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THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

FACULTY NONPARTICIPATION IN TEACHING IMPROVEMENT
PROGRAMS

by

ELISABETH SUZANNE BOTMAN

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree
of Master of Education

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND FOUNDATIONS

WINNIPEG, MANITOBA
NOVEMBER, 1982

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to

the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a Master's thesis

entitled: FACULTY NONPARTICIPATION IN TEACHING IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS

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submitted by   ......ELISABETH SUZANNE BOTMAN................

in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

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A. Gregor
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Advisor
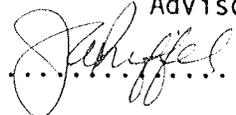
J.A. Riffel
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External Examiner
Dr. A. Naimark

Date November 1st, 1982.....   ....

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FACULTY NONPARTICIPATION IN TEACHING IMPROVEMENT

PROGRAMS

BY

ELISABETH SUZANNE BOTMAN

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 explore faculty nonpartici-
pation in teaching improvement programs (T.I.P.'s). Faculty
nonparticipation was viewed as a function of various interacting
personal and situational factors. A questionnaire was developed to
investigate a number of variables thought to be related to
nonparticipation and mailed to a proportional random sample
representing 30 percent of the academic faculty at the University of
Manitoba.

Survey results were tabulated and analyzed, using the SPSS
computer program to calculate descriptive summary statistics and
perform appropriate tests of significance. The responses of various
subgroups were compared, along major disciplinary lines and according
to participation in the University Teaching Service (U.T.S.)
workshops. Responses of past participants and nonparticipants were
compared in order to identify variables which appear to be associated
with nonparticipation in instructional development activities.

Approximately one-quarter of the 213 respondents had
participated in U.T.S. teaching improvement workshops at least once
since 1971. Respondents from the Professions and Applied Sciences
appeared to be generally most supportive of the concept of teaching
improvement workshops while respondents from the Faculty of Science
appeared to be the least positive.

The study results suggest that faculty nonparticipation in T.I.P.'s may be associated with:

- the professor's views about teaching and teaching improvement

- the relative personal priority assigned to teaching

- the perceived need for improvement in teaching skills

- the attitudes towards the teaching improvement program

- the awareness of available programs

- the perceived convenience of available programs.

The perceived level of university support and rewards for good teaching was less clearly associated with faculty nonparticipation, and perceived situational blocks and barriers were not found to be associated with nonparticipation.

Based upon the research findings, a variety of approaches which might indirectly or directly encourage faculty participation in teaching improvement workshops are suggested.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction

Traditionally, university goals have encompassed teaching,
research and service; it might be assumed that faculty members strive
for excellence in these functions. The 1973 Canadian Association of
University Teachers "Guidelines on Professional Ethics" suggested that
every university professor ". . . conscientiously strive to improve
his methods of presentation" (Trotter, 1974, p. 100). In fact, in
the most recent "President's Report" (1981, p. 5), former president
Dr. D.R. Campbell stated that for the University of Manitoba,
"improvement of teaching-learning is a continuing high priority
objective."

Widespread concern over quality of teaching has been
reflected in increasing pressure from various quarters to upgrade
instruction (Bligh, 1975; Cahn, 1978; Eble, 1977). The results of a
recent comprehensive survey of University of Manitoba undergraduate
students revealed that although most of the respondents reported
satisfaction with their general University of Manitoba experience,
one-fifth of the respondents expressed dissatisfaction with the
"quality of instruction" (Office of Institutional Analysis, 1982).

One response to this general concern has been the establish-
ment of teaching improvement units—frequently offering workshops
intended to improve instructional competence and quality (Centra,

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1980; Jabker and Halinski, 1978; Kozma et al, 1978; Miller, 1972). The University Teaching Service (U.T.S.) at the University of Manitoba is an example of a central university program which has offered annual workshops covering topics such as Communication, Course Construction, Lecturing and Explaining for interested faculty members since its establishment in 1971 (Hedley, 1981). Generally, these teaching improvement programs (T.I.P.'s) are based upon the assumptions that teaching competence can be improved (Cross, 1977; Heim, 1976; Oviatt, 1975), that faculty members desire improvement in their ability (Trotter, 1974), and that increased teaching competence will lead to increased student learning (Jabker and Halinski, 1978).

The evidence of effectiveness of teaching improvement programs in improving instructional quality is equivocal; however, a number of reasearchers report such positive findings as: "apparent benefits," "favorable reactions," "personal enrichment" and "positive student response" (Erickson and Erickson, 1979; Gaff, 1975; Gaff and Morstain, 1978; Hoyt and Howard, 1978; Jabker and Halinski, 1978; Kozma, 1978; Rothman and Robinson, 1977). A further assumption, then, is that teaching improvement programs may have positive impact on teaching quality. The explosive growth of teaching improvement centers over the past decade, with corresponding increases in financial investment, literature, conferences and professionals devoted to the notion of teaching improvement programs, certainly reflects increasing confidence and enthusiasm (Centra, 1978; Foster, 1975; Gaff, 1979).

Instructional improvement or faculty development is a concept

which embraces personal, professional and institutional growth;
however, most university teaching improvement centers concentrate on
workshops and seminars intended to increase faculty teaching
competence (Bess, 1977; Gaff, 1975). It has been estimated that over
60 percent of higher education institutions offer teaching improvement
programs (Centra, 1978). Because participation in teaching improve-
ment activities is voluntary (in North America), program success is
dependent upon faculty awareness, commitment, motivation and
participation (Bergquist, 1979; Gaff, 1975; Gasch, 1979; McLaughlin
and Marsh, 1979).

Need for the Study

Despite the prevalence of rhetoric supporting improvement in
university teaching and the visibility that teaching improvement
programs have achieved on campus, only a small minority of faculty
members actually enrol in these programs. Program organizers have
claimed that increasing the relatively low user-rate represents their
highest priority (Geis and Smith, 1979). Increasing and maintaining
faculty participation appears to be the current major challenge for
program organizers (Gaff, 1975, 1979; Gasch, 1979). Although most
faculty members teach, teaching itself does not appear to be a great
faculty concern (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975). Generally, faculty
members are favorably disposed towards teaching improvement programs--
they do not oppose or resist them, but neither do they participate!
(Gaff, 1975; Gasch, 1979; Nisbet and McAleese, 1979). Cynics have
claimed that the only impact that teaching improvement programs have
effected has been to procure promotions for those professors who have

published in the T.I.P. field (McMillan, 1975). At the University

of Manitoba, even with annually-publicized workshops, the Teaching

Service programs attract only a small minority of faculty.

Considering the current economic constraints, the lack of

evidence of T.I.P. effectiveness, and the apparent plateau in faculty

participation, perhaps T.I.P. organizers need to reappraise their

goals and their services (Wergin, 1977). Now that the initial "boom"

of growth, and its attendant "frontier spirit" have passed, has

faculty involvement reached a ceiling? Teaching improvement programs

may be at a new crossroads (Gaff, 1975; Miller, 1980; Wergin, 1977).

For T.I.P. administrators, the current challenge is to reach beyond

present faculty clientele and increase participation rates (Lindquist,

1979).

Teaching improvement programmers need more information about

the changing needs and interests of the faculty, in order to plan

relevant workshops and benefit from appropriate marketing strategies

(Bock, 1980; Gaff, 1975; Wergin, 1977). Available research concerning

participants and reasons for nonparticipation is sparse, reflecting a

general lack of knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon of

faculty participation (Shipp and McKenzie, 1980). Knox et al (1980)

suggested that research to uncover personal and situational

influences on participation and to reveal reasons for nonparticipation

would provide useful data to assist administrators in reducing

barriers to lifelong education. Many researchers have concluded that

further study into the nature of nonparticipation was indicated (Bock,

1980; Ordos, 1980). Boshier (1973) recommended research into the

positive and negative forces acting on participation, along with

comprehensive study of the target audience, in order to help find ways to increase adult student participation. Boshier (1980, p. 34) was frustrated by the absence of tested knowledge in the field, and concluded: "The elimination of barriers that inhibit and the creation of circumstances that enhance participation in adult education is central to lifelong education."

The Research Problem

This study has been designed to address the main question: What factors may be related to faculty nonparticipation in available teaching improvement programs? Investigation into nonparticipation may reveal suggestions for change, which if implemented, could increase faculty participation, which is assumed to be a desirable goal.

Conceptual Framework

Participation in voluntary adult education activities such as teaching improvement programs is a complex phenomenon, influenced by multiple factors (Bock, 1980; Douglah, 1970). The decision to participate has been conceptualized as the product of the interaction between multiple psychological and situational variables which exert positive (encouraging or facilitating) forces and negative (constraining or discouraging) forces (Bock, 1980; Knox, 1977; Lewin, 1951; Miller, 1967). This approach to the explication of participation appears particularly suitable for use in this study of nonparticipation in teaching programs. Many researchers have urged further exploration and elucidation of factors significant to participation, in order to

facilitate administrative efforts to increase participation. The interaction of personal variables and situational or environmental factors would appear to influence the individual faculty member's decision regarding participation. Personal variables relating to motivation, even if they could be pinpointed with accuracy, are not considered to be easy to change. Situational variables, however, are occasionally within the realm of the administrator and amenable to change, or considered alterable.

If participation in teaching improvement programs is seen as a function of personal and situational (facilitating and discouraging) variables, then study of reasons given by faculty members for nonparticipation may reveal the nature of some of these variables.

Along with awareness of significant alterable variables, additional understanding of faculty demography may provide data important to consider in achievement of the ultimate mission—the increase in faculty participation. Within that vast majority group of faculty members classified as nonparticipants, it seems likely that some of the faculty members may display interest or willingness to participate (for example, in the future, or under different circumstances). The total faculty population could therefore be conceptualized as three general rough groupings: past participants (those who have been past participants at T.I.P.'s), unlikely participants (those who, when asked, deny any intention of participating) and potential participants (those, who, when asked, appear at least potentially willing to participate in the future).

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| U.T.S. PAST PARTICIPANTS | POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS | UNLIKELY PARTICIPANTS |
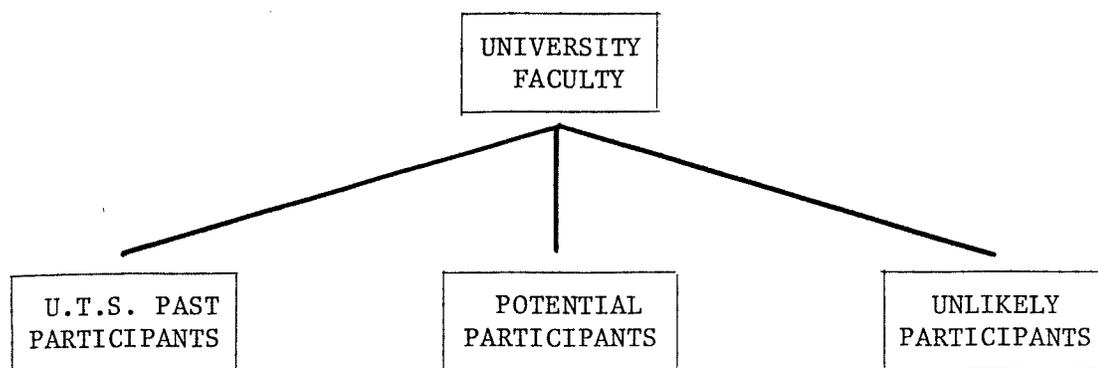
Figure 1. Participation Status of Faculty

If some faculty members appear more likely than others to be "persuadable" or potential participants, it seems reasonable that administrators should concentrate their efforts on increasing participation from this group. Efforts spent in "die-hard" admitted cynics will presumably be wasted under the existing university organization. One challenge, then, is to find out what prevents the potential participants from attending, and seek to identify possible solutions for those reasons which can be realistically altered.

Aims of the Study

The main purpose of this investigation is to explore the phenomenon of faculty nonparticipation in teaching improvement programs at the University of Manitoba. Using the concepts of participation outlined, the main spheres of interest will be those personal and situational variables which appear to be related to nonparticipation.

As a preliminary measure, to enable further analysis and intergroup comparisons, data will be collected concerning faculty participation in T.I.P.'s and faculty characteristics. Those faculty

members surveyed will be described in terms of departmental affiliation, age and rank, and identified as either U.T.S. past participants, potential or unlikely participants. Therefore, in question form, the first aim of this study is to determine:

>#1. What are the personal characteristics of the faculty members who are participants, nonparticipants or potential participants in the University Teaching Service teaching improvement programs?

A general overview of the faculty reasons for nonparticipation and examination of those factors which appear to be associated with nonparticipation is necessary before analysis or prescriptive suggestions are possible.

>#2. What are the factors or variables which appear to be related to faculty nonparticipation in the University Teaching Service teaching improvement programs?

Given the probable wide scope and range of variables which may appear to be related to nonparticipation, it appears useful to distinguish between personal and situational factors. Personal variables may deal with personal attitudes or perceptions which are the result of individual idiosyncrasies or which are related to reference-group norms. Analysis of these personal attitudes along disciplinary lines may reveal group-specific attitudes or orientations relevant to participation. Identification and recognition of these personal or group-related attitudes is of vital importance to the T.I.P. administrator--not because attempts to change those attitudes are anticipated, but simply to allow consideration of these attitudes during program planning.

>#3. What are the personal variables which appear to be related to faculty nonparticipation in the University Teaching Service teaching improvement programs?

Another subset of the overall group of reasons for nonpartici-

pation are those considered to be situational variables. Faculty members will be asked to identify environmental factors or institutional practices they perceive to be influential to participation in T.I.P.'s.

> #4. What are the situational variables which appear to be related to faculty nonparticipation in the University Teaching Service teaching improvement programs?

Analysis of these situational and personal variables is expected to permit further subdivision into a set of factors considered to be alterable and a set considered to be unalterable. Bloom (1980) described the shift of research concern from static factors (such as descriptive characteristics) to a new emphasis on alterable variables (those factors which can be changed, and which have the potential capacity to effect change). Bloom (1980) predicted that the search for these alterable variables will characterize educational research of the 1980's. For the ultimate goal of increasing faculty participation in T.I.P.'s, identification of these alterable variables holds more promise for T.I.P. planners and administrators than does identification of those unalterable factors regarding the individual and the environment.

> #5. What are the factors or variables related to faculty nonparticipation which appear to be alterable?

Identification of variables thought to be amenable to change permits focussing of attention to possible strategies for change. Faculty may offer suggestions which they feel would encourage or facilitate teaching improvement program participation. Practical implications for possible courses of action may arise as a result of the data collection and analysis.

#6. What are the implications of the analysis, or suggestions for changes, which may increase the likelihood of faculty participation in the University Teaching Service teaching improvement programs?

Significance of the Study

This research will contribute new data of potential significance to the existing sparse body of knowledge specifically related to nonparticipation in T.I.P.'s in university settings. Study of the reasons for nonparticipation and identification of patterns of participation or of attitudes found to be characteristic of non-participants or of particular subgroups will all provide further insight into the phenomenon of nonparticipation. Such increased understanding could help support or stimulate subsequent thinking about faculty participation in instructional development activities.

This investigation is expected to make a significant contribution towards an approach to the practical problem of low T.I.P. participation rates. Analysis of the data should reveal suggestions which have the potential to increase faculty participation, either directly or indirectly. For example, administrators may decide, based on the evidence, to encourage participation by removing certain institutional barriers or by ameliorating incentives. University Teaching Service organizers may find that marketing and public relations efforts need to be strengthened and/or redirected to a more receptive segment of the faculty audience. Program planners may find that data indicate that content of workshops needs to be made more relevant or specific, or that present scheduling and format of workshops is inconvenient. These data will help provide groundwork for development of future needs assessments. Should results indicate

that the University of Manitoba Teaching Service has relatively low status, and that the low status appears to be related to nonparticipation—perhaps the administration would consider linking the U.T.S. more closely to the central university administration.

The problems and issues tackled in this study are similar to those shared by more comparable universities; therefore the results of the study may be of some interest to fellow T.I.P. organizers. The data collection instruments developed specifically for this project may also prove valuable in replication studies or in the examination of teaching values and beliefs.

It is to be hoped that the identification of relevant variables and patterns will provide a groundwork which will stimulate further research and inspire more rigorous testing of possible causes for nonparticipation through appropriate investigations.

Research Design

The nature of the research problem suggested that exploratory descriptive research methods would be most suitable (Borg and Gall, 1979; Kerlinger, 1973). The aim was to capture a "snapshot" of current faculty opinions, beliefs and reasons and other descriptive data which may be related to participation in T.I.P.'s on campus.

The data collection procedures relied heavily upon self-report measures administered to University of Manitoba faculty members. A preliminary review of theory and research along with intuitive reasoning provided a tentative framework for conceptualizing participation. A group interview with selected representative members of the faculty provided natural language perceptions of reasons for

nonparticipation, along with suggestions about how to improve participation. This group of subjects was small, chosen on the basis of diverse backgrounds and teaching experience, and with the expectation that they were familiar with and qualified to represent the range of faculty opinions in their areas.

The interview data, synthesized with that gleaned from a complete review of related and relevant literature, provided a basis for the trial survey instrument. The questionnaire content validity was judged by suitably qualified expert judges, and the instrument revised accordingly. A pretest was administered to a small sample of faculty members, in order to further improve validity, to reduce ambiguities and bias, and to help plan analysis procedures. The survey was distributed to a cross-section of University of Manitoba faculty, representing a stratified random sample of the total full-time academic population. Follow-up measures were instituted to maximize the response rate as required.

Analysis of the data involved utilization of descriptive statistics (for multiple-choice survey items) and content analyses (of open-ended survey responses). Descriptive summary statistics were used to describe variables and contingency tables (using chi-square tests) and analysis of variance (using F-tests) were used to explore relationships between two or more variables. A comparative approach was used to help identify variables or characteristics which appeared to be associated with nonparticipation.

Limitations

The study was specifically restricted to the University of

Manitoba and the subjects of the study were drawn from the full-time academic staff population. The teaching improvement programs under consideration were limited to those seminars and workshops specifically intended to improve the quality of instruction, conducted annually by the University of Manitoba Teaching Service. The data collection process occurred within a restricted time limit during the months of June through August.

Those factors or conditions outside the control of the researcher may be considered limitations, and may influence the credibility of the study conclusions. The generalizability of the results is limited due to the specific restricted nature of the study setting and subjects. Inherent limitations of the interview and survey strategies (such as bias, item validity, unqualified respondents and non-response) all restrict validity and the potential value of conclusions. Unfortunately, the timing of the data collection during the summer months (when many professors were not available) may have resulted in somewhat fewer responses than might normally have been the case.

Organization of the Report

Chapter I serves to present the background and rationale for the study and to outline the conceptual framework and research questions which guided the research. Chapter II provides the review of relevant literature, including brief theoretical considerations as well as previous research findings in the area of participation in T.I.P.'s. The choice of research design and data collection strategies are defended in Chapter III, and the development and

administration of the main data collection instrument is described.

Chapter III also includes a description of the respondents. The

results of the survey are organized and presented in Chapter IV,

illustrated and summarized when appropriate by accompanying tables.

The final chapter presents a discussion of the results in terms of

the original research questions, relates the findings to the

literature, and concludes with speculations about faculty nonpartici-

pation in instructional development activities and suggestions for

further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Introduction

The initial scope of the literature review is broad and
general, and gradually narrows in and focusses sharply on the actual
studies of T.I.P. participation. The main themes of personal
(psychological) and situational determinants of participation, as
introduced in Chapter I, serve as helpful guides through the litera-
ture. A review of theoretical constructs of motivation, and the
principles of adult learning reveals general background to help
understand the individual faculty member's personal needs and desires.
These must be considered when attempting to understand participation
decisions. Comprehensive description of various social and
institutional factors which appear to be influential to T.I.P.
participation follows the theoretical introduction. Identification
of these variables permits more focussed and specific data collection,
which should result in a more valid description of the influences on
faculty T.I.P. participation. Next, reports on specific studies and
available descriptive data concerning participation in T.I.P.'s are
presented, in order to permit later comparative analysis. The
suitability and applicability of the participation model are discussed
in light of the literature. Finally, Chapter II concludes with a
summary of considerations thought to be important to participation,
to provide a basis for data collection.

Theoretical Background

Human behavior is complex and influenced by a variety of forces (Ericksen, 1974). According to Murray (1938), behavior is an attempt to fulfill needs (or drives) and is influenced by presses (or external environmental determinants)(Good and Brophy, 1980). Cognitive theory points out that what the individual perceives as reality influences his behavior (Good and Brophy, 1980).

Motivation has been defined as "direct(ing) an individual's behavior towards the satisfaction of some need" (Lovell, 1980, p. 161) and is seen to explain "the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of goal-directed behavior" (Good and Brophy, 1980, p. 210). Ericksen (1974) explained that motivations or reasons for one's behavior are very personal, and can only be inferred from opinions and actions. Goldstein (1974) claimed that most researchers agree that the motivational level functions to "energize" the individual, influencing performance and active participation.

The concept of motivation can be viewed from several different perspectives, each of which considers different factors (Good and Brophy, 1980). For example, Herzberg et al, (1959) theorized that motivation for work was a result of intrinsic factors (such as satisfaction) and extrinsic factors (such as salary)(Goldstein, 1974). Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory held that intrinsic and extrinsic needs are on a continuum, where basic needs (such as food) must be satisfied before higher-level needs (such as the need for self-actualization) can serve as motivators. Maslow believed that such personal growth was natural and that a commitment to self-actual-

ization was the ultimate intrinsic motivator (Brundage, 1980; Ericksen, 1974; Good and Brophy, 1980). Self-esteem and the drive for positive growth appear to be important to motivation (Downey and Kelly, 1979). Ericksen (1974) stated that the satisfaction of self-referenced motives was more powerful than extrinsic motives. Goldstein (1974) reminded adult educators of an implication of these motivational needs--that different learners may have conflicting needs at various motivational levels.

The need for achievement is seen as an important motivating force (Atkinson, 1964). In achievement motivation, behavioral decisions are influenced by the individual's perceptions regarding the probability of success and the fear of failure (Good and Brophy, 1980). Ericksen (1974) claimed that most university professors are good examples of the upwardly-mobile high-achieving norm of middle class society. Motivation can be influenced by the perceived expected benefits--such as interest, achievement, satisfaction or goal attainment (Bock, 1980). If participation in a T.I.P. is seen to be "instrumental" (helpful) in achieving personal goals, motivation is enhanced (Goldstein, 1974). According to this view, teaching improvement programmers should try to give potential participants evidence that attendance at T.I.P.'s will lead to achievement and success that is meaningful to them. Educational programs must be perceived as relevant and related to clients' desired long-term goals (Goldstein, 1974).

Other aspects of motivation include the desire for competence (to achieve mastery) and need to satisfy curiosity (Downey and Kelly, 1979; White, 1955). People are often motivated out of interest--to

acquire knowledge for its own sake. The intellectual satisfaction in discovery and understanding provides a self-reinforcing intrinsic reward (Downey and Kelly, 1979). The apparent tension or incongruence that occurs when a problem or discrepancy is perceived ("cognitive dissonance") helps challenge the individual to resolve the problem (in order to satisfy curiosity or to fulfill need for competence, for example). Increasing knowledge is associated with increasing interest, and this self-reinforcing relationship is of particular interest for adult educators attempting to promote lifelong learning. For example, initially some form of external "press" may help motivate participation, but the increased interest, which results from increased knowledge, should help promote and maintain further involvement (Downey and Kelly, 1979).

Ericksen (1974, p. 67) described student motivation to learn as "a function of relatively stable personality characteristics interacting with variable properties of the immediate environment." Motivation level therefore depends upon individual perceptions to a great extent. The concept of readiness, which involves background factors related to maturity and experience, must be considered along with motivation, when discussing learning (Goldstein, 1974).

Downey and Kelly (1979) concluded that motivation is a product of individual personal factors and social and organizational factors related to the institution. Goldstein (1974) also emphasized the importance of the setting or context in which the variety of motivational factors were found. Because each individual is influenced by a different variety of motivational factors, the implication for adult educators who are attempting to enhance

learning, is to recognize and utilize as many motivational factors as possible.

The theories and principles of adult learning also provide clues for understanding faculty participation in T.I.P.'s. Gaff (1975) described Sanford's 1973 General Theory of Adult Development, which said that adult behavioral change: is facilitated by the presence of a challenge, often requires reduction of external situational barriers, depends on self-appraisal of individual needs, and benefits from group or peer support.

