of charities and social agencies are strongly supported.	T	F
9.	Neatness is the rule rather than the exception.	T	F
10.	Everyone is helped to get acquainted.	T	F
11.	Service to the community is regarded as a major responsibility.	T	F
12.	People are not really concerned with deep philosophical matters.	T	F

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13.	Work is checked to see if it is done properly.	T	F
14.	People can get so absorbed in their work they often lose all sense of time.	T	F
15.	People frequently do things on the spur of the moment.	T	F
16.	Few people are stimulated by deep thinking.	T	F
17.	New ideas are always being tried out.	T	F
18.	Administrators put a lot of energy into their work.	T	F
19.	There is a general idea of appropriate dress which everyone follows.	T	F
20.	There always seem to be a lot of little quarrels going on.	T	F
21.	The work atmosphere emphasizes efficiency.	T	F
22.	People spend a great deal of time together socially.	T	F
23.	Discussions about improving society are common here.	T	F
24.	People often get involved in serious intellectual discussions.	T	F
25.	The support staff will go out of their way to help you with your work.	T	F
26.	Behaving "properly" is expected.	T	F
27.	Everyone has the same opportunity to advance.	T	F
28.	People ask permission before deviating from common policies or practices.	T	F
29.	There is a recognized group of leaders who receive special privileges.	T	F
30.	The motto here could be, "Lend a helping hand".	T	F

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SECTION II

This section consists of a series of attitude statements, each representing a commonly held opinion. Please indicate the extent of your agreement/disagreement with each of these statements by circling the appropriate response, based on the response key below. First impressions are usually best.

Response Key

-3 Strongly disagree
-2 Disagree somewhat
-1 Slightly disagree
+1 Slightly agree
+2 Agree somewhat
+3 Strongly agree

	Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree
1. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
2. To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
3. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
4. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
5. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
6. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interests from bad luck happenings.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
7. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
8. Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibilities without appealing to those in positions of power.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
9. How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
10. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3

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	Strongly disagree	Disagree somewhat	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree somewhat	Strongly agree
11. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
12. Whether or not I get in a car accident is mostly a matter of luck.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
13. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
14. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad luck.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
15. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
16. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
17. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
18. I can pretty much determine what will happen to my life.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
19. I am usually able to protect my personal interests.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
20. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
21. When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
22. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
23. My life is determined by my own actions.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
24. It's chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3

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SECTION III

Please indicate how often in a typical school year you get involved in the activities listed below. Enter the frequency in the space provided.

Practice	# of Times (per school year)
1. Participating in workshops, conferences, programs that:	
a) explore various instructional methods	_____
b) review subject matter or introduce new knowledge in your field or a related field	_____
c) enhance curriculum development skills	_____
d) explore general issues or trends in education	_____
e) acquaint staff with institutional concerns	_____
f) promote faculty personal development	_____
g) enhance understanding of the teaching-learning process	_____
2. Participating in performance assessment practices:	
a) having your instructional performance rated by students	_____
b) having your course design rated by students	_____
c) having your instructional performance rated by an administrator	_____
d) having your course design rated by an administrator	_____
e) having your instructional performance rated informally by peers	_____

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f) having your course design informally assessed by peers _____

g) formally assessing your own performance _____

3. Participating in program assessment practices:

a) evaluating overall program with other departmental instructors _____

b) sitting on a program-evaluation committee _____

c) seeking out student input in regard to program strengths and weaknesses _____

In the next section, please indicate <u>how many hours per month</u> you typically devote to each activity listed.

Practice	Frequency (hours per month)
4. Engaging in individual activities (such as reading, discussing, practising skills, etc.) directed toward:	
a) improving instructional methods	_____
b) improving subject mastery in your field or a related field	_____
c) developing expertise in curriculum development	_____
d) developing expertise in program evaluation	_____
e) exploring general issues or trends in education	_____
f) acquainting yourself with institutional concerns	_____
g) enhancing understanding of the teaching-learning process	_____
h) career or personal development	_____

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In the next section, please indicate how many times in the last five years you have been involved in the staff development activities listed below.