Brundage (1980) listed several Adult Learning Principles which should be considered when planning T.I.P.'s. Adults can and do change in response to external and internal pressures. Adult self-esteem, rooted in past experience, must be considered. Adults prefer active involvement in areas they perceive as relevant to current problems or personal goals. A supportive environment, where identification of needs and obstacles occurs, is beneficial to learning. Self-appraisal is another feature of adult learning. When motivated by the presence of a perceived deficit or external pressure, the adult learner may feel threatened and anxious. Adults learn best if they value the role of the learner, perceive immediate pragmatic application to their own world, and have no time pressures. Recognition of the existing variety of learning styles is also important. These principles reviewed by Brundage (1980) correspond closely with characteristics of adult learning described in the adult education literature (Knox, 1980; Mee, 1980; Rogers, 1977).

Knowles (1973) emphasized the autonomous, self-directed nature of the adult learner; unless the adult perceives that the

T.I.P. is relevant and directly related to self-perceived problems, the adult will not voluntarily participate. Frequently adults fear revealing weaknesses publicly, therefore learner anxiety must be considered in T.I.P. workshop situations, and care taken to provide nonthreatening situations and feedback (Mee, 1980). Because adults are all different and have diverse backgrounds, T.I.P. organizers should provide an assortment of subjects at a variety of levels. Active participation, discovery learning, problem solving and group discussions appear to be especially suitable for adult learning styles (Rogers, 1977). Unfortunately, as Francis (1975) pointed out, T.I.P. workshops often have the reputation of dealing primarily with lectures, passive participation, emphasis on behavioral objectives, programmed learning and the systems approach. These approaches appear to be only "marginally appropriate" for adult learning styles, and risk being boring and unproductive (Francis, 1975).

Lindquist (1979), in his model relating teaching improvement to learning improvement, emphasized that institutional change must precede individual faculty changes. Complex organizations are noted for their resistance to change, competition for scarce resources, and abundance of prior commitments (Case, 1979). Buhl (1971) declared that change of institutional conditions to facilitate effective teaching and learning was vital to increase the likelihood of T.I.P. impact on the system. Both Gaff (1979) and Buhl (1979) pointed out that to ensure enduring institutional change, faculty commitment and involvement (at grass-roots level) was critical. Awareness, concern, and consciousness-levels all influence the individual's involvement and level of acceptance and adoption of change (Bents and Howey, 1971;

Buhl, 1979). Traditionally, higher education institutions are known to block reform, featuring inherent passivity, ritualism, basic conservatism and even deliberate resistance to change (Hefferlin, 1969). Astin (1976) concluded that university conservatism was a very strong force resisting reform. The university "climate" appears to be a significant modifier of faculty attitudes and behavior. The extent to which the university is perceived to support or encourage excellence or improvement in teaching may well be a factor in faculty nonparticipation in T.I.P.'s.

This quick glance at only several of the determinants of adult behavior is sufficient to reveal the difficulty and complexity involved in judging the motives of individuals. It is apparent that the fields of psychology, sociology and education can offer a rich source of theories and concepts with which to better study and understand the phenomenon of university faculty participation in teaching improvement programs.

Influences on Teaching Improvement Program Participation

The literature reveals many constellations of factors which may interrelate to apparently influence the potential participant's decision to attend. Unfortunately, most authors present different sets of determining factors, and most are based on personal experience and observation--not "hard" evidence.

The faculty member's attitude towards teaching itself, appears to be an important determinant of interest in T.I.P. participation. Naturally these personal attitudes are shaped by many

forces--individual, peer and institutional.

Traditional academic values and beliefs appear to influence attitudes very strongly (Lindquist, 1979). The academic tradition neglects teaching and tends to reinforce discouraging forces acting upon T.I.P.'s (Gaff, 1979). There are many myths and beliefs which are strongly embedded in the traditional university folklore. Universities generally do not provide graduate students with teaching preparation, nor do universities require prospective staff to be prepared in pedagogy (Stockdale and Wochok, 1977); therefore, frequently, academics tend to be suspicious of pedagogical training and educationalists. Traditionally, trial and error (sink or swim) experience has been seen as appropriate training for apprentice teachers--what more was needed? (Gaff, 1975, 1977, 1978; Jabker and Halinski, 1979; Mauksch, 1980). The belief that teaching is an art, not a science, remains very strong (Axelrod, 1973; Eble, 1976). Teachers are born; teaching is an innate ability--not a function of effort (Mauksch, 1980). Naturally, if teaching is innate and cannot be taught, T.I.P.'s would not appear to offer any benefits (Gaff, 1978). As well, if effort and hard work cannot influence the quality of teaching (because one is born a teacher) then it would not appear sensible or even fair to reward teaching efforts (Mauksch, 1980). Geis (et al, 1979) found, after extensive interviews, that faculty members did not believe that pedagogy possessed a distinct "body of knowledge." Naturally, these faculty members would doubt whether pedagogy could be taught or learned. This attitude, along with the belief that teaching cannot be improved, creates faculty pessimism about the efficacy of teaching improvement programs (Gaff, 1978).

Faculty autonomy, under the widespread mantle of academic freedom, encourages the belief that teaching is a private, personal act (Mathis, 1979). Naturally, the classroom is the castle, and it is considered unprofessional to criticize or even observe a colleague's teaching performance. This isolation and seclusion discourages faculty from seeking outside help or even discussing teaching concerns with each other. Clearly, the T.I.P. consultant could be perceived as a threatening figure, and faculty easily adopt a defensive posture, clinging to that familiar bastion of academic freedom—the classroom (Gaff, 1978, 1979; Geis et al, 1979).

As Herschfield (1980) noted, the single pervasive model of excellence in higher education appears to be the prestigious research university. This model of excellence has a heavy influence on faculty and administration opinions and behaviors; as a result, research and scholarship traditionally dominate at the expense of teaching. Goldstein and Anderson (1977) reported results of a faculty survey done at the University of Illinois to determine the weight given to teaching and research in tenure and promotion decisions. Research was seen as by far the most important factor in decision-making. As well, the majority of respondents claimed that a serious deterrent to doing an effective job of teaching was insufficient rewards for teaching as opposed to research and public service. Faculty apparently frequently believe that emphasis cannot be placed on teaching quality without sacrificing scholarship—consequently, teaching often takes a backseat to research (Astin, 1980; Carrieri, 1977; Eble, 1972; Lindquist, 1979; Mathis, 1979). Teaching appears to have low status, and Mauksch (1980) claimed that teachers share a

minority group mentality, internalizing low self-worth. The teaching

assignment is known as the "teaching load" (Astin, 1980). The terms

"professor," "scholar" and even "lecturer" seem to be preferable to

being labeled as "only a teacher" (Mauksch, 1980). Bess (1977)

explained that the low status accorded teaching decreases the value

of any innate rewards or satisfaction derived from teaching,

decreasing the need-achievement motive. Trotter (1977) described a

situation where a committee of concerned teachers were maligned by the

rest of the scholarly community, who viewed the committee members as

"failures" who were unable to "make the grade" through the traditional

research route.

Another traditional belief which influences faculty interest

in T.I.P.'s is the belief that good teaching is indefinable. As

Marcus stated, "the essence of good teaching constitutes a mystery"

(Buxton-Pritchard, 1975). Clearly, if faculty members cannot decide

what good teaching involves, they certainly will not be able to agree

on criteria by which to evaluate teaching quality. Faculty who

believe teaching is a private and innate art may not believe that

evaluation of teaching is relevant. Student ratings are frequently

challenged and discounted as invalid indicators of instructional

quality (Mauksch, 1980). As Gaff (1978) explained, as long as

evaluations are not accepted and implemented, evaluative data can

never be truly utilized in promotion and tenure decisions. Bess

(1977) claimed that teachers receive less satisfaction with their

teaching simply because they are unable to measure the outcomes of

their efforts.

Many faculty members apparently believe that the best

qualification for teaching is subject specialization (Gaff, 1978; Jabker and Halinski, 1979). These professors believe that teaching improvement is achieved through granting of sabbaticals or by decreasing teaching assignments (Gaff, 1978). In a recent study investigating professional attitudes to teaching, Geis (et al, 1979) found that surveyed professors felt that the best way to improve their teaching quality was to devote time to improving their specialty subject knowledge. Geis (et al, 1979), who was concerned with low participation rates for T.I.P.'s, concluded that the problem was not outright faculty resistance or opposition, but simply that the teaching improvement programs were clearly irrelevant to what professors conceived to be relevant or instrumental to improved quality. In other words, before T.I.P. organizers dismiss non-participating faculty as cynics or resistors to innovation, the faculty member's attitudes towards teaching and definition of excellence in teaching must be explored.

The university professor's functions as an instructor involve many possible roles, styles and aspects (Geis, Wilburn and Mellor, 1981). Professors may adopt various roles: the expert, the formal authority, the socializing agent, the facilitator, the ego ideal or the person (Mann, 1975; McKeachie, 1978). Bess (1977) commented that the current teaching role is ill-defined, and the professor is subjected to conflicting role expectations from all directions. Individual professors hold different definitions of teaching, and in light of their personal perspective and self-concept, they adopt a corresponding role to play (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975; Geis,

Wilburn and Mellor, 1981). A serious issue with heavy implications for T.I.P.'s is the widely held belief that most professors do not view themselves primarily as teachers, and consequently do not seriously consider their role as a teacher (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975; Budig, 1970; Cahn, 1978). The literature on evaluation of teaching provides several relevant questions to ask of professors (Blackburn et al, 1980; Miller, 1972). An example of one such pertinent "indicator" question would be: What is your definition of outstanding teaching? If superior teaching simply involves subject competence--this finding surely has implications for the perceived need for and relevance of T.I.P.'s.

The professor's perceptions of what teaching is and what constitutes excellence in teaching serve as standards against which the professor's current performance can be measured (Geis, 1981). The professor, in his or her own self-appraisal, must perceive or experience some discrepancy or need for improvement, before efforts to seek improvement will be made (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975). Satisfaction with the current state of affairs does not lead to efforts to seek new skills (Eraut, 1975). Mauksch (1980) claimed that it is often assumed that all faculty are good teachers. Many authors have reported that most faculty members already view themselves as excellent teachers (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975; Case, 1979). Recognizing personal inadequacy, publicly exposing performance weaknesses and admitting that one needs improvement can be very difficult and threatening to the individual (Francis, 1975; Lindquist, 1979; McLaughlin and March, 1979). The negative emphasis of this

deficit model creates anxiety and resistance among faculty members (Case, 1979). Cross (1977) surveyed University of Nebraska faculty extensively and found a disconcerting "smug self-satisfaction" among faculty which was very unlikely to encourage interest in self-improvement. Faculty rated themselves as excellent teachers and saw no need for improvement or for evaluation of teaching. Faculty members were unable to agree on how to improve teaching and believed that T.I.P.'s were passing fads--that no one really knows how to improve teaching. Cross (1977) concluded that without pressure, discontent or a perceived need to improve, faculty were highly unlikely to make efforts to change. The implications of these general findings indicate a poor prognosis for T.I.P.'s--unless faculty awareness and consciousness are raised to a higher level where teaching quality and improvement become concerns (Centra, 1977; Francis, 1975; Gaff, 1975).

Although a discrepancy between self-appraised current level and desired level of teaching quality assists in readiness to change, it is not necessary to think in terms of a deficit or currently unsatisfactory level of teaching (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975). For example, a professor may seek further growth and development out of intrinsic interest, not because he perceives his teaching to be inadequate, but because he feels that he can always improve or benefit from further growth (Gaff, 1979). The emphasis is then on positive growth and personal enrichment (Gaff and Morstain, 1978). Gaff (1979) and Lindquist (1979) both emphasized that this intrinsic interest and willing commitment to personal growth serves as a more powerful motivator than external pressures or demands to improve or remedy

deficits. Teaching improvement cannot be forced (Lindquist, 1979).

There is no doubt that individual values and motivations are strongly influenced or shaped by overall faculty academic norms. The faculty as a whole influences role expectations, rewards and incentives and the training of graduate teaching assistants; thereby severely restricting the extent to which teaching can be perceived as "rewarding" (Bess, 1977; Mathis, 1979). Group socialization pressures and social norms often discourage teacher interest in teaching improvement efforts (Lovell, 1980). Astin (1976) concluded that the faculty was the most important block to change on university campuses. McKeachie (1978) explained that professors may avoid innovations (such as T.I.P.'s) due to fear of unfavorable colleague reactions. Peer pressure, ambiguous role demands, and lack of value for and interest in T.I.P.'s all serve to discourage support of T.I.P."s (Bess, 1977; Buhl, 1979; Eraut, 1975; Gaff, 1978). Bergquist (1979) stated that faculty do approve of T.I.P.'s--as long as no effort is required! Unless the faculty support system encourages participation in T.I.P.'s, the discouraging forces will remain unfavorably strong, and the future of T.I.P.'s bleak (Gaff, 1975; Lindquist, 1979).

The influence of the professor's own subject area or discipline appears to be an extremely strong influence on individual attitudes towards teaching (Mathis, 1979). Ross (1976) explained that professorial loyalty has shifted over the years from the university in general to the specific discipline area or field. If recognition of achievement can be attained through research and national visibility, then teaching undergraduates may take low priority (Mathis, 1979). Disciplinary or professional associations can be considered obstacles

to improved teaching quality (Lindquist, 1979; Mauksch, 1980).
Undergraduates are considered general university students, but
graduate students are seen as entrants into "the field" (Mauksch,
1980). Eble (1972, p. 179) emphasized the importance of the graduate
program in influencing these entrants: "the graduate school is surely
where a college professor's values are most firmly established."
Eble (1972, p. 180) also noted that faculty members "tend to
reproduce existing faculty values and attitudes" in their graduate
students; and concluded that "the dominance of research is clearly a
consequence of graduate education." The university system appears to
be structured to encourage specialization, peer pressure demands it,
and professors (with their "needs for affiliation") duly accept the
imposed isolation and lack of contact with different "specialists"
around campus (Francis, 1975; Gaff, 1978; Lindquist, 1979; Lovell,
1980).

The academic department also appears to heavily influence
faculty members' attitudes towards teaching and teaching improvement.
Eble (1972, p. 180) stated: "the power of the departments strongly
favors disciplinary values." Heiss commented that "the paramount
interest of the graduate department is the production of specialists
for the discipline" (Eble, 1972, p. 99). The department appears to be
the important unit within the university community—as Bailey (in
Budig, 1970, p. 55) expressed it: "the department is where the action
is."

Stark and Morstain (1978) studied faculty attitudes towards
teaching, and concluded that faculty were not homogeneous. Different

faculty groups were found to hold certain perspectives on teaching and learning which were generally related to the disciplinary affiliation. Stark and Morstain (1978, p. 433) concluded that: "identifiable groups of faculty appear to hold significantly different perspectives on teaching-learning goals and strategies for achieving these goals." This finding implies that teaching improvement programs should provide programs with different assumptions and a variety of perspectives in order to be relevant to the various faculty groups. Wick (1976) reported on the results of a study which measured willingness of professors to participate in teaching improvement programs. Of all the variables explored, the only consistently predictive individual characteristic was the discipline area of the professor. For example, education, physical education and home economics professors were most willing to participate in teaching-improvement oriented workshops. Therefore, any investigation of faculty participation should include exploration of disciplinary affiliation.

The nature and structure of the university is yet another major consideration with regard to teaching improvement programs. Today's multiversity is a complex organization with many diverse functions and groups, with very little consensus on the value or methods of teaching (Mathis, 1979; Ross, 1976, Williams, 1979). Politics, economics and the quality of leadership are all features important to the overall institutional climate (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1979; Williams, 1979). The university mission and goal structure are extremely important to this climate (Case, 1979; Wergin, 1977). For example, is quality teaching a university goal? Is there a consensus

on the goals? Are goals articulated? Are goals well-known and shared by administration and academics? Eraut (1975) claimed that teaching and learning is rarely a priority. Some writers apparently believe that although the administration may approve of, and "encourage" the improvement of instruction, unless goals are stated as policies, put into practice, and resources allocated towards these new policies, these goals will remain as "motherhood" statements (Bergquist, 1979; Gaff, 1975). Several writers have concluded that clear policies are needed to support teaching and teaching improvement, and that these policies must be communicated to faculty and administration (Buhl, 1979; Gaff, 1975; Miller and Verduin, 1979; Votruba, 1978).

University commitment to any objectives (such as teaching improvement) is reflected in the actual investment of "hard" money and resources (Campbell, 1972). As Lindquist (1979) stated, this allocation shows the individual faculty member that the university values his teaching ability enough to provide him with on-campus facilities to assist in his self-improvement. The role of the administration is to provide: a positive, supportive climate, praise and acknowledgement for work well done, guidance and opportunities for faculty to grow (Miller and Verduin, 1979; White and Belt, 1980). Together, these factors can influence faculty morale, which can affect T.I.P. participation.

The university reward structure reflects the commitment of the university toward improved instruction. Many authors have emphasized the great influence that the reward system has upon T.I.P. participation (Buhl, 1979; Mathis, 1979; Mauksch, 1980). Case (1979)

described possible rewards which could be used: credits, merit pay, promotion, tenure or time off. The Oliver Report on Post-Secondary Education in Manitoba (1973, p. 83) supported T.I.P.'s strongly, and claimed that "the motive for professors to avail themselves of courses on teaching methods will undoubtedly come in large measure from evaluations." The Report recommended that "evidence of attention to teaching improvement . . . be required of all teaching staff" in tenure and promotion guidelines. Although promotion and tenure decisions often claim to take teaching (at least officially) into "consideration," often no formal evaluation of instruction occurs, and no evidence of teaching effectiveness is presented or utilized in these decisions (Gaff, 1975, 1978). Our society is a credential-oriented system (Miller and Verduin, 1979); unless the institution directly rewards evidence of teaching improvement or effectiveness, faculty may continue to doubt the university's commitment to improving instructional quality (Buhl, 1979; Mathis, 1979). A study conducted by Jabker and Halinski (1978) appeared to confirm that faculty consider promotion and tenure the most important institutional rewards. They concluded that the fate of teaching improvement programs was contingent upon an effective reward system--with the status of teaching being raised to that of research and scholarship (Jabker and Halinski, 1978). Gasch (1979) reported that a major reason for nonparticipation in T.I.P.'s was the basic lack of reward for involvement (in terms of money, decreased workload, or increased status or career opportunities). Votruba (1978) in an investigation into outreach teaching, concluded that the only significant rewards in the entire university system were based on the academic departments

--those promotion and tenure decisions which would influence the professor's professional careers. Votruba (1978) claimed that it was crucial that the status of teaching be raised within the departments. In general, then, the literature suggests that if the university administrators and department heads want to improve T.I.P. participation, they should require evidence of teaching improvement and provide opportunities for improvement, and above all they should reward efforts at effective teaching, through promotion and tenure decisions.

Many aspects and features of the actual teaching improvement program may directly and indirectly influence faculty motivation to participate. One obvious determinant of participation is the visibility of the teaching improvement program. Unless programs have a high public profile, faculty awareness is not possible. Awareness and concern influence the faculty member's perceptions, which ultimately determine the decision to participate in T.I.P.'s (Kozma, 1978). Therefore, the visibility and the awareness of all crucial aspects of teaching improvement programs play a role in determining individual perceptions. Aspects of the T.I.P.'s such as structure, mission, availability and access, staff and resources, programming, quality and efficacy, and convenience and cost are variables worthy of consideration.

The formal administrative structure, location and power of the teaching improvement center may influence the status of the center (Lindquist, 1979). Formal linkages with an authority base such as the office of the highest academic officer in the university

may help attract participants (Lindquist, 1979, Miller, 1980;

Votruba, 1978). A strong direct administrative link to the university

permits certain "leverage;" so, because T.I.P.'s generally have no

intrinsic power, support from "the top" is very helpful (Gaff, 1975;

Lindquist, 1979; Miller, 1980). Unfortunately, as Wergin (1977)

pointed out, most T.I.P.'s are located on the "periphery" of the

university setting, and accorded only marginal, temporary status.

Gaff (1975) also commented on the typical isolation of the T.I.P.

from the rest of the university.

If faculty are to perceive the benefits of participating in

T.I.P.'s, clearly the teaching improvement center must articulate

and publicize their agreed-upon goals and central purpose (Lindquist,

1979). Centra (1976) stated that one of the reasons for nonacceptance

and nonparticipation in teaching improvement programs is a lack of

faculty understanding of the purpose of the program. Mullaly and

Duffy (1978) determined that a major problem was the difference in

perceptions of what constituted faculty development--the wide range

of goals held by planners and faculty tended to subvert teaching

improvement strategies. Rutherford (1981) emphasized the need for

comprehensive T.I.P. administrative strategies individualized to the

social and organizational context unique to the particular university.

The center should be prepared to defend its philosophical stance and

assumptions, or risk being carelessly labelled as espousing

"behaviorist" or "educational technology" or "audio-visual media"

approaches to education (Foster and Nelson, 1979).

Frequently the focus of efforts is the provision of teaching

improvement workshops for volunteer interested faculty members (Gaff, 1975). This predominating mode ("let them come to us") represents a low-key, passive effort to improve faculty (McMillan, 1975). This service orientation may not reach unmotivated faculty members, and has been viewed as a traditional, status-quo framework, operating quietly within the present university system (Gaff, 1975; McMillan, 1975). Unfortunately, this approach is unlikely to create real change or reform within the system, therefore, if the real purpose or mission of the teaching improvement center is to actually attempt to increase teaching quality, a more active approach may be indicated (Gaff, 1975; Lindquist, 1979). For example, an advocacy role to encourage and influence colleagues and administrators, and strategies to implement institutional reform in order to create conditions conducive to excellent teaching, may lead to improvement (Gaff, 1975; Lindquist, 1979).

Client knowledge of the scope and availability of T.I.P. offerings appears to be vital to participation. Institutional visibility of the program and the general awareness level of faculty appears crucial (Francis, 1975; Miller, 1980). Knox (1977) explained that unless faculty are aware of opportunities, they will be unlikely to increase their demand for services; therefore, study of faculty awareness of campus T.I.P. offerings appears indicated. The levels of awareness, concern or consciousness can be assessed, and attempts made to increase these levels or to modify activities to best suit the current "state of awareness" (Bents and Howey, 1981; Francis, 1975; Hall et al, 1973). Teaching improvement programs must be

considered alongside all the other campus activities competing for the faculty member's precious limited time (Wergin, 1977). Public relations, publicity, newsletters, formal and informal communications --these and other marketing strategies have been suggested as possible approaches to maximize participation (Bock, 1980; Wergin, 1977).

Faculty impressions of the teaching improvement center's leaders, staff and resources may influence participation. Gaff (1975) claimed that the workshop staff was the most important ingredient of a successful T.I.P. If the director is not perceived as being sufficiently "academic" or is categorized as a "media-man" or an "educationalist," attendance may suffer (Gaff, 1975). The affiliation of the center with a particular faculty (for example, Education) may influence its reputation (Gregor, 1981). The use of faculty development rhetoric may alienate serious "scholars" (Gaff, 1975). Miller (1980) claimed that program success is dependent on the involvement and support of visible, successful academically respected faculty members. The "trainer-trainee" mentality perhaps should be avoided--the more personal "collegial" approach, using peer group consultants, may be less threatening and appears to be more acceptable in university settings (Lieberman and Miller, 1979). Occasionally, the faculty members may mistrust the motives of T.I.P. leaders-- suspecting self interest (Gaff, 1978; Lindquist, 1979; Williams, 1979). Gaff (1978) stated that T.I.P. staff who appear highly committed to their mission and who eagerly share their energy, effort, time and resources, without resorting to self-promotion, should be able to inspire improved-client confidence (Gaff, 1978). The resources of

the center-funding, facilities, leadership staff (creativity, energy and drive), resources, power, connections and support staff may all be important to program success (Case, 1979).

The nature of the teaching improvement workshops and seminars offered, the subject matter, the format and the level of difficulty or sophistication involved may strongly influence how relevant the course appears to be for the prospective participant (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975; Foster and Nelson, 1979). The course content should be valid and well-supported, according to Gage (1972). A major programming obstacle may be the diverse nature of the multiversity setting. The university setting includes many different groups of people with conflicting needs, interests and values (Ross, 1976; Wergin, 1977). The T.I.P. may attempt to serve all these different publics; predictability, only certain perceived needs can be realistically met (Miller, 1980; Wergin, 1977). Typically, T.I.P. centers can only afford a certain amount of time, money and effort, and therefore attempt to provide a limited repertoire of subjects in the hope of appealing to the largest general audience. Format of the offerings may also influence participation (Goldschmid, 1978); for example, in micro-teaching situations, some faculty members may be afraid to risk exposing poor teaching performance or weaknesses in front of their peers (Foster and Nelson, 1979; Francis, 1975; Lindquist, 1979). It appears that T.I.P. organizers desiring increased participation, especially from new "unreached" audiences, should consider closely examining the diverse needs and interests of the potential clients, in order to best plan appropriate, relevant

programs.

The reputation that the T.I.P. "enjoys"--or what perception the faculty members hold of the program's quality and efficacy, also appears to be extremely important in determining participation (Hoffman, 1981). The literature reveals a general lack of faith on the part of faculty, in teaching improvement programs (Case, 1979; Cross, 1977, Gaff, 1979; Jolling, 1981). Apparently, some faculty believe T.I.P.'s are a fad, and that institutional reform is impossible (Gaff, 1975, 1979). One reason given for the lack of confidence in the effectiveness of T.I.P.'s in actually improving instruction is the absence of evidence of impact (Wergin, 1977). The program effects are often long-term and attitudinal in nature; therefore, effects are not readily apparent or measurable (Wergin, 1977). Previous failures of improvement efforts are likely to handicap future attempts (Case, 1979). The reputation of the program quality spreads quickly by word of mouth, especially via ex-participants and "dropouts" (Foster and Nelson, 1979). The marginal status of the center within the university sphere may create a demand for accountability ("show us evidence of impact") which may force a defensive posture in program planners (Wergin, 1977). Unfortunately, the "hard" research evidence which might convince skeptical faculty, those research results which appear to be crucial to the survival of T.I.P.'s (Gage, 1972), has been very slow in forthcoming (Foster and Nelson, 1979; Gaff, 1979).

Finally, the literature indicates that perhaps the largest blocks to participation are the perceived "costs" (Lindquist, 1979).

Teaching improvement courses typically are free to charge to faculty,
but time spent at these courses must be subtracted from other
commitments (some of which are perhaps more "instrumental" to
achieving more lucrative goals)(Foster and Nelson, 1979). Faculty
members examine the costs of the T.I.P. in terms of money, effort
expended and time commitment, and weigh this cost against the
perceived benefits (Wergin, 1977). Gasch (1979) commented that
faculty may even believe that because the course costs nothing, it is
worth nothing. Frequently, faculty complain of lack of time, however,
this may simply be an easy socially-acceptable excuse for nonpartici-
pation (Lindquist, 1979). A workshop perceived to involve a lot of
individual work and effort may not attract "overworked" faculty
members (McKeachie, 1978). Scheduling or timing of the actual
workshops may discourage or limit participation (Lindquist, 1979).
For example, faculty who prepare for presentations in annual meetings
of professional associations during certain seasons might be unable
to participate in T.I.P.'s during those months.

Studies of Teaching Improvement Program Participation

Occasionally it is alleged that teaching improvement program
participants are those dynamic and exemplary professors who need
improvement least, and who are already committed to excellence in
teaching (Gaff and Morstain, 1978; Miller, 1972; Mullally and Duffy,
1978). Gasch (1979) reported the results of several German research
efforts and concluded that participants tended to fall into four
broad categories: those who were already "innovators," those who were

interested in teaching but inexperienced, those unwilling to improve but forced by external pressures and those searching for quick easy "recipes" for teaching. Some studies describe participation by rank and field of specialization. For example, Holtkamp's 1977 research (cited by Gasch, 1979) revealed highest participation in T.I.P.'s from faculty in the disciplines of economics, natural sciences and teacher education. Wick (1976) concluded that faculty from education, physical education and home economics were frequent participants. Nisbet and McAleese (1979) reported a stronger following from medicine and sciences, and less evidence of support from the arts and social sciences. Conrad (1979) complained that Faculty of Arts members were infrequent participants in Danish T.I.P.'s. Gaff and Morstain (1978) reported that the largest groups of participants were from humanities and fine arts, followed by those from professional fields, natural sciences, mathematics, social sciences and finally those professors from the field of history. Gasch (1979) reported that participants were mostly from middle and lower academic ranks, while Gaff and Morstain (1978) found that over 50 percent of surveyed participants were from professional and associate professional ranks. The data collected in Gaff and Morstain's (1978) survey revealed that seven percent of participants were less than 30 years old, 40 percent between 30 to 39 years old, 29 percent were between the ages of 40 to 49 years and 16 percent were over age 50.

The three year survey of 16 T.I.P.'s done by Gaff and Morstain (1978) produced what appears to be the most detailed description of faculty participants and nonparticipants published to

to date. Over 442 nonparticipants and 479 participants in 16 T.I.P.'s

were compared in order to determine whether participants were

representative of their faculty colleagues. The researchers found

that nonparticipants were very similar to participants in terms of

rank, age, academic fields, level of interest in teaching and personal

judgement of own teaching quality. Participants were surveyed in

order to estimate program impact and effectiveness. Fifty-three

percent of the participants claimed that their attitude toward T.I.P.'s

remained similar to that pre-course, that is—positive. Of the major

perceived benefits of the programs—the largest benefit was seen to

be the contact with interesting people from other parts of the

university. The second largest benefit was improved motivation for

teaching excellence, followed by benefits such as greater awareness

of own teaching practices and personal growth and renewal. The

authors concluded that personal enrichment was a major outcome of

T.I.P.'s (Gaff and Morstain, 1978). Further investigation of the

nonparticipants revealed that 37 percent of the nonparticipants knew

the essential features of the T.I.P.'s, 50 percent had some general

knowledge of the programs and 12 percent claimed never to have heard

of the programs. Faculty meetings, formal announcements, newsletters

and personal contact with peers accounted for the existing level of

awareness among nonparticipants. Three-quarters of the nonparticipants

claimed that they would like to know more about T.I.P.'s and 13

percent expressed definite intentions of participating. Two-thirds

claimed they would probably participate in the future. Half of the

nonparticipants stated that their general attitude towards T.I.P.'s
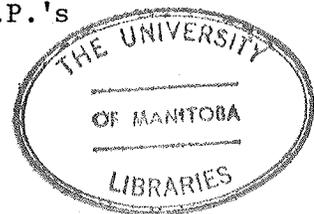
was favorable. Gaff and Morstain (1978) concluded that most nonparticipants appeared "receptive" to future participation.

Gaff (1978) reported that in a program evaluation survey which asked why faculty had not participated in a certain well-publicized T.I.P., fully 28 percent of the nonparticipants responded "because I was not asked." This result implies that personal, informal communications may be more effective in encouraging participation than the traditional formal printed formats currently favored. Although the literature on teaching improvement abounds with comments about participation, it appears that very little specific, helpful research has been conducted which permits improved comprehension of the nonparticipatory behavior of faculty.

An Approach to Participation

Kurt Lewin (1951) presented the dynamic theory of force-fields, and introduced the concept of "the field," and "the life-space." A person's lifespace includes the person and all aspects of the psychological (social and physical) environment that exist for her/him—a constellation of many interrelating factors. Behavior is seen as a function of the two mutually dependent variables—the person and the environment. Lewin considered a very wide range of determinants of human behavior extending from human needs to social forces. Forces can be driving forces or serve as restraining forces (or barriers). According to Lewin (1951) participation could be viewed as a dynamic equilibrium which results from a combination of psychological and situational positive and negative forces. Lewin's

force-field analysis can be a useful approach to help identify important variables in participative behavior and may permit the possible prediction of future trends in participation. Analysis of the positive and negative forces may help indicate areas for change and in which the change might have a positive effect on participation.

Miller (1967) conducted a study of adult participation in educational activities using Lewin's approach, in order to isolate factors and forces significant to participation and to estimate changes required to improve participation. In this frequently-cited study, Miller assumed that individuals were motivated and willing to participate as a result of personal needs for growth, which are stimulated or shaped by social structures and forces at work in society. He further assumed that particular patterns could be identified between the two major variables of personal needs and social forces, and that these patterns could help predict participation levels. For example, Miller postulated that high participation would result when strong social forces and strong personal needs moved people toward a particular educational objective, low erratic participation would result when strong personal needs existed without supporting or facilitating social forces; high initial participation (with quick dropout) would result from weak personal needs interacting with strong social forces; and that tension and variable participation would result when personal needs conflict with social forces.

Boshier (1973, 1977, 1980) has devoted much effort into exploring participation in adult educational programs. Since 1973

Boshier decried the lack of a body of practically useful theory to account for adult education participation, dropout and nonparticipation. Boshier (1973) complained of the difficulty in attracting nonparticipatory segments of the population, without access to satisfactory research data and helpful theoretical bases. After reviewing available theories of social and educational participation, Boshier (1973) cited McClosky's (1968, p. 257) conclusion, that participation "appears to be a complex phenomenon that depends upon a great many variables of different weight." Boshier agreed that about all that a researcher can do (McClosky, 1968, p. 257): "is group the relative independent variables into those influences essentially internal (psychological and cognitive) and those derived from the individual's external environment." Boshier (1973) used this notion of the interaction between internal psychological and external environmental variables to study participation and dropout phenomena in adult education. His model suggested that the type of internal motivation (deficiency-motivated or growth-motivated) interacting with the environment basically determined persistence or dropout in programs. Individuals motivated by "lower-order" deficiency needs were much more likely to drop out of activities than individuals motivated by "higher-order" growth and satisfaction needs. Boshier later included the notion of social forces into his consideration and claimed (Boshier, 1977, p. 111): "Motives for participation in adult education are systematically related to social, psychological and other variables. . . ."

Many authors, discussing determinants of educational participation, have concluded that (Bock, 1980, p. 124): "decisions

to participate and persist in adult education activities reflect multiple influences on the adult." The literature shows strong support for the notion that these influences can be seen as a large range of interacting personal (psychological) and situational (social and environmental) factors (Bock, 1980; Boshier, 1973, 1977; Cross, 1981; Douglah, 1979; Gaff, 1979; Mauksch, 1980; Ordos, 1980).

The importance of the social climate, milieu, context, and support has been repeatedly emphasized (Gaff, 1975, 1979; Knox, 1980; Lovell, 1980; Mauksch, 1980). Often, the assumption behind these discussions is that factors in the environment (such as program deficiency or irrelevancy, or poor program administration or scheduling) are responsible for poor faculty participation, and therefore out of the personal control of teachers. This implies that improvement of the situational circumstances would automatically result in increased faculty participation. This approach often neglects the possibility that the faculty member himself may be responsible for the program failure or low participation rate. Even when this possibility is considered, it is often implied that change in external factors (such as institutional rewards) will actually decrease individual fear or increase personal motivation--again implying that sole responsibility for program success lies outside the individual's control (Clark and Washburn, 1980). Should one always assume that the faculty member is innocent of intentions or even deliberate resistance, and is merely a victim of circumstances? If the professor is sincerely committed to improving pedagogical skills and is not resisting participation, then change in the external

circumstances may offer a chance for increased participation. If the

professor believes that good teaching is a function of specialty

knowledge, then refusal to participate signifies neither resistance

nor external barriers, but simple apathy. However, consider another

possibility--the professor may be resisting improvement and

participation, but using excuses that external reasons are preventing

his participation. Clark and Washburn (1980) emphasized the

importance of considering these "cynics" and the difficulty in

uncovering their true motives, and the notion that personal motivation

and responsibility must be considered along with situational factors.

Perhaps one reason for the relative overemphasis on the

importance of institutional, social and situational factors is that

personal motives are very difficult to judge and measure, and are

seen as being less readily amenable to change than external factors.

Realistically, it behooves the researcher or T.I.P. administrator to

concentrate on those aspects of the situation which are perceived as

being alterable. Not surprisingly then, most suggestions from the

literature, regarding strategies to help bolster faculty involvement

and participation in T.I.P.'s, concern the creation of a supportive,

conducive climate to stimulate and reinforce personal motivation

(Eble, 1972; Gaff, 1975, 1979; Knox, 1980; Lindquist, 1979; Lovell,

1980; Mauksch, 1980; McLaughlin and March, 1979). As just one example

of the many comments, Geis, Wilburn and Mellor (1981, p. 54) concluded

that: "The campus environment and professional disciplines must

aggressively support good teaching if it is to occur regularly and

widely."

It is apparent that there is no simple solution to understanding faculty motivation to participate in teaching improvement programs. Bess (1977, p. 256) insisted that program planners "must address the problem of the motivation to teach in much deeper and more sensitive ways than are usual today."

Summary of Important Considerations

Reasons for participation and nonparticipation appear to be complex and varied. No simple solution to the issue of underuse of teaching improvement programs is apparent. Personal and situational variables interact and are difficult to separate from one another. In this study, situational factors appear to hold the most promise for suggesting practical, realistic solutions to help improve participation. However, to gain meaningful insight, attention to the "whole" picture of participation must precede consideration of the individual components and patterns. Therefore, the scope of the study begins as broadly as possible, and attempts to gain limited understanding into the faculty perceptions of teaching, in order to gain some perspectives on aspects of both personal and situational variables.

The literature reflects the difficulty of grasping the essentials--many authors present "clusters" of reasons for non-participation, but no two authors report the same constellation of factors (Burgess, 1971). However, certain factors surface repeatedly in the literature, and appear fruitful and worthwhile for further study. Personal decisions to participate in teaching improvement

programs may be influenced by the individual's definition of and attitude toward teaching, by his self-appraisal of his current and desired teaching competence, by his personal and career goals and by his priorities and his attitudes toward teaching improvement. Individual attitudes and perceptions may be influenced by the socialization occurring in different disciplinary, departmental and other campus groupings. The perceptions that the professor holds of the university's goals, policies, practices and rewards may also influence her/his motivation to participate. The individual's awareness and perceptions of the existing teaching improvement program may directly influence the decision to participate. Practical factors such as lack of time should not be neglected. These variables thought to influence the phenomenon of participation in teaching improvement programs help serve as guidelines for the data collection designed to meet the aims of the study.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter three serves to explain and defend the choice of
research strategies utilized in the study. The research design is
described, and important considerations of the two main data
collection procedures are discussed. Brief attention to the measure-
ment of attitudes provides some background for the development of the
questionnaire. Sampling considerations data collection procedures
are described. The survey response rate and the respondents'
demographic data are presented, and the representativeness of the
ultimate responses defended.

Research Design

The purpose of the study--to explore the phenomenon of faculty
nonparticipation in Teaching Improvement Programs (T.I.P.'s)--
dictated the choice of research methodology. The specific aims of the
study called for descriptive data concerning demographic facts,
participatory (past and intended) behavior in T.I.P.'s, opinions of
reasons for nonparticipation in T.I.P.'s, and suggestions for
situational improvements. In order to explore personal and group-
referenced reasons for nonparticipation, investigation into various
personal attitudes was also necessary. Therefore, exploratory
descriptive research, which helps to determine the current status of
a phenomenon, assess attitudes towards an object, discover significant

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variables and interrelationships and lay the preliminary groundwork

for future rigorous experimental testing, appeared eminently suited

to the purposes of this study (Gay, 1976; Kerlinger, 1973). Ex post

facto exploratory research is conducted in the natural setting

without controlling or manipulating variables, thereby permitting high

realistic social and practical significance, but prohibiting the

determination of casual relationships (Borg and Gall, 1979; Kerlinger,

1973). Descriptive research frequently relies on data collected

directly from the subject (called self-report data) through survey

methods such as the interview and the questionnaire (Kerlinger, 1973).

Clearly, the survey method was appropriate for the study purposes,

for as Kerlinger (1973, p. 411) stated: "Survey research focuses on

people, the vital facts of people, and their beliefs, opinions,

attitudes, motivations and behavior." Survey research serves to

sample public opinion or evaluation regarding an object and involves a

distinctive method of systematic collection of data from the subjects

using a standardized instrument (Borg and Gall, 1979). A carefully

designed random survey may provide a large amount of data covering a

wide scope, providing a relatively inexpensive, efficient and accurate

"portrait", from which inferences regarding the total subject

population can be made (Kerlinger, 1973). However, limitations of the

survey method include lack of depth of coverage and practical costs in

terms of expense and time. Further justification for the use of the

survey method to assess personal and situational factors in faculty-

nonparticipation was derived from Kerlinger's (1973, p. 410) comments

that sample surveys help discover: ". . . the relative incidence,

distribution and interrelationships of sociological and psychological

variables."

   The choice of exploratory, descriptive research using the survey self-report method was also supported by researchers concerned with participation in adult education and teaching improvement programs. Burgess (1971, p. 4) proposed four possible approaches to determine reasons for participation in adult education programs: reasons can be inferred from analysis of educational activities, participants can be asked to report reasons in their own words, participants can be asked to respond to a checklist or inventory of possible reasons, and perhaps the most important approach to consider --analysis of the participants' "orientation to education." Cross (1981) explained that self-report survey methods may reveal what adult learners claim prevents them from participating in adult education programs. Additional investigation into participation could be accomplished by observation of the adult's actual behavior patterns or through experimental hypothesis--testing (Cross, 1981). Cross (1981) commented that, in the consideration of personal and situational factors related to nonparticipation, the frequent over-emphasis on the situational barriers to participation probably leads to underestimation of the importance of the "dispositional" or internal psychological barriers. Individuals apparently find it easier to explain nonparticipation with the socially-acceptable excuse of excessive cost or time, rather than to admit disinterest (Cross, 1981). Case (1979) described the importance of investigating institutional readiness for and awareness of T.I.P.'s--and suggested that T.I.P. research endeavors should ideally yield a status-report "snapshot" of the institution, which was precisely an objective of

this study.

The descriptive exploratory research design of the present study, therefore, included many of the suggestions from the field and relied on self-report survey measures which appeared appropriate for the intended purposes of the research.

Data Collection

The Interview

Purpose of the interview. The purpose of the interview was to collect tentative reasons for faculty nonparticipation in the University Teaching Service (U.T.S.) teaching improvement programs offered annually at the University of Manitoba. This data, collected in the faculty members' own natural language and expressions, was intended to buttress the reasons for nonparticipation gleaned from the literature review, in order to provide the preliminary basis for a valid questionnaire. The personal, realistic perspective provided by experienced University of Manitoba professors was felt to better "ground" the theoretical contributions from the literature, to achieve a more balanced, honest view of faculty nonparticipation.

The interview method. The interview method involves the direct collection of data from the subject (Ary, 1979) and is well-suited to exploring the individuals' motivations, beliefs and reasons for behavior (Henerson, 1978). Kerlinger (1973, p. 412) exclaimed: "The personal interview far overshadows the others as perhaps the most powerful and useful tool of social scientific survey research." The interview method is especially valuable at preliminary stages of

research for gathering of masses of data, identifying variables, suggesting hypotheses, probing circumstances in-depth, establishing a rapport with subjects, determining reasons for responses, and the development of questionnaires (Ary, 1979; Best, 1977; Gay, 1976; Henerson, 1978; Kerlinger, 1973). To obtain initial data required for the study, the interview method clearly offered many advantages. The limitations of the interview which must be considered include the possibility of subject inhibition, bias or dishonesty, interviewer bias and influence, and the practical concerns of cost in time, money, effort and skill (Ary, 1979; Best, 1977; Borg and Gall, 1979; Gay, 1976).

The group interview was deemed appropriate for the study because of the efficiency involved, and its potential power reveal ambiguities and conflicts in group norms and values (Prystupa, 1980). Group interviews, through their peer-group support structure, permit discussion of sensitive topics, exploration of solutions to common problems or evaluation of an object. Group members (from common or divergent backgrounds) can stimulate each other's recall, verify factual data and generally provide varied viewpoints which will likely result in a more accurate perception of the issue (Mathis, 1979; Van Dalen, 1973). A group interview of qualified University of Manitoba professors was held to gather perceptions held by faculty members from varied discipline areas. Observation of the extent of feelings and opinions regarding the U.T.S. teaching improvement programs. However, when group interviews are utilized, attention must be paid to the dangers which may jeopardize the validity of the data: the possible pressures of the group or dominant individuals, and the

presence of individuals too hesitant to express views in public (Van Dalen, 1973).

Interview schedule. A relatively unstructured interview schedule was designed to guide the group interview. Analysis of the research literature provided preliminary data useful to guide the inquiry and provide a necessary framework for the specific research questions (Kerlinger, 1973). The interview data was intended to provide preliminary ideas, not quantitative data, therefore a loosely-structured interview guide, roughly corresponding to the specific research questions was adopted (see Appendix A). The apparent priorities and the terminology used by the respondents was considered to be an important objective, therefore the interviewer's role was minimized as much as possible.

Subjects. The subjects best qualified to give opinions and perceptions of their colleagues' opinions were considered to be among those full-time professors who had a reasonable amount of teaching experience at the University of Manitoba. A short list of names of professors from a variety of disciplines, who appeared likely to be aware of their colleagues' attitudes (for example, by virtue of administrative experience) or had a reputation for being interested in teaching, was suggested by the researcher's advisors. A random sample was not indicated because the interview data was not intended to directly determine the definitive reasons for faculty non-participation, but simply to collect various cross-disciplinary views on general nonparticipation in the professors' own words. It was decided that eight interviewees would constitute a reasonable group

size, and, because it was impossible to represent all faculty groups,

an arbitrary selection of eight group members was made, concentrating

on members of faculty groups which University Teaching Service (U.T.S.)

statistics revealed had been relatively low in T.I.P. participation

(Table 1). Six of the eight professors (all holding Ph.D. degrees)

who had accepted the invitation actually participated in the group

interview--representing the areas of Science, Architecture, Zoology,

English, Engineering and Psychology.

Procedures. The selected professors were invited to

participate in the group interview by telephone. Prior to the

interview, the researcher received expert opinions regarding the face

validity of the interview schedule, and rehearsed the interview

introduction and questions with a volunteer graduate student, to check

for ambiguity, jargon, leading questions and bias, as recommended by

Borg and Gall (1979). The interview took place over a one-hour period

on an April Monday morning and was held in the Faculty of Education

boardroom. Refreshments were provided, and each professor received a

copy of U.T.S. teaching workshop participation statistics (Table 1),

to peruse until all the interview participants had arrived.

Introductions were made and the research explained briefly. Permission

was obtained to tape-record the interview proceedings. Interview

questions were posed, and the group members contributed their opinions

in turn. The interviewer maintained a low profile--probing and

clarifying occasionally, watching the clock and proceeding

periodically to the next question. The interview was terminated

promptly at the end of an hour and the group members were thanked for

TABLE 1

University Teaching Service Participation
Statistics per Year by Faculty/School

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	Total
Administrative Studies	4	5	2	2	0	5	6	7	6	10	5	52
Agriculture	11	4	5	4	2	4	0	8	7	8	4	58
Architecture	0	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	1	8
Arts	3	10	11	11	3	5	9	9	21	22	9	113
Dentistry	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	2	5	3	1	16
Education	1	1	11	5	3	6	6	12	12	12	5	74
Engineering	10	6	2	5	1	1	1	0	4	1	3	34
Graduate Studies	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Home Economics	2	5	4	6	2	3	3	6	8	9	0	48
Law	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	5
Medicine	1	11	9	15	6	5	0	5	15	8	11	86
Natural Resource Institute	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Pharmacy	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	4
Science	5	2	3	6	0	0	3	0	13	8	7	47
Art	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	1	1	6
Medical Rehabilitation	2	0	1	1	1	0	5	4	1	8	0	23
Music	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nursing	0	1	0	0	2	3	0	5	8	5	9	33
Physical Education	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	0	2	0	4	15
Social Work	1	4	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	9
Continuing Education	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	2	4	1	11
Counselling Service	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	2	0	9
Libraries	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	9	13	6	33
Personnel	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
Other	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	5	6	2	16
Total	44	52	55	57	26	45	43	68	122	122	69	703

Source: University Teaching Service records, compiled by Mrs. E. Davis.

Note: These statistics include both group leaders and participants as well as repeat participants.

their participation and contributions.

Analysis of interview data. The tape-recorded interview data
was transcribed into longhand, then typewritten. In the typed format
it became possible to examine and analyze the varied reasons and
factors related to nonparticipation in T.I.P.'s. Content analysis is
a method of classifying and quantifying relatively unstructured
communication data in order to measure variables and make data more
meaningful and more easily understood (Kerlinger, 1973; Sax, 1968).
The interview data, therefore, was first broken down into individual
small units, then classified by similarities into various suitable
categories. The categories were reviewed, revised and reorganized to
improve the "fit" of the interview data.

Interview results. The analysis of the interview data provided
a wide range of possible personal and situational factors which were
implicated in faculty nonparticipation in U.T.S. teaching improvement
programs. A variety of major themes or apparent "reason-clusters"
for faculty nonparticipation emerged. Teaching is not the highest
priority function for many professors, therefore these professors
display relatively little interest or concern for teaching. Research
and subject expertise appear to be more important to ensure high
teaching quality than teaching techniques. Professors may be
satisfied with their teaching effectiveness and may not perceive a need
to improve their teaching abilities. Professors may lack faith that
teaching can be taught or improved through a course. Because of
personal experiences or impressions gained through word-of-mouth,
professors may feel that the U.T.S. teaching improvement programs are

not worthwhile. Professors may feel that the University of Manitoba does little to reward or encourage teaching improvement. A few faculty members may lack awareness of the programs or feel that the available programs are inconvenient. In general, the overall impression given by this admittedly small group of University of Manitoba professors, was that University of Manitoba faculty members did not participate in the teaching workshops because they did not feel they would benefit by such participation--that the courses were not seen as being worthwhile.