Practice	Total # of Times
5. Miscellaneous practices. How many times in the last five years:	
a) have you taken a course, workshop, or seminar, offered by a peer?	_____
b) have you delivered a course, workshop, or seminar to your peers?	_____
c) visited other educational institutions to review programs or projects?	_____
d) visited industry to review programs or projects?	_____
e) participated in a faculty exchange program?	_____
f) taken an educational leave, with or without pay?	_____
g) taken a leave to return to industry?	_____
h) have you been temporarily assigned to non-instructional duties within the college, for at least one week?	_____
i) have you had a reduced teaching load to improve your instructional skills?	_____
j) have you had a reduced teaching load for at least one month to work on course development?	_____
k) have you been on a college committee that has met at least four times per year?	_____
l) have you been involved in a college task force that has met at least twice?	_____

SECTION IV

In order to assist with the analysis of the data that you have provided, please complete the following section:

1. SEX: Male_____ Female_____

2. AGE:_____

3. HIGHEST ACADEMIC CREDENTIAL ATTAINED?_____

   When?_____

4. HIGHEST VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL CREDENTIAL ATTAINED?_____

   When?_____

5. NUMBER OF YEARS OF COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE:

   In Total_____

   At RRCC_____

6. EMPLOYEE STATUS: (Check all areas that apply)

   full-time_____ part-time_____

   permanent_____ other_____

7. INSTRUCTOR CLASSIFICATION: (Check one)

   CIA_____ CIB_____ CIC_____

8. INSTRUCTIONAL AREA: (Check all areas that apply)

   Industrial Trades_____ Technology_____

   Business_____ Applied Arts_____

   Health, Family & Applied Scienes_____ ABE_____

   Other: (please specify)_____

THANK YOU for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Please return it via the internal college mail system to the address below, no later than Tuesday, April 26.

Janice R. Foley
c/o Dept. of Ed. Admin. & Foundations
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2

APPENDIX B

March 31, 1988

Dear Colleague,

I am studying the determinants of staff development participation rates among full-time community college instructors in Manitoba, and I need your cooperation because virtually nothing is known in this area. With your input, the kinds of staff development programs that would be most meaningful to yourself and to other instructors in the Manitoba colleges can be determined.

Realizing that you have many claims on your time, this form has been designed to minimize the effort required to complete it. Sections I and II, which look at some of the factors that might affect your participation levels, can be completed in 15 minutes. In Section III, estimating the time you spend on various kinds of developmental activities takes another 15 minutes. The demographic information requested in Section IV takes only a few moments to complete.

The confidentiality of your responses will be safeguarded. You will not have to identify yourself on the survey form and access to the individual questionnaires will be restricted to myself and my thesis committee members. Furthermore, while each questionnaire will be numbered to facilitate follow-up procedures, the master list of instructors' names and associated questionnaire numbers will be available only to myself in order to give you maximum assurance of confidentiality. The data will be destroyed once analysis is complete and only summary findings will be included in the report.

Upon completion of this study, you will be able to review the summary of findings by contacting the Office of Program and Staff Development in your college. Alternatively, I will provide such a summary on an individual basis upon request. Please direct your inquiries via the internal college mail system to:

Janice R. Foley
c/o Dept. of Ed. Admin. & Foundations
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. However, I urge you to take part so that a small contribution can be made to the Canadian literature regarding the reasons why people participate in staff development activities.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact me at 474-9010 during regular office hours. Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

J.R. Foley,
Instructor, A.C.C.

April 28, 1988

Dear Colleague:

Two weeks ago I sent you a letter describing a study I was doing on the factors that affect instructors' participation in staff development activities. I explained that these activities could be better planned to meet instructors' needs if there was a better understanding of what predisposes instructors to view such activities favorably or unfavorably.

I am asking you to please take the time to express your point of view by completing the questionnaire that was sent to you. Thirty minutes is all that is required and with your input, a meaningful contribution can be made to the existing body of knowledge on staff development in Canada.

Please return your questionnaire via your internal college mail system in the envelope provided to the address below, no later than Friday, May 6:

Janice R. Foley
c/o Dept. of Ed. Admin. & Foundations
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2

If you have misplaced your questionnaire or have any concerns about this study, I can be contacted by phoning 474-9010 during regular business hours.

If you have already returned it, please ignore the letter and thank you for your participation. You may be assured that every effort has been made to ensure the confidentiality of your responses.

Thanks again for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

J. R. Foley
Instructor, A.C.C.

JRF/pd

May 13, 1988

Dear Colleague,

Several weeks ago I sent you a letter describing a study I was doing on the determinants of staff development participation rates among instructors in the Manitoba community colleges, requesting your participation.

I explained that the reason why this information was important was that staff development in the colleges could be better planned to suit the needs of instructors if information was available about what influences their decision to participate or not to participate. Your input will improve the value of the findings.

I am optimistic that you intend to take advantage of this opportunity to express your point of view. However, as I have not yet received your response, I am sending you another copy of the survey and a stamped envelope in which to return the completed questionnaire. It should be sent, as soon as possible, via the internal college mail system to:

Janice R. Foley
c/o Dept. of Ed. Admin. & Foundations
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2

If you have already returned it, please ignore this letter and thank you for your participation. You may be assured that every effort has been made to ensure the confidentiality of your responses.

Thanks again for your consideration.

Sincerely,

J.R. Foley,
Instructor, A.C.C.