Comments. The main limitations of the group interview data are those associated with any interview procedures and the use of an arbitrary small non-random sample. The potential for bias among interviewer, subject and sampling group exists, thereby jeopardizing validity of results. However, standard precautions were taken--such as attempts to select subjects from a variety of disciplines with diverse backgrounds, to present non-biased leading questions and to minimize interview influence and to tape-record the data.

The Questionnaire

Purpose of the questionnaire. The main purpose of the questionnaire was to collect suitable data to fulfill the research aims of the study. To satisfy the research questions regarding personal and situational reasons for faculty member nonparticipation in U.T.S. teaching improvement programs, a variety of directions needed to be explored. Potential reasons for nonparticipation were explored in depth, as were general teaching attitudes and the teaching "climate" on campus and the T.I.P. participatory behavior on campus.

The questionnaire method. The mailed questionnaire is a major data collection technique commonly used in descriptive and survey research. The instrument can request self-report data or ask the respondents to report on others (Henerson, 1978). The mailed questionnaire represents an efficient, relatively economical method which is well-suited to gathering masses of data from a large sample distributed over a wide geographical area (Henerson, 1978). Advantages of the questionnaire method include standardization (of instructions and items), minimal researcher influence, respondent anonymity with corresponding possible increase in honesty, sufficient time to consider responses, and relative ease of data collection, tabulation and analysis (Ary, 1979; Best, 1977; Henerson, 1978; Gay, 1976). The flexibility and scope possible in a questionnaire allows the variety of questions needed for this study to be addressed, while permitting description and quantification of the data through a structured format. However, the reliance on the printed word and absence of interviewer contact lead to possible misinterpretation of the questionnaire items, particularly if the wording is ambiguous (Kerlinger, 1973). Respondents may be unable or unwilling to communicate their views through writing, and researchers may not be able to determine how qualified the respondent is to respond (Henerson, 1978). Questionnaires are time-consuming and difficult to develop (Kerlinger, 1973). By far the most important disadvantage of the mailed questionnaire is the frequent low response rate, which can easily bias results, jeopardizing the validity of the study (Best, 1977). However, despite the limitations and dangers to validity, the use of the questionnaire method as a data collection technique

appeared worthwhile for this study.

Development of the questionnaire. The main task facing the researcher is the translation of the research question into the data collection instrument (Kerlinger, 1973). If investigation reveals that no currently existing tests or instruments are appropriate, the researcher must invest considerable time, effort and skill to custom-design the most valid and reliable tool possible (Gay, 1976). Development of such an instrument involves the conceptualization of the questions, decisions about format and type of questions, item-development and sequencing, validation of items and survey, and pretesting both cover letter and instrument (Gay, 1976; Van Dalen, 1973).

Conceptualization. The concepts and understanding gained from a review of the related and relevant literature, taken along with ideas emerging from the interview data, suggested several possible themes for nonparticipation in University Teaching Service teaching workshops to systematically explore in the questionnaire. From the practically infinite number of potential reasons not to participate, it was necessary to select those reasons which appeared significant, applicable to the University of Manitoba context, and amenable to study within the confines of a questionnaire format. Many psychological or personal variables appeared to group together in "clusters" of reasons and were correspondingly difficult to define, measure and describe. These "clusters" were dealt with as attitude or psychological constructs, and included: the relative personal priority placed on teaching, the perceived need for improvement in

teaching ability, the extent to which the university is seen to reward

good teaching, the faith in the efficacy of teaching improvement

programs and the attitudes regarding the value of the University of

Manitoba teaching workshops. In addition to these attitude

constructs, other possible reasons for nonparticipation, such as lack

of awareness of available T.I.P.'s and practical or situational

barriers (such as inconvenient scheduling) had to be explored in the

instrument. Demographic and sociological information was required,

as was information related to the T.I.P. participatory behavior of

the respondent. Another objective of the research was to solicit

suggestions for improvement from the field. Therefore, the development

and construction of the questionnaire was guided by the specific

questions and information desired.

Measurement of attitudes. The phenomenon of faculty T.I.P.

participatory behavior is influenced by those forces which influence

any behavior, which Cook and Selltiz (1973) described as including:

the attitudinal disposition toward the object (the T.I.P.), other

individual characteristics (such as values, motivations and personal

style) and other situational characteristics (such as norms and

expectations of groups and others, and possible consequences of the

behavior). In this research, it was expected that nonparticipation is

influenced to some extent by various attitudes and beliefs held by

professors. Because the measurement and interpretation of attitudes

is a complex issue, a brief discussion of relevant considerations

appears to be indicated.

Fishbein (1975, p. 2) admitted that the concept of attitude

is characterized by a great diversity of opinion and an "embarrassing

degree of ambiguity and confusion." Fishbein (1975, p. 6) attempted

to summarize the distinctive aspects of an attitude: "Attitude can

be described as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently

favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object." A

belief represents the information an individual has about an object,

while an attitude reflects the favorable or unfavorable (bipolar)

evaluation or judgement of the object (Fishbein, 1975). An opinion,

however, what the individual claims to be her/his attitude, is all

that is realistically accessible to the researcher from which to make

inferences about attitudes (Best, 1977). Intention represents the

individual's intention to implement an action or behavior, while overt

behavior is simply the observable performance of the individual

(Fishbein, 1975). Attitudes, then, are usually inferred from stated

opinions or from intended and overt behavior (Henerson, 1978). The

concept of attitude is a construct created to serve human

needs. Frequently attitude constructs are complex entities with many

facets and manifestations, which make them challenging and interesting

to research (Henerson, 1978).

Cook and Selltiz (1973) emphasized the importance of

capturing the essentials of an attitude construct by employing a number

of different, overlapping measurement approaches. Written measures

can be devised to collect self-report data or reports of other peoples'

attitudes. Attitudes may also be inferred from observations of

behavior and projective measures (Cook and Selltiz, 1973). In this

study, self-report written survey data was elected as the major data

collection method. To survey the expressed opinions of individuals

concerning an object, the respondents can be directly asked to

describe their feelings in their own words, or a checklist or
inventory of possible opinions may be presented to respond to, or an
attitude scale may be included (Ary, 1979; Best, 1977; Gay, 1976;
Henerson, 1978; Van Dalen, 1973).

Attitude scales are popularly used to describe and measure an
individual's attitudes, values and beliefs toward her/himself, others,
institutions and situations. Unlike objective tests, attitude scales
do not measure success--scales measure the degree or extent to which
an individual possesses a characteristic or attitude (Ary, 1979; Gay,
1976). Scales are man-made devices which attempt to transform
qualitative data into quantitative form (Val Dalen, 1973). For the
purposes of this study, the Method of Summated Ratings introduced by
Likert, was selected to explore several of the attitude constructs
thought to be related to faculty nonparticipation in T.I.P.'s. In a
Likert-type attitude scale, a series of opinion statements regarding a
particular issue/object are selected, and the individual responds to
each item by indicating the extent of disagreement or agreement with
the statement. A standard 5-point scale (strongly-agree, agree,
undecided, disagree, strongly disagree) is used to report the intensity
of the respondent's feelings. The researcher assigns numerical values
to each scale gradation (according to the negative or positive bias of
the statement) so that overall sample responses can be summated for
each item to show general "favorableness" or "unfavorableness" to the
attitude object (Ary, 1979; Henerson, 1978).

Attitude constructs such as those considered in this study are
frequently multidimensional complex entities, and therefore should not
be evaluated on the basis of a single attitude scale item (Borg and

Gall, 1979). Henerson (1978) recommended that several converging attitude questions be used to explore each attitude construct, and the individual scores for these items be summated to create a single index score. This can be used to indicate the presence of a particular attitude, and is less likely to be influenced by random error, thereby increasing instrument reliability (Henerson, 1978). A list of appropriate items were developed to specifically explore each of the attitude constructs chosen for the study. Item analysis, to determine whether each item adequately discriminated between individuals holding favorable and unfavorable attitudes, was done subjectively by expert judges, and erratic items discarded, thereby improving internal consistency and reliability (Fishbein, 1975). Construct validity refers to the extent to which the items correspond to the intended psychological construct (Clark, 1979; Henerson, 1978) and was established for this attitude scale through logical analysis and the opinions of expert judges (six Faculty of Education professors). Items found to be ambiguous or unrelated to the attitude construct were discarded, leaving several items remaining to represent each attitude construct for inclusion in the final data collection instrument.

Likert scales are relatively easy to use and familiar to most respondents, and convenient to quantify for researchers. However, equal attitude "scores" on different attitude items do not indicate that attitudes are equally favorable, just as the "distance" between "strongly-agree" and "agree" is not necessarily equivalent to that between "disagree" and "strongly disagree" (Best, 1977; Van Dalen, 1973). Several threats to validity, of danger to most attitude rating

scales and measures, must be considered when interpreting results
(Ary, 1979; Best, 1977; Cook and Selltiz, 1973; Gay, 1976; Henerson,
1978). The desire to please the researcher or to present socially-
acceptable opinions (while concealing true opinions) appears to be a
very strong influence. Peer group norms and pressures also influence
the honesty of responses. The respondent may be unqualified to
respond due to a variety of reasons: lack of self-awareness,
ambivalent or inconsistent views, or lack of experience or knowledge
upon which to base opinions. Respondents may be unwilling to make the
effort involved or to make public their views, especially if responses
are not anonymous. The "Halo Effect" introduces error into data
because the respondent allows a generalized impression of the object
to influence ratings on specific items. Generosity error refers to
the tendency of raters to give the object under consideration the
benefit of the doubt whenever they feel unqualified to judge.
Response set (when the rating response is unrelated to the item
content) can also occur in the negative direction--called error of
severity (Cook and Selltiz, 1973). Still other raters tend to avoid
any extreme judgements, committing the error of central tendency (Ary,
1979).

To best avoid and minimize these dangers to internal
validity inherent in attitude measurement, strategies recommended in
the research literature were considered and adopted when feasible
(Ary, 1979; Borg and Gall, 1979; Cook and Selltiz, 1973; Henerson,
1978; Val Dalen, 1973). Honesty of respondents' ratings was
facilitated and encouraged through assurances of anonymity and careful
introductions and instructions. Respondents could take all the time

they needed to carefully consider each item, and items were worded to "permit" negative responses. The scale option "undecided/no opinion" permitted respondents to admit lack of opinion without admitting ignorance. Finally, error due to biased or unqualified respondents was further reduced by pooling individual ratings into group scores (Henerson, 1978).

Questionnaire items. Surveys typically include sections concerned with "face-sheet" (identification) information, census-type (sociological) information and questions directly related to the research problem--in this case dealing with the issue of faculty nonparticipation in T.I.P.'s (Kerlinger, 1973). Items can be open-ended questions, fixed-alternative (multiple-choice) questions or in the form of inventories, checklists or rating scales (Best, 1977; Henerson, 1978; Kerlinger, 1973). Each format has its own strengths and weaknesses; therefore, for the variety of data required for this study, a variety of item formats was selected. Demographic and factual information was requested using straightforward multiple-choice and fill-in items. A Likert-type rating scale was designed and validated to examine faculty members' opinions and attitudes toward several objects, and has already been described. One concern in developing the research instrument was the danger that a long, complex questionnaire with many open-ended questions (requiring thought and effort) would jeopardize the response rate or quality of responses. Therefore, it was decided to use multiple-choice items whenever possible. Reasons for nonparticipation were for the most part, inferred from the attitude indicators and responses to open and closed

items; however, an inventory (checklist), repeating a variety of possible reasons, was included to provide an additional direct source of data. Inventories permit quick quantifiable systematic collection of data but are difficult to validate, and therefore of limited use as scientific instruments (Best, 1977; Van Dalen, 1973). A second inventory was designed to collect suggestions for changes and improvements from faculty members. Validity of these checklists was improved by inviting additional comments and explanations in an open-ended question immediately following each inventory (Borg and Gall, 1979).

Many guidelines for writing questionnaire items can be found in the literature, and were considered while developing and refining items for inclusion in the survey (Ary, 1979; Best, 1977; Borg and Gall, 1979; Gay, 1976; Henerson, 1978; Kerlinger, 1973; Van Dalen, 1973). Careful attention was paid to avoid common pitfalls and errors which could reduce reliability (internal consistency) and internal validity of the resulting data. Appropriate context, instructions, sequence, vocabulary and response choices were vital. Multiple choices were exhaustive and mutually exclusive, frequently including space for an optional fill-in comment. Content validity of the questionnaire items was established by inviting eight "expert judges" to analyze the face validity of the instrument (Clark, 1979; Gay, 1976; Van Dalen, 1973). Critiques were collected, and items revised accordingly to reduce ambiguities, leading or biased or socially-desirable phrases, and to reduce the overall original lengthiness of the instrument. The instrument underwent several critiques and subsequent revisions prior to being considered ready for a more formal

pretest, which was carried out on a limited number of faculty members to check administration procedures and to preview respondent reactions (see Appendix B).

Subjects

The setting for the study was the University of Manitoba, a large mid-western Canadian university attracting well over 15,000 students annually which is situated in Winnipeg, Manitoba. The university is organized into 23 separate academic schools and faculties, which are further divided into 78 academic departments (I.S. Book, 1981). Institutional statistics reveal that there were 1,336 full-time academic staff positions during the 1981-1982 session (I.S. Book, 1981). These full-time academic faculty members were considered to be the population of interest, and best qualified to provide the necessary data concerning faculty member nonparticipation in University Teaching Service workshops. To obtain an accurate representative view of faculty opinions and reasons for nonparticipation from across the campus, a random sample of 30 percent of the population was selected (using random number tables) from the list of academic staff in the University of Manitoba 1982-1983 Academic Calendar. In order to enhance the representativeness of the sample, a proportional random sample was selected to properly represent relevant subgroups (by faculty or school), using institutional statistics to determine the correct proportional size for each faculty or school sample. Table 2 displays the proportion of the total academic faculty represented by each faculty or school, and the corresponding number of sample subjects which were randomly selected from each group.

TABLE 2

Percentage of Total Population, Proportional
Sample Size, and Response Rate for Faculty
Group

Faculty Group or School	Percentage of Total Population I	Sample Size II	Usable Returns III	Percentage Response	
				Faculty Group IV	of Total V
Arts	21.8	87	38	44	17.8
Science	13.8	55	22	40	10.3
Professions					
Administrative Studies	4.7	19	10	53	4.6
Architecture	3.8	15	7	47	3.2
Art	1.8	7	2	29	0.9
Education	5.9	24	18	75	8.4
Human Ecology	2.1	8	6	75	2.8
Law	1.8	7	2	29	0.9
Music	0.9	4	1	25	0.4
Physical Education	1.4	6	6	100	2.8
Social Work	2.0	8	4	50	1.8
Total for Professions	(25)	(98)	(56)	(57)	(26.2)
Applied Sciences					
Agriculture	6.9	27	16	59	7.5
Engineering	5.2	20	8	40	3.7
Pharmacy	0.8	3	0	0	0
Dentistry	3.4	13	6	46	2.8
Nursing	2.1	8	6	75	2.8
Medicine	20.9	88	58	66	27.2
Total for Applied Sciences	(39)	(160)	(94)	(59)	(44.1)
Totals	100%	400	213	53%[a]	100%

[a]Overall return constituted 53 percent of mailed surveys.

Procedures

A cover letter, coded survey and self-addressed envelope were mailed to each of the 400 selected faculty members through the campus mail in early June 1982. The cover letter (see Appendix C) emphasized the importance of the respondent's prompt and careful reply. Coded slips were attached to each questionnaire, and upon receipt of each returned questionnaire the coded slips were separated in order to ensure anonymity of the respondents. As recommended by standard educational research authorities, vigorous follow-up procedures were instituted to maximize response rate, in order to enhance the external validity of the research results (Borg and Gall, 1979; Kerlinger, 1973). Second and third follow-up mailings to nonrespondents were considered necessary (see Appendices D and E).

Response

The three personal mailings (spaced approximately one month apart, beginning in June 1982) resulted in responses which accounted for 67 percent, 21 percent and 11 percent respectively, of the final total of 213 usable completed surveys. The percentage of each faculty group that responded and the proportion those groups represented of the total returns is indicated on Table 2. Comparisons of Columns I and V on Table 2 reveals that the resulting responses of 213 surveys (representing a 53 percent return rate) are proportionally distributed by faculty groups in similar proportions to those found in the original population.

Respondents

Characteristics of the Respondents

To facilitate grouping of smaller schools and faculties into convenient groups, categorization into four broad disciplinary or faculty groups was adopted, as used by Gregor (1981). Table 2 reveals that 11 percent of the respondents represented the Faculty of Science, 18 percent represented the Faculty of Arts, 26 percent represented those faculties and schools considered to be the Professions, and the remaining 44 percent represented those professionals considered to be in the Applied Sciences.

One-quarter of the respondents were less than 40 years old at the time of the survey, 43 percent were between 40 and 49 years old, and the remainder of the respondents were over 49 years of age (Table 3). The great majority (81 percent) of respondents are male, 17 percent of the respondents female, and the remaining two percent did not identify their sex. Academic rank of the respondents is displayed in Table 3, revealing that 40 percent of the respondents are full professors, almost the same proportion (36 percent) are associate professors, 20 percent are assistant professors, and very few of the respondents (three percent) are lecturers. The majority of the respondents (78 percent) are tenured and hold full-time appointments (97 percent). Nine percent of the respondents hold term appointments, six percent hold probationary appointments and two percent hold sessional appointments (Table 3).

A majority (56 percent) of the respondents reported over 10 years of teaching experience at the University of Manitoba. Almost

TABLE 3

Background Information about Respondents and
Population

Background Information	Percentages	
	Respondents	Population
Age:		
20-29 years	1.4	2.6
30-39 years	24.4	30.9
40-49 years	42.7	38.2
50-59 years	23.9	22.0
60+ years	6.1	6.3
Sex:		
Male	80.8	85.9
Female	16.9	14.0
Academic Rank:		
Full Professor	39.9	36.2
Associate Professor	36.2	36.8
Assistant Professor	19.7	23.1
Lecturer	2.8	3.7
Appointment:		
Tenured	77.9	
Probationary	6.6	
Term	9.4	
Sessional	1.9	
Years Taught at University of Manitoba:		
0- 2 years	7.5	
3- 5 years	12.7	
6-10 years	23.0	
10+ years	55.9	
Years Taught at Other Universities:		
0- 2 years	60.6	
3- 5 years	17.8	
6-10 years	7.5	
10+ years	10.3	
Final Degree:		
Bachelor	2.8	
Master	16.0	
Ph.D.	62.4	
Medical-Dental	17.9	

one-quarter of the respondents reported between six and 10 years of teaching at the University of Manitoba (Table 3). Most of the respondents (61 percent) indicated that they had little or no previous teaching experience at other universities.

Representativeness of Survey Responses

In order to determine whether the respondents constitute a representative sampling of the original population, several sample statistics were compared to their corresponding population parameters (Table 3). Comparison indicates that on all the variables for which data was available, the respondents appear to adequately represent the parent population. This suggests that the responses of the respondents may be considered to be generally characteristic of the full-time academic faculty of the University of Manitoba.

Use of the available data about characteristics of non-respondents permits a comparison to determine the similarity between respondents and nonrespondents. Table 4 reveals that the proportions of respondents and nonrespondents in each academic rank are quite similar. In terms of faculty group affiliation, nonrespondents appear to have a slightly larger proportion of Arts and Science membership than respondents, who have a correspondingly larger proportion of the Professions and Applied Sciences members.

Nonresponse

The initial mailed sample was carefully selected to represent full-time faculty members in a proportional fashion, according to the number of academic positions in each faculty or school. The ultimate response was found to adequately approximate the population

TABLE 4

Comparison of Nonrespondents and Respondents by
Faculty Group and Academic Rank

	Percentages[a]	
	Nonrespondents	Respondents
Faculty Group:		
Arts	26.2	17.5
Science	17.6	11.0
Professions	22.4	27.5
Applied Sciences	35.2	44.0
	100%	100%
Academic Rank:		
Full Professor	33.5	39.9
Associate Professor	36.8	36.2
Assistant Professor	23.7	19.7
Lecturer	4.6	2.8
	100%	100%

[a]The percentages may not total 100 due to rounding.

proportions. Respondents' statistics appear to be similar to the population parameters in terms of faculty group, age, sex and academic rank.

Although the response rate was lower than desired, there was no evidence to suggest that the respondents are not representative of the population. Follow-up studies were unable to uncover or detect any instrument-related bias which may have been responsible for the low return rate. The cases of nonresponse which were explored suggested that nonresponse appeared to be due to the timing of the survey during the summer months. Many professors were apparently out of town, on holidays, on leave-of-absences, on sabbatical leaves or were very busy and unable to spare the time, or had a general anti-pathy to filling out surveys. Several surveys were returned unanswered because professors were no longer holding positions at the university, or because the individuals had moved to completely non-academic positions. Therefore, despite the low total response, there is no reason to suspect that nonrespondents were biased in any particular or significant fashion.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The central purpose of the study was to explore the phenomenon of faculty nonparticipation in the University Teaching Service teaching workshops at the University of Manitoba. The main data collection device used was the mailed questionnaire. The survey was designed to investigate certain possible themes for faculty non-participation in U.T.S. workshops, as suggested by the literature and the interview data. The responses to the survey are organized and presented according to these themes. In addition, the respondents were directed to indicate their reasons for nonparticipation and invited to offer comments and suggestions regarding teaching improvement programs.

Treatment of the Data

The respondent's answers to the survey questions, whenever possible, were assigned numerical codes and transferred to computer files. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie et al, 1975) was employed to sort, tabulate, produce descriptive statistics and analyze these data.

Analysis of the Data

The open-ended questionnaire items were individually examined and analyzed, categorizing and standardizing responses as much as possible. It was possible to create several categories for

responses to a few of the open-ended questions, thereby permitting computer analysis. The remaining nonstructured written-in data were subjected to content analysis in order to best describe and interpret these responses.

The first task of analysis for the computer-coded data was the calculation of descriptive statistics to summarize the overall responses to questions pertaining to each of the themes for nonparticipation. Frequencies and percentages were calculated to describe the continuous numerical data. Contingency tables and analysis of variance were used to explore relationships between responses to items and respondent characteristics. Chi-square test statistics were calculated to determine whether the two factors or variables in the contingency table appeared to be significantly related or associated. Similarly, the F-test was used for data in the form of mean scores, in order to determine whether the mean scores of two subgroups were significantly different. In both cases, only comparisons which revealed differences or associations between groups which were statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance were accepted and reported, unless otherwise noted.

The "compare and contrast" mode of analysis using contingency tables and analysis of variance was used to highlight significant differences in responses to certain questions provided by respondents from different faculty groups. Because of the great range of variables available to explore, intergroup comparisons for faculty groups were

limited to several variables pertaining to each of the possible
themes related to nonparticipation. Similarly, comparisons of data
from those respondents considered to be past-U.T.S. participants,
potential-U.T.S. participants, and unlikely-U.T.S. participants were
conducted on a limited number of variables.

Because identification of factors associated with or related
to faculty member nonparticipation in U.T.S. workshops was of primary
concern to the research, all available variables or data were
examined to determine whether past U.T.S. participants had
significantly different patterns of responses from those respondents
who had never participated in the U.T.S.

Presentation and Reporting of
the Data

The results of the survey and the descriptive and comparative
analysis of the data will be presented as they pertain to each
possible theme related to nonparticipation. Pertinent data are
tabulated and summarized in tabular form whenever possible. Rounding
of decimal points, when used, was done in the conventional manner.
Percentages usually refer to the percentage of all possible
respondents, either overall or of a particular subgroup, unless
otherwise specified. Comparisons between subgroups which do not
appear to be statistically different are not included in the tables,
unless otherwise noted. Therefore, empty columns or cells in tables
usually signify that no statistically significant relationship was
uncovered in the comparative analysis of those groups or that no
comparison was conducted between those variables. Because the

percentages included in the tables refer to the percentage of all 213 respondents, the percentage of respondents who declined to answer a particular question can be determined by subtracting the remaining percentages from 100.

An attitude scale with 54 attitude items was used to collect data concerning respondent's attitudes and opinions regarding various themes possibly related to nonparticipation. The respondents were asked to indicate the strength and direction (positive or negative) of their opinions to the Likert-type scale items, marking "strongly disagree" (S.D.), "disagree" (D), "neutral or no opinion" (N), "agree" (A) or "strongly agree" (S.A.). These responses are reported by describing the frequency and percentage of response to each attitude choice. In addition, the attitude item responses were numerically coded, from "strongly disagree" which was assigned a value of one, up to "strongly agree" with a value of five, and a mean score was calculated for each attitude item. Negatively-stated items were weighted in reverse. These mean scores were used to compute "overall mean scores" for groups of attitude items (constructs) relating to each of five of the themes for nonparticipation. The calculation of these overall mean attitude scores (averaging a number of individual attitude items) was done to facilitate comparison between different subgroups on the basis of the new mean score. These overall mean scores will be reported using arithmetic means, which could range from a low score of one (representing a relatively low or negative measure of the construct) to a neutral or noncommittal score of three, to a high level of five (representing a high or positive measure of the construct under consideration). In order to have

sufficient membership in each of the attitude item categories to

permit statistical comparison between subgroups, it was necessary to

combine the "strongly-disagree" and "disagree" categories and

similarly to combine the "strongly-agree" and "agree" categories. In

this manner valid calculations of Chi-square values were made possible.

Description of Comparison Groups

Several comparative analyses were required of the survey data

in order to permit conclusions to be made in response to the research

questions. The group of respondents can be usefully broken-down into

subgroups in terms of several indicators.

Faculty Groups

To facilitate examination of disciplinary or faculty groups,

a categorization used by Gregor (1981) was adopted. Four faculty

groups were defined, with their resulting membership and proportional

size illustrated in Table 5.

Comparison of the faculty groups by sex (Table 6) reveals that

a far higher percentage of the respondents from the Professions and the

Applied Sciences than the percentage in Arts and Science are

female. Examination of the faculty groups according to final academic

degree received indicates that the vast majority of respondents (over

90 percent) from Arts and Science hold Ph.D.'s, while only 55 percent

and 47 percent of respondents from the Professions and Applied Sciences

respectively hold Ph.D.'s. Over 39 percent of the respondents from the

Professions indicated that a Master's degree was their final degree,

while 41 percent of the Applied Sciences' respondents hold dental or

TABLE 5

Distribution of Respondents by Faculty Groups

Faculty Group	Faculty or School	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Total Responses
Arts	Arts	38	17.8
Science	Science	22	10.3
Professions	Administrative Studies	10	4.6
	Architecture	7	3.2
	School of Art	2	0.9
	Education	18	8.4
	Human Ecology	6	2.8
	Law	2	0.9
	Music	1	0.4
	Physical Education	6	2.8
	Social Work	4	1.8
	(Total Professions)	(56)	(26.2)
Applied Sciences	Agriculture	16	7.5
	Engineering	8	3.7
	Pharmacy	0	0
	Dentistry	6	2.8
	Nursing	6	2.8
	Medicine	58	27.2
	(Total Applied Sciences)	(94)	(44.1)
	Unidentified	3	
Total		213	100

TABLE 6

Distribution of Respondents in Faculty Groups
by Sex

Sex	Percentage of Faculty Group			
	Arts	Science	Professions	Applied Sciences
Male	88.9	95.5	71.4	83.7
Female	11.1	4.5	28.6	16.3

medical diplomas.

Examination of faculty groups in terms of past experience
with the U.T.S. workshops and expressed possible interest in future
U.T.S. participation reveals that Science respondents had the lowest
participation in the past, Applied Science respondents have the
highest proportion of respondents who expressed potential interest in
future participation, and 46 percent of Science respondents stated
that they had no intention of participating in the future (Table 7).

Potential Participation Groups

To meet the objectives of the research, it was necessary to
classify respondents according to their "potential" for future
University Teaching Service workshop participation. Past participants
were defined as all those respondents who reported past experience
with any of the U.T.S. teaching workshops. The remaining respondents
are all nonparticipants; however, a percentage of this group
indicated that they either had intentions of participating in the
future, or else they were undecided about future involvement. These
are the potential participants. The final portion of nonrespondents
who had indicated that they had no intention of future U.T.S.
participation, are referred to as unlikely participants. Table 8
reveals that approximately one-quarter of all the respondents had
attended one or more University Teaching Service workshops since the
U.T.S. began offering courses in 1971, while 48 percent of the
respondents could be considered potential participants, and a
remaining 21 percent appear to be unlikely future participants. A
difference in the distribution of academic ranks is evident among

TABLE 7

Distribution of Respondents in Faculty Groups by
Potential Participation Status

Potential Participation Status	Percentage of Faculty Groups			
	Arts	Science	Professions	Applied Sciences
Respondents who attended U.T.S. workshops in past (Past Participants)	25.7	9.1	34.5	28.4
Respondents who have not attended U.T.S. workshops but who express possible interest in future participation (Potential Participants)	42.9	45.5	47.3	56.8
Respondents who have not and do not intend to participate in U.T.S. workshops (Unlikely Participants)	31.4	45.5	18.2	14.8

TABLE 8

Distribution of Respondents by Potential
Participation Status

Potential Participation Status	Number of Respondents	Percentage of All Respondents
Respondents who attended U.T.S. workshops in past (Past Participants)	55	25.8
Respondents who have not attended U.T.S. workshops but who express possible interest in future participation (Potential Participants)	102	47.9
Respondents who have not attended U.T.S. workshops and who state they have no intention of future participation (Unlikely Participants)	45	21.1
Unknown	11	
Total	213	100

these three groups, as illustrated in Table 9. Clearly, the group
of respondents considered to be unlikely participants have a much
larger proportion of full professors than do past and potential
participants.

Nonparticipation Groups

Analysis and isolation of those factors or variables which
appear related to faculty member participation in U.T.S. workshops
comprised one of the principal objectives in this research.
Accordingly, all questionnaire items relating to each of the possible
themes for nonparticipation were analyzed in terms of the responses of
all past participants and all the nonparticipants in U.T.S. programs.
This division of respondents according to U.T.S. participation status
reveals that 26 percent of all respondents have participated in U.T.S.
workshops at some time and 70 percent have never participated.
Nonparticipants appeared to differ significantly from past participants
in one demographic aspect: sex. A far larger proportion of the past
participants (28 percent) than nonparticipants (13 percent) were
female.

Themes in Nonparticipation

Relative Personal Priority of
Teaching

Several attitude items in the survey were designed to
investigate the personal priority that respondents assigned to
teaching. The percentage of respondents who selected each category
is revealed in Table 10. Inspection reveals that respondents are
generally in agreement with positive statements concerning teaching.

TABLE 9

Distribution of Respondents in Potential
Participation Groups by Academic Rank

Academic Rank	Potential Participation Status		
	Percentage of each Group		
	Past Participants	Potential Participants	Unlikely Participants
Full Professor	37.0	29.7	68.2
Associate Professor	37.0	41.6	25.0
Assistant Professor	18.5	26.7	6.8
Lecturer	7.4	2.0	0

TABLE 10

Distribution of Responses to Attitude Items Regarding Relative Personal Priority of Teaching[a]

#[b]	Attitude Item	I. Overall Responses					III. Potential Participation Analysis				IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
		Percentages					Participation Status	Percentages[c]			Participation Status	Percentages[c]		
		SA	D	N	A	SA		D	N	A		D	N	A
14	Teaching is the central component of the professor's role.	0.5	8.5	5.2	38.5	44.6	d							
21	Teaching is the most satisfying and enjoyable aspect of professional work.	1.4	17.4	18.3	42.3	17.8	d				Past Part. / Nonpart.	11.1 / 23.0	11.1 / 22.6	77.8 / 54.1
15	Research and publications are much more important to me professionally than teaching.	5.2	30.0	27.2	32.9	1.4	d							
31	Professors in my department appear to be highly committed to teaching.	0.5	14.1	24.4	52.1	5.2	d				Past Part. / Nonpart.	7.7 / 17.8	17.3 / 28.1	75.0 / 54.1
19	The personal emphasis placed on teaching changes throughout the professors career.	0.9	8.5	17.8	58.7	10.8								
25	Community and/or professional service tends to be my primary responsibility.	22.1	52.1	13.1	8.5	0.9								
56	The U.T.S. Teaching workshops take too much time from more urgent priorities.	3.3	16.9	31.9	21.6	3.3	Past Part. / Potential Part. / Unlikely Part.	57.1 / 14.9 / 5.4	20.4 / 50.0 / 54.1	22.4 / 35.1 / 40.3	Past Part. / Nonpart.	57.1 / 11.7	20.4 / 51.4	22.4 / 36.9

[a]Unless otherwise specified, the presence of empty cells indicates that upon comparison of the subgroups, no statistically significant difference or relationship was found to exist at the 0.05 level.

[b]Item number on questionnaire.

[c]To facilitate valid comparisons, agreement (SA + A) was considered as one category, and disagreement (SD + D) as one category.

[d]Comparative analysis not performed.

The mean scores of the first four attitude items in Table 10, when averaged together, produce an overall "Personal Priority of Teaching" score for each respondent. The mean of this score for all respondents was 3.65 on a scale from one to five (representing a low to high level of the construct), which suggests that respondents accord teaching a fairly high priority (Table 11).

Several non-attitude survey questions provided data which can help explain or put into context the priority placed upon teaching by respondents. For example, the data in Column I of Table 12 indicate that the mean proportion of time spent on undergraduate instruction was slightly higher than that spent on research and publication. When asked to indicate their main attraction to their university job, similar proportions of respondents claimed that they were attracted by undergraduate teaching as by research and publication. In fact, comments inserted by the respondents revealed that many respondents were unable to select one over the other, frequently claiming that both aspects attracted them. One particular individual noted that the main attraction for her/him had been the "promise of 50 percent" of time to be spent on research.

Despite the high personal priority for teaching reported overall, some faculty group differences are evident. For example, Table 11 reveals that respondents from the Professions had the highest most positive overall "Personal Priority of Teaching" score. Column II of Table 12 indicates that only the respondents from Applied Sciences spent on average a larger proportion of their time on research and publication than on undergraduate teaching. Undergraduate teaching was considered to be the main attraction to the university job by a

TABLE 11

Mean "Relative Personal Priority of Teaching"
Scores

Respondent Grouping	Mean Scores
I. Overall Responses:	
All respondents	3.65
II. Faculty Group Analysis:	
Arts	3.65
Science	3.61
Professions	3.89
Applied Sciences	3.57
III. Potential Participation Analysis:	
Past Participants	3.85
Potential Participants	3.59
Unlikely Participants	3.58
IV. Nonparticipation Analysis:	
Past Participants	3.85
Nonparticipants	3.58

Note: Possible range of scores from 1 (low) to 5 (high).

TABLE 12

Distribution of Responses to Non-Attitude Items
Regarding Relative Personal Priority of
Teaching[a]

#[b]	Item	I. Overall Responses	II. Faculty Group Analysis				III. Potential Participation Analysis			IV. Nonparticipation Analysis	
		Percentages	Percentages				Percentages			Percentages	
			Arts	Science	Prof.	Appl. Sc.	Past Part.	Potent. Part.	Unlikely Part.	Past Part.	Non-Part.
10a	Mean proportion of time spent in undergraduate teaching.	27	38	38	29	20	33	26	25	33	25
	Mean proportion of time spent on research and publications.	23	27	24	15	25	18	23	26	18	25
10b	Main attraction to university job was undergraduate teaching.	31	52	31	65	27	54	34	39		
	Main attraction to university job was research and publication.	30	42	62	8	50	26	44	45		
11	Undergraduate teaching rated high personal priority	72									
	Graduate teaching rated high personal priority.	66									
	Research and publication rated high personal priority.	58									

[a]Unless otherwise specified, the presence of empty cells indicates that upon comparison of the subgroups, no statistically significant difference or relationship was found to exist at the 0.05 level.

[b]Item number on questionnaire.

majority of respondents only in Arts and the Professions.

To determine whether potential participants had responses indicative of a different level of personal priority placed on teaching than the other participants, responses of the potential participants were compared to those of past participants and those considered to be unlikely participants (as previously defined). Unlikely participants had the lowest mean "Personal Priority of Teaching" score, indicating a slightly lower emphasis placed on teaching (Table 11). Potential participants and unlikely participants appeared to be more attracted to the research aspects of their jobs, although they spend almost equal proportions of their time at under-graduate teaching (Table 12). The past participants reported both the largest proportion of time spent on undergraduate teaching and the highest expressed attraction to undergraduate teaching. The reactions of the three groups of respondents to the attitude item concerning priorities more urgent than the teaching workshops (Table 10, Attitude Item 56) reveal that the opinions of the potential participants lie between the strong disagreement of the past participants and the agreement of the unlikely participants.

The final phase in the comparative analysis of the nonpartici-pation theme regarding the priority of teaching is the comparison of past U.T.S. participants and non-U.T.S. participants. This comparison reveals that over 77 percent of past participants (compared to 54 percent of nonparticipants) declared that teaching is the most satisfying and enjoyable part of their work (Table 10, Column IV). Similarly, a higher proportion of past participants (75 percent) than nonparticipants (54 percent) observed that their colleagues appear

highly committed to teaching. A far higher percentage of past

participants (57 percent) than nonparticipants (12 percent) disagreed

that University Teaching Service workshops take too much time from

more urgent priorities (Table 10). In the overall general measure of

relative "Personal Priority of Teaching," the mean score for past

participants was significantly higher than that for nonparticipants

(Table 11, Row IV). The data indicate that past participants spend

a larger proportion of their time teaching than do nonparticipants.

Conversely, nonparticipants appear to spend more time on research and

publications (Table 12, Column IV).

Perceived Need for Improvement
in Teaching Skills

The extent to which respondents claimed to perceive a need

to improve their instructional skills was investigated through a

number of survey attitude items. Respondents generally appeared

confident that they were adequate instructors and would compare

favorably with their colleagues (Table 13). However, respondents

were divided on the issue of personal satisfaction with their

teaching effectiveness. Apparently respondents were similarly divided

as to whether they felt pressure to improve. Several respondents

commented that they perceived "student pressure and encouragement" and

"self-pressure" but "not administrative pressure." A majority (57

percent) of respondents claimed they felt the need to improve their

instructional skills. The mean scores of these attitude items were

combined to produce a low overall "Need for Improvement" score of 2.66

(out of possible 5).

The responses to several additional attitude items provide

TABLE 13

Distribution of Responses to Attitude Items
Regarding Perceived Need for Improvement
in Teaching Skills[a]

#[b]	Attitude Item	I. Overall Responses					IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
		Percentages					Participation Status	Percentages[c]		
		SD	D	N	A	SA		D	N	A
20	I believe my teaching performance compares favorably with that of my colleagues in my department.	0	0.9	10.8	63.8	21.6				
28	I believe I have a reputation among my colleagues for being a satisfactory instructor.	0	1.4	12.2	69.0	14.1				
36	I am satisfied with my teaching effectiveness.	0.5	35.7	13.6	41.8	4.2				
43	I do not feel under any pressure to improve my teaching effectiveness.	3.8	30.0	20.7	38.0	3.3				
32	I feel the need to improve my instructional abilities.	0.5	14.1	24.4	52.1	5.2	Past Participant Nonparticipant	5.7 21.2	13.2 19.9	81.1 58.9
40	My undergraduate students appear to be satisfied with my teaching skills.	0	3.8	16.4	65.7	8.5				
16	Professors in my department are able to recognize their strengths and weaknesses with regard to teaching	5.2	30.0	27.2	32.9	1.4				
23	Undergraduate students are not very good judges of instructional quality.	8.9	41.3	16.0	25.4	5.2				
38	I am capable of handling any improvement that may be necessary for my teaching.	0	13.6	33.3	44.6	3.3	Past Participant Nonparticipant	25.5 10.4	33.3 36.1	41.2 53.5

[a]Unless otherwise specified, the presence of empty cells indicates that upon comparison of the subgroups, no statistically significant difference or relationship was found to exist at the 0.05 level.

[b]Item number on questionnaire.

[c]To facilitate valid comparison, agreement (SA + A) was considered as one category and disagreement (SD + D) as one category.

further data with which better to appreciate the respondents' level of

satisfaction with their own teaching. For example, responses to item

40 on Table 13 reveal that 74 percent of respondents believed that

their undergraduate students are satisfied with their teaching. There

appears to be some disagreement as to whether the respondents'

colleagues are capable of judging their own teaching performance--

approximately equal proportions of respondents agreed and disagreed.

For example, one respondent offered her/his opinion: "While many of

the staff may personally recognize they have strengths and weaknesses

with regard to teaching, their outward behavior would indicate they do

not acknowledge this recognition." Half the respondents believe that

undergraduates are good judges of instructional quality, while 30

percent disagree. Almost half the respondents feel capable of handling

any improvements that may appear necessary (Table 13).

Comparisons of faculty group responses revealed a significant

difference in overall mean "Need for Improvement" scores (Table 14,

Row II). Respondents from Science had the lowest mean score and those

from Applied Sciences the highest.

A similar comparison of mean "Need for Improvement" scores

between past, potential and unlikely participants suggests that

although past and potential participants have similar scores, unlikely

participants as a group appear to have a lower score (Table 14).

The mean "Need for Improvement" scores were similar for past

participants and nonparticipants. However, in response to

direct questioning, 81 percent of past participants acknowledged

feeling the need for improvement, compared to 59 percent of the

nonparticipants (Table 13, Column IV). Also, past participants

TABLE 14

Mean "Perceived Need for Improvement" Scores

Respondent Grouping	Mean Scores
I. Overall Responses:	
All respondents	2.66
II. Faculty Group Analysis:	
Arts	2.52
Science	2.48
Professions	2.58
Applied Sciences	2.78
III. Potential Participation Analysis:	
Past Participants	2.737
Potential Participants	2.736
Unlikely Participants	2.32
IV. Nonparticipation Analysis:	
Past Participants	(No signi-
Nonparticipants	ficant difference in scores)

appeared to be more confident than nonparticipants in their ability to handle any necessary instructional improvements independently.

Perceived University Support and
Rewards for Good Teaching

Almost half the respondents do not believe that the University of Manitoba reward structure recognizes good teaching (Table 15). However 41 percent believe the university is committed to improving the quality of instruction. Respondents were divided in their opinions regarding whether the "climate" on campus is supportive and whether they sense increasing pressure and concern on campus to upgrade the quality of instruction. The climate is "too cold" noted one respondent! This lack of concensus is also evident in the overall mean "University Support and Rewards" score, which was derived from the first five attitude items in Table 15, and which resulted in a mean score of 2.9 (a score of 3 represents a neutral opinion).

Responses to other items indicative of perceived level of university support for good teaching are outlined in Tables 15 and 16. One-quarter of the respondents agreed that one of the most potent rewards available was the reduction of teaching load (Table 15, Item 39); however, in another question, 52 percent of respondents declared that they do not consider a reduced teaching load as an influential reward. Half the respondents believe their colleagues would try to improve their teaching if it were rewarded in the system. A majority of respondents (67 percent) disagreed with the item "it is unrealistic to expect that teaching quality could effectively be assessed for use in promotion and tenure decisions." Nevertheless, 45 percent believe it is unlikely that actual changes in promotion practices would occur

TABLE 15

Distribution of Responses to Attitude Items
Regarding Perceived University Support and
Rewards for Good Teaching

#[a]	Attitude Item	Overall Responses				
		Percentages				
		SD	D	N	A	SA
37	The University of Manitoba reward structure recognizes good teaching.	13.1	35.7	17.4	29.6	1.4
29	The University of Manitoba appears committed to improving the quality of instruction.	1.4	23.9	30.5	39.9	1.4
18	In general, the "climate" at the University of Manitoba encourages good quality instruction.	7.5	24.9	26.3	38.0	0.9
24	I sense an increasing pressure on campus to upgrade the general quality of instruction.	4.2	32.9	31.5	28.6	0.5
34	There appears to be increasing concern amongst my colleagues about quality of instruction.	2.3	31.0	34.3	28.6	0.5
39	One of the most potent rewards available to professors is the reduction of the teaching load.	8.5	36.6	24.9	21.1	3.3
42	More faculty members in my department would try to improve their teaching if it were rewarded in the system.[b]	1.4	13.6	31.9	43.2	6.1
44	It is unrealistic to expect that teaching quality could effectively be assessed for use in promotion decisions.[b]	9.9	56.8	10.8	16.9	2.3
47	Even if university policies emphasize teaching more, it is unlikely that actual promotion practices will change.[b]	3.8	22.1	24.4	42.3	2.3

[a]Item number on questionniare.

[b]Abridged.

TABLE 16

Distribution of Responses to Non-Attitude Items
Regarding Perceived University Support and
Rewards for Good Teaching[a]

#[b]	Item	I. Overall Responses	II. Faculty Group Analysis			
			Arts	Science	Prof.	Appl. Sc.
	Mean Score					
	Mean "University Support and Rewards" Score	2.93				
	Mean Weighting (out of 100 percent)					
11	Weighting for Promotion Decisions:					
	Research	48.8	53.3	59.2	37.4	51.4
	Teaching	32.8	30.5	31.8	30.0	39.3
	Service	17.7	16.2	9.5	21.0	18.3
	Percentages					
12	Very Influential Reward:					
	Personal Satisfaction	87.8				
	National Professional Reputation	36.6				
	Research Grants	32.4				
13	High Departmental Priority:					
	Undergraduate Teaching	57.7				
	Research and Publications	57.3				
	Graduate Teaching	46.9				

[a]Unless otherwise specified, the presence of empty cells indicates that upon comparison of the subgroups, no statistically significant difference or relationship was found to exist at the 0.05 level.

[b]Item number on questionnaire.

even if university policies change (Table 15). A vast majority of
respondents (88 percent) selected personal satisfaction as a very
influential motivator (Table 16) and 57 percent indicated that
personal satisfaction was the most powerful reward for them. Less
popular rewards were national professional reputation and research
grants (Table 16). Throughout the questionnaires, the written-in
comments of the respondents frequently illustrated the diversity of
the perspectives and views held by individual professors. For
example, one respondent commented that for her/him, a major
influential reward was the "pursuit of truth," while another retorted:
"I don't consider myself to be a Pavlovian dog, therefore I rarely
seek rewards." The data suggest that departments rank undergraduate
instruction and research and publication equally highly (Table 16,
item 13) but apparently in practice, research is very heavily weighted
as a criterion for promotion decisions (Table 16, item 11).
Respondents indicated that the mean proportional weighting of research
to teaching to service was 49:33:18 respectively. Around 30
respondents felt moved to comment about the weighting of research,
teaching and service for promotions. One-third of these respondents
indicated that they were unaware of the respective weights. Several
respondents observed that current practise was usually 90:0:10 or
90:10:0 and "not what they say" or not in line with "official
criteria." At least eight respondents implied that promotion was
largely dependent on "personal preference of department heads," "the
discretion of the Head and the Dean," "who you know . . . .," the
"old boy system" and even, as one professor remarked "longevity counts
most!"

Respondents from the four different faculty groups had similar mean scores for their overall "University Support and Rewards" score. However, faculty group differences become apparent in the departmental weighting of research, teaching and service for promotion decisions. Research is weighted most heavily for all, but is highest in Science and lowest in the Professions (Table 16, Column II). Teaching is weighted most heavily by the Applied Sciences and service weighted least in Science.

No evidence of particular patterns of agreement or disagreement regarding this theme emerged when past, potential and unlikely participants' and past participants' and nonparticipants' responses were compared and contrasted.

Attitudes Towards Teaching Improvement

The attitudes of the respondents and their general faith or confidence in teaching improvement and teaching improvement programs were explored in a variety of attitude items and other questions. Regarding the necessity of specific teacher training for university professors, a majority (70 percent) of respondents claimed that subject matter expertise is normally sufficient to ensure effective instruction (Table 17). However, 65 percent disagreed with the item suggesting that preparation to teach university (beyond subject specialization and research) is not necessary. Slightly less support was received for the statements maintaining that teaching improvement courses are effective and result in professional benefits (over 60 percent in agreement). In response to one attitude item concerned with efficacy of pedagogical courses in improving teaching effective-

TABLE 17

Distribution of Responses to Attitude Items
Regarding Attitudes Towards Teaching
Improvement[a]

#[b]	Attitude Item	I. Overall Responses					III. Potential Participation Analysis				IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
		Percentages					Participation Status	Percentages[c]			Participation Status	Percentages[c]		
		SD	D	N	A	SA		D	N	A		D	N	A
17	Subject matter expertise is normally a sufficient condition to ensure effective instruction.	0.9	8.5	17.8	58.7	10.8	d							
26	It is possible to improve teaching effectiveness by means of a specialized course about teaching.	1.9	8.9	21.1	58.7	6.1	d				Past Part. Nonpart.	5.7 12.3	13.2 24.7	81.1 63.0
41	Pedagogical training courses tend to promote "the correct" way to teach.	1.4	21.6	46.0	24.9	0.9	d							
30	In my opinion, preparation to teach university, beyond subject specialization and research, is not necessary.	14.6	49.8	18.8	10.8	0.9	d							
46	Professors from all areas can benefit from interdisciplinary programs offered by pedagogical experts.[e]	0.5	13.1	22.1	52.6	7.5	d				Past Part. Nonpart.	5.7 17.9	13.2 26.9	81.1 55.2
33	University professors best learn how to teach through actual teaching experience.	0	20.1	22.1	49.8	3.8	d				Past Part. Nonpart.	34.6 15.9	19.2 24.8	46.2 59.3
35	The best strategy to improve one's teaching is to facilitate further study in one's specialty area.	1.9	46.0	23.0	22.1	4.2	d				Past Part. Nonpart.	67.9 44.2	11.3 27.9	20.8 27.9
45	Attendance at a teaching workshop may suggest that a professor's teaching is in some way inadequate.	16.9	42.3	13.1	20.7	3.3	Past Part. Potential Part. Unlikely Part.	76.9 60.6 48.9	3.8 14.1 20.0	19.2 25.3 31.1	Past Part. Nonpart.	76.9 56.9	3.8 16.4	19.2 26.7
22	A professor requires different skills in teaching undergraduate than graduate students.[e]	0.5	12.2	5.6	55.9	23.5								
48	Professors may be reluctant to attend T.I.P.'s because they do not feel comfortable "performing" for peers.[e]	0.9	18.8	20.2	50.7	4.7								
27	In clinical-based programs professors need to acquire extra instructional skills.[e]	2.8	32.9	35.2	19.2	3.8								

[a] Unless otherwise specified, the presence of empty cells indicates that upon comparison of the subgroups, no statistically significant difference or relationship was found to exist at the 0.05 level.

[b] Item number on questionnaire.

[c] To facilitate valid comparisons, agreement (SA + A) was considered as one category, and disagreement (SD + D) as one category.

[d] Comparative analysis not performed.

[e] Abridged.

ness, one Science respondent suggested that "in many cases a few

courses in English might be more effective." Regarding the best

methods of preparation for teaching and for improvement of instruction,

slightly over half of the respondents agreed that actual teaching

experience is the best method. One respondent explained her/his

personal opinion:

> Experience is extremely important in learning how to teach
> effectively but it is not the most efficient way to learn and
> hence teaching effectiveness can be improved by programs designed
> to improve teaching skills.

Slightly less than half of the respondents disagreed that further

subject study and specialization is the best strategy for improvement

(Table 17). The respondents were evenly divided in their support of

the statement that pedagogical training courses tend to promote "the

correct" method. The mean overall "Attitude Towards Teaching

Improvement" score (calculated from the first seven items in Table

17) was 3.37, which reflects an overall positive attitude.

Other survey questions revealed different aspects of the

respondents' attitudes. For example, almost one-quarter of the

respondents believe that attendance at a teaching workshop may suggest

to others that one's teaching is somehow inadequate. Sixty percent of

the respondents disagreed with this statement one of whom noted that

"in fact, often those who most need the workshops do not enroll."

On another question, however, 55 percent were not reluctant to admit

that professors may be too shy to "perform" in front of their peers

at teaching workshops. A majority of respondents agreed that

graduate teaching requires different skills than teaching under-

graduates, but respondents were more divided in opinion about whether

extra teaching skills are required for clinical teaching.

Respondents were invited to describe any previous experiences with instructional development in their own words. Inspection revealed four broad categories of agencies or sponsors associated with many of the reported activities. The respondents' replies were coded and computer-tabulated (Table 18, item 62). Instructional development activities organized by the respondent's department or faculty were mentioned most frequently. Fifteen percent of respondents reported this type of participation, while 10 percent mentioned activities sponsored by a professional association. Less than four percent of respondents reported independent or self-directed activities, and 33 miscellaneous activities were described. Of the total of 96 instructional development activities described by respondents, all but two were considered to have been worthwhile.

Intergroup comparison of the overall mean "Attitudes Toward Teaching Improvement Program" scores revealed that as a faculty group, the Professions had the highest score and Science the lowest (Table 18). All groups reported very little involvement in self-directed instructional development. The Professions' and Applied Sciences' respondents both reported significantly more experience with faculty or department-based activities than did those from Arts or Science (Table 18, Column II).

Past participants have a higher overall mean "Attitudes Towards Teaching Improvement" score than do potential participants, and unlikely participants have a significantly lower mean score, as illustrated in Column IV of Table 18. The unlikely participants were the least involved in previous instructional development (Table 18)

TABLE 18

Distribution of Responses to Non-Attitude Items Regarding Attitudes Towards Teaching Improvement

#[a]	Item	I. Overall Responses	II. Faculty Group Analysis				III. Potential Participation Analysis			IV. Nonparticipation Analysis	
			Arts	Science	Prof.	Appl. Sc.	Past Part.	Potent. Part.	Unlikely Part.	Past Part.	Past Part.

Mean Scores

	Item	I. Overall	Arts	Science	Prof.	Appl. Sc.	Past Part.	Potent. Part.	Unlikely Part.	Past Part.	Past Part.
	Overall "Attitude to Teaching Improvement" Score	3.37	3.21	3.07	3.53	3.41	3.61	3.37	3.09	3.61	3.28

Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents Reporting Activities[b]

#[a]	Item	Overall f	Overall %	Arts f	Arts %	Science f	Science %	Prof. f	Prof. %	Appl.Sc. f	Appl.Sc. %	Past Part. f	Past Part. %	Potent. Part. f	Potent. Part. %	Unlikely f	Unlikely %	Past Part. f	Past Part. %	Past Part. f	Past Part. %
62	Previous Instructional Development Activities:																				
	Self-directed	8	3.8	1	3	1	5	3	5	3	3	0	0	4	4	4	9	0	0	8	5
	Faculty/Department	33	15.0	3	8	2	9	11	20	17	18	15	27	15	15	3	7	15	27	18	12
	Professional Association	22	9.9	3	8	1	5	9	16	9	10	6	11	12	12	4	9	6	11	16	16
	Other Activities	33	c	6	c	1	c	11	c	15	c	13	c	19	c	1	c	13	c	20	c
	Total	96		13		5		34		44		34		50		12		34		62	

[a] Item number on questionnaire.

[b] All data are presented--no statistical comparison procedures were performed.

[c] Not applicable (respondents may have reported more than one activity).

and also most in agreement that participation in T.I.P.'s may suggest that one's teaching is somehow inadequate (Table 17, Column III).

Nonparticipants had a significantly less positive overall mean score for this theme than did past participants. Similarly, differences on individual attitude items suggest that nonparticipants have much less confidence or faith than past participants in the efficacy of T.I.P.'s and less expectation of personal benefits from attending. Fifty-nine percent of nonparticipants (compared to 46 percent of past participants) feel actual teaching experience is the best way to learn how to teach, and 27 percent of nonparticipants (compared to 19 percent of past participants) agreed that attendance at teaching workshops may suggest that one's ability is inadequate (Table 17, Column IV).

Attitudes Towards University Teaching Service Workshops

Approximately 20 percent of the respondents did not respond to any of the attitude items specifically related to the University Teaching Service workshops. Of those who did respond, at least one-third of the respondents were unwilling or unable to give a positive or negative view and selected the neutral category (Table 19). The response of those respondents who did voice an opinion was positive, with 45 percent of all 213 respondents agreeing that U.T.S. workshops appear to be worthwhile. Regarding the effectiveness of the U.T.S. workshops in improving instructional skills, fewer respondents (29 percent) were positive. Fewer yet (28 percent) disagreed with the item stating that the "costs" of attending U.T.S. workshops outweigh the benefits, although eight percent of the respondents agreed.

TABLE 19

Distribution of Responses to Attitude Items
Regarding Attitudes Towards University
Teaching Service Workshops

#[a]	Attitude Item	I. Overall Responses					IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
		Percentages					Participation Status	Percentages[b]		
		SD	D	N	A	SA		D	N	A
50	The University Teaching Service workshops appear to be worthwhile.	0	3.3	29.6	40.8	4.7	Past Participant Nonparticipant	1.9 5.4	17.3 46.8	80.8 47.7
57	The U.T.S. teaching workshops appear to be effective in improving instructional skills.	0	5.2	42.3	25.8	3.3	Past participant Nonparticipant	6.1 7.3	24.5 69.1	69.4 23.6
54	The "costs" of participating in the U.T.S. teaching workshops outweigh the benefits.	4.7	23.0	42.7	7.5	0.5	Past participant Nonparticipant	68.6 19.7	23.5 68.8	7.9 11.6
52	The U.T.S. teaching workshops appear to meet the faculty members' needs and interests.	0	7.5	46.5	23.5	1.4	Past participant Nonparticipant	9.6 8.0	34.6 71.4	55.8 20.5

[a]Item number on questionnaire.

[b]To facilitate valid comparisons, agreement (SA + A) was considered as one category and disagreement (SD + D) as one category.

Similarly, eight pèrcent of respondents disagreed and 25 percent agreed that U.T.S. workshops appear to meet faculty members' needs and interests. Combining the mean scores for these attitude items resulted in an overall mean "Attitudes Towards U.T.S. Workshops" score of 3.39 which is mildly positive.

A valuable indicator of faculty opinion of the U.T.S. workshops was item 60 (Table 20) which all respondents were requested to answer. As Table 20 indicates, 95 percent of respondents complied, with equally large proportions of respondents voicing 'no opinion' or favorable opinions (36 percent and 39 percent, respectively). A very small percentage of respondents (two percent) gave an unfavorable evaluation.

Although the heart of the research was clearly devoted to the investigation of faculty nonparticipation in teaching workshops, it was considered worthwhile to ascertain what attitudes to U.T.S. workshops were held by respondents who had actually participated in any of these workshops. These respondents with personal experience were asked to briefly comment on and evaluate their experiences with U.T.S. workshops. A total of 83 workshop-attendances were reported by 51 respondents (past participants). The data reveal that 29 respondents took one workshop or course, 12 took two courses and 10 reported attendance at three courses. Table 21 summarizes the responses of the past participants to the survey items regarding their experience at U.T.S. workshops, including the range of subjects taken. Eighty percent of the workshops attended were reported to have been good or outstanding—the remaining 20 percent were considered to be fair or of lower quality. Overall, 84 percent of the workshops

TABLE 20

Distribution of Responses to Non-Attitude Items
Regarding Attitudes Towards University
Teaching Service Workshops

#[a]	Item	I. Overall Responses	II. Faculty Group Analysis				III. Potential Participation Analysis			IV. Nonparticipation Analysis	
			Arts	Science	Prof.	Appl. Sc.	Past Part.	Potent. Part.	Unlikely Part.	Past Part.	Non-Part.
						Mean Scores					
	Overall "Attitude to U.T.S." Score	3.39	3.21	3.09	3.63	3.35	3.73	3.28	3.12	3.73	3.23
60	Overall impression of U.T.S.:					Percentages					
	No opinion	36.2	41.2	54.5	30.4	38.6	20.4	46.5	38.6	20.4	44.9
	Favorable	38.5	32.4	9.1	53.6	43.2	72.2	30.7	25.0	72.2	28.6
	Ambivalent	18.3	23.5	27.3	14.3	17.0	5.6	21.8	29.5	5.6	23.8
	Unfavorable	2.3	2.9	9.1	1.8	1.1	1.9	1.0	6.8	1.9	2.7

[a]Item number on questionnaire.

TABLE 21

Distribution of Responses of Past Participants
Regarding Personal Experiences with University
Teaching Service Workshops

#[a]	Item	I. Overall Responses	
		Frequencies	Percentage of all 83 workshops taken
65a	U.T.S. Subjects Taken:		
	Communication	10	12
	Overhead Projector	10	12
	Instructional Design	8	10
	Micro Computers	6	7
	Evaluation	4	5
	Lecturing and Explaining	3	4
	Meetings	2	2
	Lecturing	2	2
	Interviewing	1	1
	Questioning	1	1
	Other Subjects	17	20
	Forgot Subject of Course	19	23
	Total	83 workshop attendances	
	Overall Rating of Workshop Taken:		
	Outstanding	14	17
	Good	52	63
	Fair	12	14
	Poor	3	4
	Unsatisfactory	2	2
	Worth of Workshops Taken:		
	Worthwhile	70	84
	Not worthwhile	9	11
	No response to question	4	5
	Participants Recommendation:		
	Workshop recommended	68	82
	Workshop not recommended	8	10
	No response to question	7	8
65c	Reason(s) for Participation:		
	Personal Interest	49	96
	Promotion-Tenure Concerns	2	4
	Encouragement by Colleagues	1	1
	Other reasons	9	17
		Frequencies	Percentage of all 51 past participants
65c	Reason(s) for Participation:		
	Personal Interest	49	96
	Promotion-Tenure Concerns	2	4
	Encouragement by Colleagues	1	1
	Other reasons	9	17
65d	Intention to Participate Further:		
	No	6	12
	Undecided	12	25
	Yes	31	63

[a]Item number on questionnaire.

were seen as worthwhile, and 82 percent of the workshops were

recommended by the participants (Table 21). Of the 51 past

participants, virtually all (96 percent) claimed they had participated

out of personal interest, and 17 percent included additional reasons--

such as the desire for self-improvement. As one past participant

explained: "It has always amazed me that some form of teaching

knowledge is required for Nursery School and high school but not for

University teachers. I wished to remedy this for myself." One measure

of the amount of faith or confidence past participants had for the

workshops was item 65 (d) which asked whether respondents had

intentions of participating in further U.T.S. programs (Table 21). A

majority (63 percent) of past participants stated their intention of

returning, while 37 percent were undecided or had no intention of

participating further. One Arts professor explained that s/he would

not participate in further U.T.S. workshops: "Unless I knew for

certain that they have become worthwhile."

Past participants were invited to comment on their experiences

with the University Teaching Service, and 17 comments (seven negative

and 10 positive) were received. Negative comments included complaints

that the location was inconvenient for Health Sciences Campus staff,

and that the courses were "not sufficiently adapted to the small-

group format principally used in the Medical College," irrelevant,

not well-prepared and too technical. Other respondents noted that

"more follow-up is required to improve skills" and that "too much time

was spent on very basic and . . . obvious concepts" and that there

was "no value in the theory and discussion."

Many positive remarks were received as well, explaining

benefits received, such as a "new perspective" and "stronger

confidence in my own resources." Past participants noted that the

"atmosphere at these workshops (was) very supportive" and that the

workshops were very helpful and were valuable in terms of "self and

colleague criticism of each other's performance." Other comments

included:

> I thought it was useful to see one's performance on the monitor
> and the instructors were very good.

> I had no teaching experience before coming to this university.
> This course clarified many points.

> Course positive and encouraging with some constructive criticism--
> this is a good approach.

> The workshop was supervised by an education psychologist and a
> history professor who won the Stanton Award--a great combination.

One respondent noted that her/his experience stimulated over five

other faculty members to participate. Finally, one respondent

explained that s/he discovered s/he was the only senior faculty member

(full professor, Department Head) in attendance at a particular

workshop, and suggested that "senior faculty members should give it

their support by participation."

Respondents from the Professional faculties had the highest

overall mean "Attitude Towards U.T.S. Workshops" score; those from

Science had the lowest (Table 20). About 80 percent of respondents

from the Professions agreed that the U.T.S. workshops appear to be

worthwhile, compared to only 39 percent of those from Arts and 38

percent of those from Science. In fact 10 percent of the respondents

from the Faculty of Arts disagreed with the statement altogether.

The data in Column III of Table 20 reveal that Science respondents

had by far the most negative and least positive overall impression of

the U.T.S., in contrast to respondents from the Professions who were much more favorable. Review of the data in Table 22 regarding past U.T.S. experience indicates that approximately one-quarter of the Applied Sciences respondents accounted for almost one-half the total workshops attended. Thirty percent of the respondents from the Professions reported U.T.S. involvement in contrast to the sole respondent from Science who attended one workshop. Respondents from the Professions appeared largely satisfied that the workshops they had attended were worthwhile, however three Arts respondents and five Applied Sciences respondents reported that one of the courses they had attended they had not considered to be worthwhile.

In terms of the overall mean "Attitude Towards U.T.S. Workshops" scores, the potential participants' score was similar to that of the unlikely participants', and the scores of both of these groups were much less positive than that of the past participants (Table 20, Column III). Past participants had highly favorable impressions of the U.T.S. programs, while potential and unlikely participants were only 31 and 25 percent favorable respectively (Table 20). The largest unfavorable opinion was that voiced by seven percent of the unlikely participants.

A comparison of nonparticipants' and past participants' responses to attitude items regarding U.T.S. workshops revealed a marked difference of opinion (Table 19, Column IV). Eighty-one percent of the past participant respondent group believed that U.T.S. workshops appear to be worthwhile, while about half the nonparticipant group were convinced. Nonparticipants were far less positive than past participants that U.T.S. workshops are effective. Similarly, far

TABLE 22

Distribution of Responses of Past Participants
by Faculty Group

Item	II. Faculty Group Analysis			
	Arts	Science	Prof.	Appl.Sc.
U.T.S. Workshops:				
Number of participants	9	1	17	25
Percentage of each group	23%	5%	30%	27%
Number of workshops attended by group	14	1	30	38
Percentage of all workshops	17%	1%	36%	46%
Worth of Workshops Taken:				
Number worthwhile	10	0	28	32
Number not worthwhile	3	0	1	5
No response to question	1	1	0	2

more past participants (69 percent) than nonparticipants (20 percent)

disagreed that the "costs" of U.T.S. participation outweigh the

benefits. Twelve percent of nonparticipants (compared to eight

percent of past participants) agreed with the statement. Generally

for all the evaluative items about the U.T.S., the past participants

were far more positive than the nonparticipants. However, the

responses to item 52 in Table 19 indicate that 10 percent of past

participants do not feel that U.T.S. programming meets faculty

members' needs and interests, and a majority of the nonparticipants

did not agree or disagree. For the overall mean "Attitude Toward

U.T.S. Workshops" score, past participants had a significantly higher,

more positive score than nonparticipants (Table 20, Column IV).

Whereas 72 percent of past participants voiced a favorable impression

of U.T.S., only 29 percent of past participants had favorable

impressions, and 24 percent had ambivalent views about U.T.S.

Faculty Awareness of University
Teaching Service Workshops

Respondents indicated the sources of the information they

possessed about the University Teaching Service. The annual brochure

distributed by the U.T.S. is the primary source of information—as

reported by 67 percent of respondents. Other sources included:

colleagues (reported by 27 percent of respondents), personal

experience (17 percent), media (12 percent), department heads (four

percent), and deans or directors (two percent). Twelve percent of

respondents indicated that they had no source of information about the

U.T.S.

The responses to attitude items regarding publicity level and

knowledge of U.T.S. programs were mixed, as illustrated in Column I

of Table 23. Approximately half the respondents felt that U.T.S.

publicity was adequate, and slightly less (45 percent) of them felt

they had sufficient information upon which to base participation

decisions. Far fewer of the respondents (21 percent) considered

themselves to be knowledgeable about the scope of U.T.S. programming.

Therefore 20 to 22 percent of respondents apparently did not agree

that the publicity or information was sufficient, and 39 percent did

not feel knowledgeable about U.T.S. programs (Table 23).

Over half of each of the faculty groups (except Science with

only 31 percent) agreed that they have received sufficient information

about the U.T.S. to make participation decisions (Table 23, Column II).

Respondents from the Professions were particularly positive in this

regard (75 percent agreement) while those from Applied Sciences were

the most negative (34 percent disagreed that they have sufficient

information). In all four faculty groups over one-third of the

respondents in each group did not consider themselves to be know-

ledgeable about U.T.S. programs. Science respondents were the least

positive and those from Applied Sciences most negative with respect

to their own knowledge level (Table 23, item 53).

Comparison of past, potential and unlikely participants'

responses for item 52 on Table 23 reveals that potential participants

as a group fall between the past and unlikely participants in terms of

U.T.S. - knowledge level. The past participants did acknowledge a

sufficiently higher knowledge level than the other two groups.

Regarding the adequacy of U.T.S. information received, 80 percent of

past participants and 60 percent of unlikely participants felt they

TABLE 23

Distribution of Responses to Attitude Items
Regarding Faculty Awareness of University
Teaching Service Workshops[a]

#[b]	Attitude Item	I. Overall Responses					II. Faculty Group Analysis				III. Potential Participation Analysis				IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
		Percentages					Faculty Group	Percentages[c]			Participation Status	Percentages[c]			Participation Status	Percentages[c]		
		SD	D	N	A	SA		D	N	A		D	N	A		D	N	A
49	The publicity regarding the U.T.S. workshops appears to be adequate.	1.9	19.7	13.1	46.9	0.9												
55	I have been exposed to sufficient information regarding U.T.S. workshops to make decisions about whether to participate.	0.9	17.8	13.6	42.7	2.3	Arts Science Prof. Appl.Sc.	26.7 25.0 8.5 33.8	20.0 43.8 17.0 11.3	53.3 31.3 74.5 54.9	Past Part. Potent. Part. Unlikely Part.	8.0 35.1 24.3	12.0 23.0 16.2	80.0 41.9 59.5	Past Part. Nonpart.	8.0 31.5	12.0 20.7	80.0 47.7
53	I consider myself to be quite knowledgable about the scope of the courses offered by the University Teaching Service.	4.2	34.7	19.7	19.2	2.3	Arts Science Prof. Appl.Sc.	45.2 52.9 34.7 57.5	25.8 41.2 24.5 20.5	29.0 5.9 40.8 21.9	Past Part. Potent. Part. Unlikely Part.	27.5 54.5 64.1	17.6 29.9 25.6	54.9 15.6 10.3	Past Part. Nonpart.	27.5 57.8	17.6 28.4	54.9 13.8

[a]Unless otherwise specified, the presence of empty cells indicates that upon comparison of the subgroups, no statistically significant difference or relationship was found to exist at the 0.05 level.

[b]Item number on questionnaire.

[c]To facilitate valid comparisons, agreement (SA + A) was considered as one category and disagreement (SD + D) as one category.

have sufficient data to make U.T.S. participation decisions—while only

42 percent of potential participants agreed. Thirty-five percent of

potential participants claimed they have been exposed to sufficient

information to make U.T.S. participation decisions.

A vast majority of past participants (80 percent) felt

adequately informed about U.T.S. but only 55 percent really claimed

to feel knowledgeable (Table 23, Column IV). In contrast 58 percent

of nonparticipants did not consider themselves knowledgeable and 32

percent did not feel they have sufficient information to make

participation decisions.

Convenience of University Teaching Service Workshops

Respondents were equally divided in their opinion as to

whether U.T.S. workshops are inconvenient when held in springtime.

Twenty-seven percent of all respondents agreed that U.T.S. registration

takes place too far in advance to properly anticipate commitments

(Table 24). In other words, the scheduling structure of the U.T.S.

workshops appears to inconvenience about 26 percent of the respondents

in these two respects.

Faculty group comparison revealed that springtime appears to

be convenient for over 50 percent of the respondents from the

Professions and more inconvenient for all the other faculty groups

(Table 24, Column II).

The group of respondents who felt most strongly that springtime

is inconvenient was the potential participants, 45 percent of whom

agreed. Only one-quarter of each of the past participant and the

unlikely participant groups complained. The majority of past

TABLE 24

Distribution of Responses to Attitude Items
Regarding Convenience of University
Teaching Service Workshops[a]

#[b]	Attitude Item	I. Overall Responses					II. Faculty Group Analysis				III. Potential Participation Analysis				IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
		Percentages					Faculty Group	Percentages[c]			Potent. Part. Status	Percentages[c]			Participation Status	Percentages[c]		
		SD	D	N	A	SA		D	N	A		D	N	A		D	N	A
51	Scheduling the U.T.S. workshops in spring time makes them inconvenient for many professors.	0.5	24.4	27.2	22.5	4.2	Arts Science Prof. Appl.Sc.	30.0 11.8 51.0 23.9	33.3 52.9 24.5 38.0	36.7 35.3 24.5 38.0	Past Part. Potent. Part. Unlikely Part.	56.9 17.1 27.0	17.6 38.2 48.6	25.5 44.7 24.3	Past Part. Nonpart.	56.9 20.4	17.6 25.5	25.5 38.1
58	Registration for the U.T.S. workshop occurs too far in advance to properly anticipate time commitments.	0	14.1	36.6	23.0	4.2					Past Part. Potent. Part. Unlikely Part.	36.0 10.5 83	34.0 39.5 80.6	30.0 51.0 11.1	Past Part. Nonpart.	36.0 9.8	34.0 52.7	30.0 37.6

[a]Unless otherwise specified, the presence of empty cells indicates that upon comparison of the subgroups, no statistically significant difference or relationship was found to exist at the 0.05 level.

[b]Item number on questionnaire.

[c]To facilitate valid comparison, agreement (SA + A) was considered as one category and disagreement (SD + D) as one category.

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participants in fact disagreed with the statement that springtime is
an inconvenient time (Table 24, Column III). Over half of the
potential participants agreed that U.T.S. registration occurs too far
in advance properly to anticipate commitments, but only 11 percent
of the unlikely participants agreed in this respect. Thirty percent
of past participants also agreed that U.T.S. registration is too far
in advance.

Comparison of past participants and nonparticipants in these
questions of convenience suggests that past participants are less
negative and more positive in their assessment of U.T.S. convenience
than nonparticipants (Table 24, Column IV). Thirty-six percent of
past participants disagreed that registration occurs too far in
advance, compared to only 10 percent of the respondents in the
nonparticipant group.

Perceived Blocks and Barriers to
  U.T.S. Participation

When respondents were asked whether they felt that any
circumstances had discouraged or prevented them from participating in
U.T.S. workshops, 41 percent said no but 34 percent did mention that
they had, and went on to comment on the nature of the block or barrier
they had experienced. These 79 respondents described a total of 104
various barriers (25 of these cited two barriers). Content analysis
of the data permitted categorization and computer tabulation of most
of these written-in responses. Eleven percent of the respondents
complained of schedule or timetable conflicts (e.g., learned society
or committee meeting) and a similar proportion complained that
previous commitments or other responsibilities or priorities (such

as consulting, teaching or administrative work) had prevented them

from participating. Ten percent of all respondents cited lack of time

as their major block (Table 25). Thirty-three miscellaneous blocks

and barriers were described and only three respondents complained

that the inconvenient location of the U.T.S. workshops (on the Fort

Garry Campus) blocked their attendance. One respondent claimed that

lack of reminders had resulted in missed attendance. Two professors

felt discouraged from participation because of a "lack of conviction

that they are useful." Two other respondents mentioned that they

were discouraged by a "reluctance to participate in front of peers."

Finally, one respondent explained her/his discouraging circumstances:

> General feeling that although there is increasing talk locally
> about improving instruction there is as yet insufficient
> committment to this at faculty and department level for all
> faculty members.

Respondents were further requested to describe under what

circumstances they would consider attending U.T.S. workshops. Many

respondents (92) offered suggestions as to which situation or

circumstance would have to change before they would participate.

Although many of the suggestions defied straightforward classification

and computer-coding, 75 of the 125 suggested changes were amenable to

categorization and were subsequently computer-tabulated (Table 25).

Ten percent of respondents explained that before they would attend

U.T.S. workshops, they would have to change or rearrange their own

personal priorities or reorganize their personal schedules and

commitments   Seven percent of respondents explained that the U.T.S.

course schedules would have to change. Changes in U.T.S. course

content or course quality were required by five percent, and evidence

TABLE 25

Distribution of Responses to Items Regarding Perceived Blocks and Barriers to Faculty Participation in U.T.S. Workshops

#[a]	Item	I. Overall Responses		II. Faculty Group Analysis								III. Potential Participation Analysis						IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
				Arts		Science		Prof.		Appl. Sc.		Past Part.		Potent. Part.		Unlikely Part.		Past Part.		Non-Part.	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
66	**Existence of Blocks:**																				
	Yes	73	34.3	8	21	4	18	19	34	41	44	27	49	37	36	5	11	27	49	42	28
	No	87	40.8																		
	No response to question	53	24.9																		
	Type of Block Cited:[c]																				
	Schedule Conflict	24	11.3	3	8	1	5	7	13	13	14	11	20	10	10	1	2	11	20	11	7
	Other Commitments	23	10.8	2	5	0	0	8	14	13	14	10	18	10	10	3	7	10	18	13	9
	Lack Time	21	9.9	2	5	1	5	7	13	13	14	5	9	12	12	1	2	5	9	13	9
	Location Inconvenient	3	1.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	3	2
	Other Blocks	33	d	5	d	3	d	4	d	20	d	10	d	18	d	5	d	10	d	23	d
	Total	104 blocks		12		5		26		62		36		53		10		36		63	
	Change in Order to Participate:[c]																				
	Factors under Personal Control	21	9,9	2	5	1	5	7	13	10	11	4	7	14	14	2	4	4	7	16	11
	Change in Time Schedule	15	7.0	7	18	1	5	4	7	9	10	8	15	7	7	0	0	8	15	7	5
	Change in U.T.S course content/quality	10	4.7	1	3	0	0	2	4	6	6	5	9	2	2	2	4	5	9	4	3
	Evidence U.T.S. course effectiveness	8	3.8	3	8	2	9	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	6	13	1	2	7	5
	Incentives or rewards	8	3.8	4	11	1	5	0	0	3	3	0	0	7	7	1	2	0	0	8	5
	Decrease length of courses	6	2.8	0	0	0	0	1	2	5	5	3	5	3	3	0	0	3	5	3	2
	Evidence personal benefit from course	5	2.3	2	5	1	5	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	11	0	0	5	3
	Change location	2	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	2	1
	Other changes	50	d	5	d	4	d	13	d	27	d	12	d	27	d	8	d	12	d	35	d
	Total	125 suggested changes		24		10		30		64		33		63		24		33		87	

[a] Item number on questionnaire.

[b] Faculty group comparison of this variable revealed statistically significant differences only at 0.059 level.

[c] All data are presented—no statistical comparison procedures were performed.

[d] Not applicable (respondents may have reported more than one other block or change).

TABLE 25

Distribution of Responses to Items Regarding
Perceived Blocks and Barriers to Faculty
Participation in U.T.S. Workshops

#[b]	Item	I. Overall Responses		II. Faculty Group Analysis								III. Potential Participation Analysis						IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
				Arts		Science		Prof.		Appl. Sc.		Past Part.		Potent. Part.		Unlikely Part.		Past Part.		Non- Part.	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
66	Existence of Blocks:																				
	Yes	73	34.3	8	21	4	18	19	34	41	44	27	49	37	36	5	11	27	49	42	28
	No	87	40.8																		
	No response to question	53	24.9																		
	Type of Block Cited:[c]																				
	Schedule Conflict	24	11.3	3	8	1	5	7	13	13	14	11	20	10	10	1	2	11	20	11	7
	Other Commitments	23	10.8	2	5	0	0	8	14	13	14	10	18	10	10	3	7	10	18	13	9
	Lack Time	21	9.9	2	5	1	5	7	13	13	14	5	9	12	12	1	2	5	9	13	9
	Location Inconvenient	3	1.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	3	2
	Other Blocks	33	d	5	d	3	d	4	d	20	d	10	d	18	d	5	d	10	d	23	d
	Total	104 blocks		12		5		26		62		36		53		.	10	36		63	
	Change in Order to Participate:[c]																				
	Factors under Personal Control	21	9,9	2	5	1	5	7	13	10	11	4	7	14	14	2	4	4	7	16	11
	Change in Time Schedule	15	7.0	7	18	1	5	4	7	9	10	8	15	7	7	0	0	8	15	7	5
	Change in U.T.S course content/quality	10	4.7	1	3	0	0	2	4	6	6	5	9	2	2	2	4	5	9	4	3
	Evidence U.T.S. course effectiveness	8	3.8	3	8	2	9	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	6	13	1	2	7	5
	Incentives or rewards	8	3.8	4	11	1	5	0	0	3	3	0	0	7	7	1	2	0	0	8	5
	Decrease length of courses	6	2.8	0	0	0	0	1	2	5	5	3	5	3	3	0	0	3	5	3	2
	Evidence personal benefit from course	5	2.3	2	5	1	5	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	11	0	0	5	3
	Change location	2	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	2	1
	Other changes	50	d	5	d	4	d	13	d	27	d	12	d	27	d	8	d	12	d	35	d
	Total	125 suggested changes		24		10		30		64		33		63		24		33		87	

[a]Item number on questionnaire.

[b]Faculty group comparison of this variable revealed statistically significant differences only at 0.059 level.

[c]All data are presented--no statistical comparison procedures were performed.

[d]Not applicable (respondents may have reported more than one other block or change).

of course effectiveness by four percent of respondents. Availability

of incentives or rewards was a theme mentioned by four percent, and

evidence of personal benefit by two percent. Structural changes such

as decreasing the course length or varying course locations were only

mentioned by three and one percent respectively.

A look at several examples of the respondents' comments helps

illustrate and provide a feeling for what these individuals would

want to see changed before they would consider participating in U.T.S.

workshops. As previously mentioned, many respondents implied that

a change in their own attitudes and priorities would have to occur.

Several comments indicated that university values and general faculty

attitudes influenced them. For example, a few respondents commented

that they would consider U.T.S. participation, given:

> An acceptance and recognition of attendance as part of a Faculty
> member's responsibilities.

> (A) change in attitude about the importance of teaching in the
> university. Most of the teaching I have encountered is AWFUL.

> (That faculty) be required to attend as condition of employment.

> (That) teaching became as important as research.

Other respondents voiced a need to be certain that improvement was

necessary and that workshops were effective:

> Indication that my teaching was inadequate.

> I would have to be convinced (by testimonial evidence or by
> direct observation) that these courses improve teaching.

> I would have to feel more dissatisfied with my teaching skills.

> I would have to be convinced that my teaching really needed and
> could benefit from such workshops.

As well, some respondents indicated that changes concerning the U.T.S.

program would be necessary to encourage their attendance:

Better and more detailed description of the facilities offered.

Instructors with established reputations.

Perhaps an improved reward system but more importantly a more discipline oriented approach.

The course would have to be more intensive and sophisticated than I attended.

Perhaps some choice in "class mates?"

Topics offered appeared inappropriate.

Finally, several respondents complained of inconvenient location, length of classes, the "conduct and the content" of classes, lack of rewards, pressure of untenured position, scheduling of courses, course relevance, and work load.

Faculty group comparison revealed that respondents from Science complained least of the existence of blocks (18 percent) while those from Applied Science appeared to be faced with many blocks or discouraging circumstances (44 percent). Column III of Table 25 displays the types of blocks described by each faculty group. The distribution of the suggested changes which would permit participation (Table 25, Column III) by faculty group reveals several differences between groups. A larger proportion of Arts respondents and none of the Professionals appear to be interested in receiving incentives or rewards for participation. Respondents from Science appear most interested in evidence of U.T.S. course effectiveness. Respondents from Applied Sciences are the most interested in reducing course length and changing the quality or content of the courses. Arts respondents appeared to be the most interested in time schedule changes, while the respondents from the Professions appeared most concerned that factors under personal

control would have to change before they would attend.

The data displayed on Table 25 in Column III reveal that past participants reported the highest percentage of blocks while only 11 percent of the unlikely participants complained of being blocked or discouraged from U.T.S. participation. Past participants complained most of schedule conflicts (20 percent) and other commitments (18 percent). Potential participants were blocked by lack of time (12 percent) and schedule conflicts (10 percent) and other commitments (10 percent). All three complaints about inconvenient location were made by potential participants. Unlikely participants cited very few blocks--only seven percent claimed other commitments prevented U.T.S. participation. Past participants were more likely to desire changes in time scheduling and in course content while potential participants reported that they would be more likely to participate only if they changed their own personal priorities or if incentives were offered (Table 25, Column III). Unlikely participants, however, were most likely to demand evidence of course effectiveness or personal benefit.

A far larger proportion of past participants (49 percent) reported discouraging circumstances than did nonparticipants (28 percent). Table 25 reveals that there is not much difference in the distribution of the various blocks, but some differences between past participant and nonparticipant responses are evident in the suggested changes to permit participation. For example a larger percentage of past participants appear concerned about course-related structural changes, while nonparticipants expressed concern over personally-controlled factors, incentives and evidence of effective-

ness.

Nonparticipants' Reasons for U.T.S.
Nonparticipation

Those respondents who had indicated that they had never

experienced a University Teaching Service workshop were presented with

a checklist of 14 potential reasons for not having participated. The

nonparticipants selected as many items as were relevant for them

individually (if any), and were invited to write in or explain any

further reasons for their nonparticipation. The distribution of

responses to the items on the checklist is revealed on Table 26. A

total of 304 items were checked by 150 nonparticipants. The most

frequently-selected reason for nonparticipation was lack of time

(selected by 47 percent of all the nonparticipants). The next most

popular reason for nonparticipation (for 27 percent) was that

the nonparticipants had never considered or contemplated such

participation. Equal proportions (20 percent in each case) of

nonparticipants reported that they preferred other means of self-

improvement and that they felt the workshops were inconveniently

scheduled. Respondents who preferred other means of improvement

appeared to prefer what one respondent called "do-it-yourself

improvement" such as "observing other teachers," "self-appraisal,"

"continuous studying," "updating curriculum," "listening carefully

to students" or even "trying harder!" Many different suggestions for

more convenient workshop times were received: the fall, the academic

year, evenings, lunch hours, Saturdays, and "spread over different

periods." No need for improvement in teaching ability was cited by

15 percent, and insufficient rewards for participation by 13 percent

TABLE 26

Distribution of Nonparticipants' Responses to Items Regarding Reasons for Nonpartici-pation in U.T.S. Workshops[a]

#[b]	Item (Abridged)	I. Overall Responses		II. Faculty Group Analysis								III. Potential Participation Analysis			
---	---	---	---	Arts		Science		Prof.		Appl. Sc.		Potent. Part.		Unlikely Part.	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
64a	Checklist Possible Reason(s) for Non-Participation:														
	I do not have enough time	70	46.7	13	50	4	19	19	53	32	49	51	50	19	42
	I never contemplated attending	40	26.7	10	39	7	33	11	31	11	17	17	17	22	49
	Courses inconveniently scheduled	30	20.0	2	8	2	10	9	25	16	25	29	28	1	2
	I prefer other means improvement	30	20.0	6	23	5	24	10	28	8	12	13	13	17	38
	No need to improve teaching	22	14.7	4	15	3	14	6	17	9	14	7	7	15	35
	Insufficient rewards	19	12.7	8	31	4	19	1	3	6	9	14	14	5	11
	Teaching is not major priority	16	10.7	4	15	1	5	4	11	7	11	11	11	5	11
	Courses have poor reputation	15	10.0	4	15	2	10	3	8	6	9	6	6	9	20
	Teaching can't be taught in course	14	9.3	3	12	4	19	2	6	5	8	2	2	12	27
	Educational experts cannot help	12	8.0	1	4	5	24	1	3	5	8	4	4	8	18
	Not aware of courses	11	7.3	3	12	0	0	1	3	7	11	8	8	2	4
	Not interested in available courses	10	6.7	2	8	5	24	1	3	2	3	3	3	7	16
	Not interested in involvement	10	6.7	2	8	2	10	3	8	3	5	1	1	9	20
	May appear inadequate if attend	5	3.3	1	4	1	5	0	0	3	5	4	4	1	2
	Total	304		63		45		71		120		170		132	
64b	Fill-in Reasons Nonparticipation:														
	Quality/content of course	10	6.6	3	30	2	25	1	7	4	14	6	15	4	20
	Schedule conflict	9	6.0	2	20	1	13	0	0	6	21	8	20	1	5
	Good Student Ratings	7	4.6	2	20	1	13	3	21	1	4	4	10	3	15
	Inertia/laziness	6	4.0	1	10	1	13	2	14	2	7	5	13	1	5
	Courses too long	2	1.3	0	0	1	13	0	0	1	4	2	5	0	0
	Location inconvenient	2	1.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	2	5	0	0
	Other reasons	66	c	8	c	9	c	15	c	33	c	42	c	23	c
	Total	102		16		15		21		49		69		32	

[a]All data are presented--no statistical comparison procedures were performed. The percentages are based upon the total number of non-participants overall (N = 150) or within each subgroup.

[b]Item number on questionnaire.

[c]Not applicable (respondents may have reported more than one other reason).

of the nonparticipants. Eleven percent of the nonparticipants admitted that teaching is not a major priority for them and 10 percent claimed that the poor reputation of the workshops discouraged them. Progressively fewer nonparticipants indicated that: they had little faith in workshops generally (nine percent) or in educational experts (eight percent), they were not aware of the existence of the workshops (seven percent), they were not interested in the particular courses available (seven percent) or in involvement in any instructional programs (seven percent), and several nonparticipants (three percent) indicated that they did not attend because participation may suggest to others that their teaching performance is somehow inadequate.

Sixty-one of the nonparticipants supplied a total of 102 written-in additional reasons for nonparticipation (30 respondents gave one reason, 21 gave two reasons, and 10 nonparticipants wrote in three reasons). These individual explanations were extremely varied and consequently very difficult to categorize for computer tabulation and analysis. Several recurring reasons for nonparticipation were observed and computer-coded (their distribution is recorded in Table 26). Approximately seven percent of all the nonparticipants complained that the content or quality of the workshops discouraged them from attending, while schedule conflict was a barrier for six percent. At least 13 objections to various aspects of the University Teaching Service were voiced--ranging from a "poor opinion of the Faculty of Education" to a complaint that "courses appear inappropriate for clinical teaching." One respondent was "not enthralled about the early leaders in the field," while another claimed: "they have not convinced me of 'their' teaching ability." One particularly

negative comment: "I do not have a great deal of confidence in the Faculty of Education's appreciation of anything beyond the most elementary problems and techniques involved in teaching my discipline." One respondent worried that potential participants "have no idea who any of the people are and d.k. what their criteria of 'good teaching' are a priori." Another respondent felt that "a workshop covering a wide range of academic disciplines is not much help to mathematicians." Another commented: "From what I know of the design—I believe the emphases of the program fail to award importance to the 'person' of the student and do not attend to relationship skills in an appropriate way." Several respondents agreed that reports back from colleagues suggested that the courses "deal with the obvious, and therefore are not worth the time." As one respondent explained: "reports I have heard have been positive but not overly enthusiastic about the quality of courses offered." Five percent of nonparticipants explained that they did not participate because they received good ratings or course evaluations from their students. Several nonparticipants (four percent) admitted that inertia or laziness was their excuse. Very few nonparticipants complained further that courses were too long or inconveniently located. However, 66 of the 102 written-in explanations could not be computer-tabulated and therefore were not analyzed according to group and nonparticipation variables.

Several respondents implied that they had no need for improvement in their teaching abilities because they were very experienced teachers, knew how to solve their own problems, had already taken such workshops elsewhere or "picked up" strategies at

conferences and through reading, or had perceived the adequacy of their current abilities through teaching awards and student reactions.

Lack of incentives and rewards for improving teaching performance was cited as a reason for nonparticipation by five respondents. "I receive money for clinical service--who would compensate?" and "research is rewarded, teaching not." One career-minded professor explained:

> My progress has been hindered by involvement in administration and the resulting lack of publication. If I am to progress (financially or professionally) I have to get my research functioning and known.

Several nonparticipants complained of "inadequate notification" and that the "profile of the workshops was not high enough to attract attention as significant." In fact, "no general interest in the department," the "expectations of department and faculty," the "terms of reference under which I was employed" and the lack of "emphasis placed on the importance of such workshops by university or colleagues" all contribute to the perception of U.T.S. workshops as what one respondent called "non-events." One Science professor explained his/her objections to the U.T.S. workshops, summarizing many commonly-heard arguments:

> I believe the content of my lectures is more important than my style. The university should devote its resources to improving the library and research support so that we can give students the best possible information. A flashy, entertaining or "interesting" lecture, while fun to attend, may inpart no lasting knowledge. I recall studies showing that students retained least from lecturers they judged as "best." A competent scholar is best equipped to judge his material and what students can handle in his area, especially when he is responsive to student reaction. Any amount of "pedagogical expertise" will not make a good teacher out of a drone. On the other hand, if organized material and understanding is conveyed to the students even in a dull way, it is their responsibility to assimilate it.

Finally, two nonparticipants commented that their age influenced their desire to participate; one claiming to be "too old and rigid to change" while another wrote, "I am close to retirement and need to husband my resources."

Responses to the checklist of possible reasons for non-participation were compared on a faculty group basis (Table 26, Column II). Among the nonparticipants from Arts, the most frequent reasons included: lack of time (cited by 50 percent of Arts non-participants), no consideration of attending (39 percent) and insufficient rewards (31 percent). Thirty-three percent of Science nonparticipants have never considered attending, 24 percent prefer other means of improvement and 24 percent have little faith in educational experts. The Science respondents were the least likely group to complain of a lack of time. Of the nonparticipants from the Professions, a majority (53 percent) indicated that a lack of time was the main excuse for nonparticipation, while 31 percent have never considered attending, 28 percent prefer other means of improvement and one-quarter think the U.T.S. courses are inconveniently scheduled. One-quarter of the nonparticipants from the Applied Sciences also complain that U.T.S. courses are inconveniently scheduled. The non-participants from the Applied Sciences were the group least likely to prefer other means of improvement and to claim that they have never considered attending the workshops.

The distribution of additional written-in reasons for non-participation among faculty groups is disclosed in Column II on Table 26. Evidently the nonparticipants from the Professions are not prevented from participation by schedule conflicts as much as those

from the Applied Sciences or Arts. Nonparticipants from Arts appear to be the most concerned about the content or quality of the workshops.

The reasons for nonparticipation given by unlikely participants and potential participants were also subjected to comparative analysis. The potential participants were more likely than the unlikely participants to complain of lack of time and lack of awareness of the courses and much more likely to indicate that inconveniently scheduled workshops prevent their participation (28 percent of potential versus two percent of unlikely participants). The unlikely participants were much more likely than potential participants to indicate that lack of previous consideration, lack of need to improve, lack of interest, lack of desire for involvement, lack of faith in the courses or the educational experts or lack of confidence in U.T.S. reputation on preference of other improvement strategies are reasons for nonparticipation.

Comparison of the potential and unlikely participants on the written-in reasons (Table 26, Column III) again suggests that potential participants are obstructed by schedule conflicts to a far greater extent than unlikely participants. Unlikely participants appear to have suggested more personal reasons while potential participants tended to indicate more situational reasons for nonparticipation.

Respondents' Suggestions and Comments

Respondents were encouraged to react to and elaborate upon their responses to survey questions, and invited to make suggestions

concerning the areas touched upon in the survey. Not only did this procedure help ensure the validity of the responses, but it permitted the collection of personal opinions stated in the respondents own words, which complemented and enhanced the qualitative aspects of the data.

University Teaching Service
Administration

Respondents were requested to indicate their opinion regarding who should administer the University Teaching Service. As illustrated in Table 27 approximately 40 percent of the respondents suggested that the Faculty of Education was best suited for this responsibility, while 19 percent felt that individual faculties or schools should be responsible. Only nine percent of the respondents suggested that the U.T.S. be administered through the central administration, and 16 percent suggested various alternatives (such as combinations of the different choices).

Faculty group comparisons of responses regarding U.T.S. administration reveal that respondents from Sciences most prefer individual faculty control and least prefer the Faculty of Education option while Professional respondents most prefer Faculty of Education control and least prefer the option of individual faculty control.

Past participants were more in favor of Faculty of Education control than potential and unlikely participants. Potential participants were slightly more in favor of individual faculty control than were unlikely participants. Comparison of past and nonparticipants discloses that past participants (more than non-participants) favored Faculty of Education control.

TABLE 27

Distribution of Responses to Items Regarding Administration of U.T.S. Workshops

#[a]	Item	I. Overall Responses		II. Faculty Group Analysis								III. Potential Participation Analysis[b]						IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
				Arts		Science		Prof.		Appl. Sc.		Past Part.		Potent. Part.		Unlikely Part.		Past Part.		Non-Part.	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
61	**Who should administer U.T.S.?**																				
	Faculty of Education	83	39.6	14	37	2	9	36	64	31	33	31	56	39	38	12	27	31	56	51	34
	Individual Faculty/School	41	19.2	8	21	8	36	4	7	19	20	6	11	24	24	10	22	6	11	34	23
	Central university administration	18	8.5	2	5	2	9	4	7	10	11	5	9	9	9	4	9	5	9	13	9
	Other agency or combination	35	16.4	5	13	5	23	9	16	16	17	10	18	15	15	10	22	10	18	25	17
	No response to question	36	16.9																		
	Should U.T.S. be mandatory?																				
	Not mandatory	18	8.5	4	11	1	5	6	11	7	6	6	11	9	9	4	9	6	11	12	8
	Mandatory	14	6.6	2	5	0	0	4	7	8	9	5	9	4	4	3	7	9	9	5	3
	Strongly recommended	8	3.8	0	0	1	5	4	7	3	3	7	13	1	1	1	2	4	13	4	3

[a]Item number on questionnaire.

[b]Past, Potential and Unlikely Participant comparisons did not reveal statistically significant difference, but data were included for reasons of interest.

Mandatory U.T.S. Participation

On the final page of the survey, professors were invited to respond to an optional question regarding whether U.T.S. workshops should be mandatory for new or inexperienced professors. Table 27 summarizes their responses and indicates that nine percent of all respondents included a comment with the opinion the U.T.S. workshops should not be mandatory. Seven percent of all the respondents suggested that the courses should be mandatory, and four percent commented that the U.T.S. workshops should be strongly recommended.

Various group comparisons were made, though overall response levels to this question were low. The Science respondent group was the only faculty group where not one individual supported mandatory U.T.S. participation. Past participants were most likely to support strongly recommended attendance at workshops, and potential participants were less in favor of mandatory participation than unlikely participants.

Suggestions to Increase
 Participation

In order to facilitate response on the part of the respondent a list of possible suggestions were presented to respondents with instructions to check those items they believed could increase faculty participation in U.T.S. workshops. The responses to the items are recorded in Table 28. A total of 886 items were selected by 151 of the respondents. The suggestion to increase publicity was most frequently suggested--supported by 41 percent of all respondents. One respondent suggested development of a year-long calendar of events. Similar proportions of the respondents also

TABLE 28

Distribution of Responses to Items Regarding Suggestions to Increase Faculty Participation in U.T.S. Workshops[a]

#[b]	Item (Abridged)	I. Overall Responses		II. Faculty Group Analysis								III. Potential Participation Analysis						IV. Nonparticipation Analysis			
67	Checklist--Suggestions to Increase Participation			Arts		Science		Prof.		Appl. Sc.		Past Part.		Potent. Part.		Unlikely Part.		Past Part.		Non- Part.	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	Increase publicity	88	41.3	12	32	6	27	30	54	40	43	27	49	49	48	10	22	27	49	60	40
	Encouragement from department head	86	40.4	16	29	7	32	23	41	40	43	33	60	40	39	11	24	33	60	52	35
	Tailor courses to individual faculty needs	78	36.6	12	32	6	27	25	45	35	37	21	38	45	44	11	24	21	38	56	38
	Encouragement from Dean/Director	63	29.6	11	29	3	14	23	41	26	28	27	49	28	27	6	13	27	49	35	23
	Provision for independent study	57	26.8	5	13	4	18	15	27	33	35	18	33	28	27	8	18	18	33	36	24
	Publicize leader's names	55	25.8	8	21	2	9	22	39	23	24	16	29	32	31	6	13	16	29	38	26
	Reward participation through promotion	51	23.9	11	29	6	27	16	29	18	19	15	27	26	25	9	20	15	27	35	23
	Encouragement from colleagues	50	23.5	11	29	1	5	14	25	24	26	19	35	25	25	5	11	19	35	30	20
	Reinstate merit pay	46	21.6	7	18	5	23	13	23	21	22	14	25	24	24	7	16	14	25	31	21
	Formal evaluation of instruction	43	20.2	5	13	3	14	14	25	21	22	18	33	22	22	2	4	18	33	24	16
	Experts instead of colleages	43	20.2	4	11	1	5	12	21	26	28	15	27	21	21	5	11	15	27	26	17
	Improve U.T.S. offerings	34	16.0	6	16	2	9	9	16	17	18	16	29	15	15	2	4	16	29	17	11
	More advanced-level courses	34	16.0	1	3	0	0	13	23	20	21	24	44	9	9	0	0	24	44	9	6
	Improve content of courses	29	13.6	3	8	2	9	8	14	16	17	13	24	11	11	3	7	13	24	14	9
	Encouragement from central administration	27	12.7	1	3	3	14	10	18	13	14	11	20	13	13	2	4	11	20	15	10
	Establish full-time office of consultants	26	12.2	1	3	2	9	8	14	15	16	8	15	16	16	1	2	8	15	17	11
	Administer through central administration	23	10.8	4	11	3	14	6	11	10	11	6	11	12	12	3	7	6	11	15	10
	Increase use of lectures	21	9.9	4	11	1	5	5	9	11	12	9	16	10	10	2	4	9	16	12	8
	Change course scheduling	13	6.1	0	0	2	4	2	4	9	10	5	9	7	7	0	0	5	9	7	5
	Include new topics	9	4.2	0	0	0	0	5	9	4	4	7	13	2	2	0	0	7	13	2	1
	Decrease course length	7	3.3	1	3	0	0	0	0	6	6	3	5	4	4	0	0	3	5	2	1
	Change course format	3	1.4	1	3	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	2	1
Total		886																			

[a] All data are presented--no statistical comparison procedures were performed.

[b] Item number on questionnaire.

suggested that encouragement to participate from department heads and tailoring of courses to fit specific faculty needs would improve faculty U.T.S. involvement. The next most popular suggestions were encouragement to participate from the dean or director (selected by 30 percent of respondents) and the provision of materials to permit individual independent study (27 percent). Publicizing the workshop leaders' names, rewarding participation through promotion decisions, and encouragement to participate from colleagues were each supported by approximately one-quarter of all the respondents. About one-fifth of the respondents favor the reinstatement of merit pay, formal evaluation of instruction, and the use of experts instead of colleagues as U.T.S. group leaders. Various suggestions to improve the quality of U.T.S. courses and to provide more advanced-level courses were each supported by 16 percent of the respondents. Various other suggestions to alter aspects of the U.T.S. structure were received with progressively less support, as illustrated in Table 28. Suggestions for new topics included: "how to run a seminar," "graduate teaching," "evaluation of clinical skills" and "computer-assisted education," to name a few. Suggestions for improved course scheduling were varied, and ranged from the fall (when "energy" and "motivation" levels are high), to evenings, to spring-summer, to weekends and even lunch hours. More time selections and "scattered during the year" were two other suggestions.

Comparison of faculty group responses to the checklist of suggestions shows that respondents from Arts gave the lowest support (of all faculty groups) for suggestions to provide materials for independent study, to require formal evaluation of instruction, to

provide encouragement from the central administration and to

establish a full-time office of educational consultants. Respondents

from Science gave the lowest proportion of support for suggestions

to encourage participation through colleagues, to publicize leaders'

names, to have Deans and directors provide encouragement, to use

experts instead of colleagues, to increase publicity, to tailor

courses to individual faculty needs, to improve U.T.S. courses and to

provide advanced courses. Science respondents appeared to offer

fewer suggestions for administrative changes within the University

Teaching Service. The respondents from the Professions displayed the

highest proportion of support for suggestions to increase publicity,

to tailor courses to individual faculty needs, to gain Deans' and

directors' encouragement, to institute formal evaluation of

instruction, to offer more advanced-level courses and to include

new topics. Thirty-nine percent of the respondents from the

Professions suggested that publicizing workshop leaders' names would

encourage faculty participation. Respondents from the Applied

Sciences were the least in favor of rewarding U.T.S. participation,

but they were the strongest supporters of other suggestions to

provide materials for independent study, to use experts as group

leaders, to establish a full-time office of educational consultants

and to increase the use of lectures--as well as to have department

heads encourage participation. The Applied Science respondents

appeared to offer the most suggestions for structural changes in

the U.T.S. programs.

Comparison of the responses given by past, potential and

unlikely participants suggests that for most of the suggestions, the

least proportion of support was given by unlikely participants, and the most was given by past participants. Only for several suggestions did potential participants give the highest percentage of support--for example, for the suggestions to tailor courses to individual faculty needs, to publicize workshop leaders' names, to establish a full-time office of educational consultants and to administer the U.T.S. through the central administration.

Similarly, past participants supported all the suggestions more positively than did nonparticipants. In many cases, a far smaller proportion of nonparticipants favored each suggestions than did past participants (as indicated in Column IV of Table 28).

In addition to the checklist of possible suggestions, respondents were also invited to comment or give suggestions which might help increase faculty member participation in U.T.S. workshops. Some 32 written-in comments were received--ranging from suggestions that schedules and work loads would have to be changed, to comments that faculty should be encouraged and rewarded to acquire a minimum requirement of acceptable teaching skills. Several respondents noted that the checklist of suggestions appeared to consist mainly of "technical/administrative considerations" and that the individual's own motivations and "desire for improvement must stem from within." Two respondents felt that some system of credits or recognition would be helpful. For example:

> On satisfactory completion of a course, a certificate of recognition should be awarded. I have not received any such documents for either of any previous U.T.S. courses. However, I did receive a certificate for the course on "Systematic Course Design" from Harvard Medical School.

Another Medical professor commented that "Medical School teaching is

quite different from Fort Garry" both in undergraduate and graduate

teaching, and that the "focus of U.T.S. is more applicable to

'traditional teaching.'"

A number of suggestions were aimed at the U.T.S. administra-

tors. For example:

> Those in charge of U.T.S. workshops would have to prove to the
> faculty that they have a really worthwhile product to sell.
> Could plan visits and demonstrations in Departments, or say,
> produce a half-hour movie/video tape.

> Take the course into units. If they won't come to you--then go
> to them.

> Get departmental chairman to invite U.T.S. people to present at
> departmental meetings--show a video tape or film or something.
> You wouldn't believe how remote we are from each other.

> I am not sure you should count success by numbers. Why not focus
> on improving the service, making it accessible, and allow the
> numbers to be viewed in perspective. Most of the above have
> nothing to do with quality.

Finally, several respondents explained that the current

priorities and values of the university scene are very important

influences on U.T.S. involvement:

> If high quality teaching is recognized and rewarded by peers,
> professors will automatically and voluntarily become involved in
> activities that will help to improve their instructional skills.
> Personal satisfaction and student gain in achievement should be
> the main motivational forces.

> Why improve something that most people see as having little or
> no effect on their professional careers? I believe that the
> general effect on campus is that teaching gets lip service and
> research gets promotions. You are, in effect, teaching deep sea
> diving on the prairies. Nice, but does anyone really care?

> This institution is so incredibly corrupt and bureaucracy-ridden
> that any reference to it as an institution of higher learning is
> comical. Teaching doesn't count, research doesn't count, but
> sucking up to the right people counts.

In general, more than half the suggestions dealt with concrete

situational changes to facilitate participation.

Respondents' Comments

On the final page of the survey, all respondents were invited to comment or react to any part of the survey, and particularly to the issues of improving the quality of instruction and mandating U.T.S. workshops attendance. The equivalent of over 16 pages of typewritten data was received, clearly indicating great interest on the part of the respondents. The 70 comments received ranged from simple phrases to detailed two-page typed manuscripts.

One theme which recurred was that of the disheartened or discouraged respondent who perhaps felt that teaching under present circumstances was somehow unrewarding:

> As you can see from my response, I am somewhat disheartened by what I consider to be a lack of interest in and encouragement of teaching excellence, on the part of the U. of M. Central administration and the administration of some faculties. My feeling is that lip service is paid to promoting teaching excellence (a couple of teaching awards each year and mention of it in the Collective Agreement) but that in terms of promotion, tenure and stature within the University, virtually no effort is made to evaluate it and virtually no weight is given to it.

> In my department I would estimate 3/4 of the staff to be so completely incompetent as to make me ashamed to be associated with it.

> Generally speaking, "Downtown Campus" teachers - even "full-timers" - have no idea what is going on in this field, or any other. We are preoccupied with trying to combine heavy service (to the public) loads, teaching and research - not only in the city, but throughout the province. There are no teaching or other "breaks" - no hours during the day that are "free".

> Without knowing more details about what goes on in these workshops - no one is going to make a time committment, at least not at some time in the distant future (2-3 months).

> One of the problems in the university is that people have accepted the notion that the University is not world class and that we have to expect the students, professors, facilities, etc. to be mediocre. By and large that has fulfilled the prophecy, and unfortunately the University has become mediocre. Standards of teaching (like anything else) simply reflect the overall

standard here.

The first part has basically struck a string in my heart. I feel that teaching is . . . increasingly becoming more mediocre to the point of uselessness. The establishment of the Prof's Union has also strongly increased the mediocrity. Simply, there is no incentive to teach better because it is not rewarded in any form. So the consensus among some 60-80% of profs is to teach a certain minimum necessary to prevent students from mass complaint but nothing more. There are, of course, bright exceptions of profs-philanthrops and hardworking horses mostly of the old school.

Teaching is an unrewarding activity in the faculty of medicine save for personal satisfaction - it is time to give it equal worth to research in promotion, etc. Although difficult to quantitate excellence, the role of our faculty will be lost in a system of values false to the students of the 1980's if recognition is not received. Attempts to upgrade one's talents will then be more popular should personal achievement be enhanced!

In addition, many respondents offered suggestions about how the current situation at the University of Manitoba would have to change in order to help bring about an improvement in instruction:

In general, teaching effectiveness will not be increased by workshops no matter how many there are or how well advertised or good they are. They would only be useful in the context of a system that recognizes, encourages, provides resources for, monitors and rewards teaching. The University of Manitoba has no such system.

The impetus for teaching improvement must come from within the university and professional pride.

The University does little more than pay lip service to the importance of teaching. The old P or P syndrome is (to our discredit) too firmly entrenched. Any prof who feels that his teaching cannot or need not be improved is an arrogant ass.

The accent on research and publication is not synonymous with teaching effectiveness. University policy in hiring, promotion, tenure, etc. must reflect the at least equal value of both - in that the two roles require different people with different priorities. Good research is laudable - Effective teaching is . . . .

Give respect and recognition in Dept. and Faculty and University policies to those who do a good job of teaching. Departments, which have overemphasized research publications affect (a) morale of those who do an excellent job of teaching, but do not "publish" and (b) the incentive to be good teachers in those who do

"publish". Those who <u>teach</u> (primarily), as well as those who do <u>research</u>, and those who do consulting, community service, etc. <u>all</u> contribute to the overall excellence of the University. It is a pity that this University has many teachers of over 25 years standing, who have given their best to teaching, working very long hours and have been penalized by Departments changing character by acquiring a research component.

Greater emphasis on teaching quality requirements by <u>administration</u> <u>at all levels</u>; from President on down.

Teaching workshops will help some. We have all been exposed to many teachers and are well aware of which are good and which are bad. By observation, one simply has to adopt the good features and reject the bad features for one's own teaching. On evaluating my colleagues it is apparent that the best teachers are normally those who are keeping up to date in their fields, who are aware of developments and new theories, and who are active in research. It would appear then that the most effective way to improve teaching would be to encourage these activities, and improve the overall scholarship of the professors. Can a teaching workshop do this?

Many faculty members would pay more attention to their teaching skills if the U. of M. did not put so much stress on Research in teaching to make teaching workshops mandatory. A person known to have difficulty with his/her teaching might politely be encouraged to participate in such workshops by his/her Head. Most teachers do quite well without formal courses in education or teaching. Effective teaching is not so much an acquired skill as an inborn gift.

Recognition of good teaching will encourage those who want to be good teachers.

If teaching is to be improved, it must be seen as being important to the institution and those who inhabit the institution. I detect a strong belief that the way to the top is "adequate" teaching and lots of research. Maybe the way to "sell" U.T.S. workshops is to work on the Univ. Admin. and U.M.F.A. to make a real committment to teaching rather than their periodic announce-ment of "concern".

Maybe if there was adequate budget for teaching supplies and equipment (we get most of our teaching equipment by borrowing it from research projects) people would believe. Without belief in the importance of teaching, your workshops will be poorly attended.

A few individuals objected to the idea that it was possible that teaching could be taught, and claimed, for example, that teachers are born not made:

Leopards do not change their spots; i.e., people teach <u>the way</u> <u>they teach</u> without much influence by outsiders. Just a little adjustment is possible. Self interest is primary factor. External kicks and prods never did work and never will. So those aspects are probably useless. Self-interest, however, can be built upon maybe through U.T.S.

There is very little of value to teach about teaching.

In general, teachers like actors are born not made. Department chairmen should identify and select and encourage their genuine teachers, pay them and promote them for their teaching ability and leave them alone. Let the tongue-tied, the inarticulate and the disorganized do the research, the committee work and the administration. Good teachers are like rare jewels - I've only known three.

While the programmes such as the U.T.S. may prove beneficial to some staff members, I don't feel that teaching and associated activities as they pertain to Universities can be taught. At the UG level, with large sections, the most important factor in teaching is the ability to exude confidence while at the same time being sympathetic to the needs of the students. Discipline tends to be a very difficult demand upon an instructor. A sense of humor, eye contact and, most importantly, pacing the course appropriately, are some aspects of teaching that are difficult to impart through a formal course.

Some professors voiced strong opinions about the nature of excellent teaching; several appeared disappointed that popularity is mistakenly equated with quality instruction:

Excellent instruction stems from enthusiasm for and knowledge of subject matter. My feeling about teaching workshops is that they will tend to foster a slick, attention-grabbing presentation rather than a solid presentation of substance. There are enough snake-oil hucksters in society already - the U. should concentrate on improving the excellence of course material rather than simply polishing the presentation. Improving the packaging at the expense of the content is counterproductive. If I want hype, I can tune in K-Tel ads or catch Don Percy's smile (God forbid) on some other commercial. We don't need that. I'll elect to spend my self-improvement time updating and re-organizing lectures in the light of new findings, my own research and feedback from students.

Encouragement and better publicity is needed. 1) There is <u>too</u> <u>much</u> emphasis on "POPULARITY" WITH THE STUDENTS. An excellent teacher is often interesting but not always entertaining because of the varied nature of subjects being taught. Clarity, organization, patience are virtues that student evaluations

usually ignore.

Unfortunately, good instruction at this University has become
a close synonym to popularity. A good instructor must like his
students and care about them. Above all, however, he/she should
instill in them the desire to learn rather than to have them
dump what he/she has taught them on examination papers. Memory
dumping takes away the uncertainty from both students and
professors. My interest in workshops include an exchange of views
with other educators as to the philosophy of University Education,
and on how we as educators can create an exciting learning
environment for the students so that they will continue to value
learning as a life-time goal.

In a professional discipline, enthusiasm about one's field of
study can compensate for poor teaching ability. No amount of
teaching expertise can compensate for lack of ability to keep up
with the development in one's field. Just keeping up with
developments is a full time occupation. To actually participate
in generating new knowledge requires at times superhuman effort
and concentration. Most faculty members drop everything and even
neglect their families whilst writing a book. It is no wonder
then, that teaching occupies the back stage. The workshop, I
found, helped to push it on a little front stage, without having
to give up the other activities. I now combine my teaching and
research by taking my students on a journey of discovery – I
don't have to lecture to them anymore.

Other respondents, both past participants and nonparticipants

in the U.T.S. workshops, were eager to present their reflections

(both positive and negative) and assessments:

Pedagogical experts who think other teachers are unaware of their
problems and incapable of dealing with them are quite wrong. As
I said above, if something does not work, the person most aware
of it, is likely to be the instructor. I have yet to see
evidence in the publicity for the workshops that they deal with
anything I do not already know. So much of what these workshops
provide seems obvious.

The workshop in which I participated some years ago offered an
agreeable opportunity to trade experiences with like-minded
colleagues, all of us dissatisfied with our performance. For me,
however, it merely confirmed an existing awareness of my own
strengths and weaknesses as an instructor. Of specific insights
into alternate methods, classroom techniques, nothing usable
emerged. Other instructors who have attempted subsequent
programs have been similarly disappointed.

It is several years since I participated in U.T.S. workshops but
recall them as being very useful and enjoyable and a good way of

providing for interaction in a small group of University staff members from different disciplines.

I strongly support the U.T.S. idea and have recommended them to colleagues prior to tenure decision. They have not appealed to me, in particular, partly because they have always appeared to be directed towards the social science, humanities lecture/seminar format. In my area we tend to do more straight lecture with little or no discussion.

My own experience indicated there were in my "group" 3 kinds of participants: 1) experienced, competent teachers there to improve themselves (the "converted"), 2) reluctant participants sent by dept. head or dean to shape up, 3) relatively "new" teachers and new appointees who came voluntarily or were sent by dept. head to learn. Generally group 1 made things work in these classes, but they learned little. Group 2 didn't seem to benefit very much: possibly due to a lesser committment or perhaps unsuitable conditions, eg: too short a course, discomfort from performance level modelled by group 1, etc. Group 3 seemed to benefit most; they probably could have benefitted more if these experiences were followed by an "apprenticeship" with an experienced, effective teacher.

Other respondents described their perceptions of the short-comings of the U.T.S. programs, and offered various suggestions. For example, several respondents suggested teaching preparation courses for all graduate students and for all prospective university teaching staff.

The most important and difficult type of instruction involves the teaching of graduate students pursuing a higher degree of research. The tailoring of instruction to the individual needs of each student, is one of the challenges of advanced work. As the reputation of this University depends significantly on the quality of the PhD's we produce -- I regard this as the most important educational problem, namely 'getting the best out of our best graduates', U.T.S. does not address this directly.

Agree fully with the concept of teaching instruction for teachers but I think it should be structured to be specifically applicable to the individuals specialty.

The Red River Community College requires its instructors to have a teaching certificate which they can obtain through Summer School courses. Not a bad idea. We might benefit from similar opportunities if appropriate courses (meaty ones) were offered to faculties on campus with some reward system attached as incentive.

Is it feasible to offer an intensive (2-3 week) course (in addition to the regular workshops) specifically designed for new professors which would deal with major aspects of teaching and communication (design, organization, presentation methods, etc.)? I believe most department heads would strongly encourage new staff to attend such a course if it provided effective teaching techniques. I would certainly be interested in attending.

However, it may be necessary for the U.T.S. programmes to address other concerns and problems other than the communication of information to University students since we are bound to advise students how to inform themselves. Skilled teachers may provide too ready a short-cut to information and too fully digested or pre-digested material for students who are disinclined for investigative study and research. I feel that the two courses on teaching which were of considerable informational value to me did not address the problem of drawing the line between what I can do for my students versus what they should do for themselves.

While there are obvious common methods of communication for all disciplines and models can be developed for seminars, formal lectures, etc. which could form a basic part of the programme, it would appear that to teach students patient communication in medicine is rather different than teaching some skills to students in Mediaeval History. I think a basic course could be run at Ft. Garry for all disciplines (although time-consuming for those who work downtown) and separate courses in more clinically orientated teaching in medicine at the Medical College. In any event workshops must get people far below the rank of new professors - indeed starting them when they join the faculty.

A few respondents displayed interest in learning about how to teach seminars and large classes, and "how to handle discipline problems in the classroom."

Over a dozen respondents voiced approval and support of the U.T.S. workshops, many of whom were in favor of highly recommending courses to new or inexperienced faculty and several of whom favored mandatory attendance:

No one is born as "expert teacher"! All new faculty should be required to be exposed to a basic introductory "course" in teaching methods. Existing faculty should be encouraged to attend same.

Even concerned teachers can fall into "ruts" with respect to their teaching effort. U.T.S. workshops can be very useful as "refresher" events.

Not a bad idea for everyone on a regular basis (eg. every 5-6 years) as well as new faculty. Should be given as part of professional duties, not over and above present professional duties.

I am sure that teaching workshops help to improve the quality of instruction, but it is a question of degree - and a question of personal abilities and skills. There is no substitute for mastery of subject matter and there is need for continuing research on the (?) job of the (?) teacher in his own discipline. But methods of communication have changed drastically in the last few years as have student's backgrounds. There seems to be a need now particularly in the understanding of new media and in the methods of presentation - this is where workshops, in my view, would be most helpful. But the individual has to learn from his own experience and realize both his limitations and his (?).

Respondents appeared to acknowledge the difficulties involved in trying to improve teaching in terms of encouraging faculty participation at teaching improvement workshops.

You do not improve performance by insisting people take a program. They must desire within themselves to improve and the environment should support what they desire.

The problem is not a simple one. Eg: if the positive rewards for number of publications and value of research grants is less teaching and a promotion then these negative rewards to others is a greater teaching load and no promotion.

Perhaps recognition of preparation time to teach effectively - reduction of some other time consuming endeavors which so many people seem involved in - reports etc. to administration.

One professor set forth a proposed system which would encourage professors to voluntarily seek nonthreatening observation and feedback on their instruction from U.T.S. expert evaluators, in return for an elaborate inducement scheme which would match U.T.S. involvement hours with course reduction hours. This professor appeared to be very interested in the issues explored in this research, and concluded his comments with this statement:

I would hope that other faculty spend some time to address this thesis topic in a serious and constructive manner. Teaching is the core of being a professor. Good teaching is the core of a

viable university. While research helps sustain the university
and aids in educating, research contractors can always find
consulting firms and private laboratories to undertake their
contracts. Attracting, training and keeping good students is
what helps keep the university as a competitive research vehicle
for contractors. I would argue that effective programs directed
at improving the quality of teaching, will be in the best
interests of higher education both in the short and the long run.

The statement provided by one Arts professor serves as a summary of

many of her/his peers' comments:

Since knowledge of his subject and teaching or communicating
ability are the two practical requirements of university
professors who are not solely research-specialists, it seems to me
imperative that the University takes the trouble to equip its
faculty for the work of the University in respect of teaching.
Although it is not desirable for teaching-training to be
mandatory, professors should recognize that new developments in
teaching aids, techniques, and even teaching-philosophies require
that they keep abreast of those developments and reflect them in
their teaching-programmes. Moreover, it is reasonable for the
Deans of Faculties to have evidence that faculty are up-dating
their teaching methods and not merely lengthening their teaching
experience as if the time spent at teaching the same courses
repeatedly could suffice. Faculty should know that evidence of
teaching-education through the U.T.S. workshops would be regarded
as evidence of professional commitment to the quality of
university education during reviews of academic competence in
promotions as well as tenure decisions, provided that this
criterion is not applied suddenly but after several years of
prior advice to faculty.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary and Discussion

In order to investigate faculty nonparticipation in university

instructional development programs, a random sample of representative

faculty members at the University of Manitoba was surveyed. Several

themes thought to be related to nonparticipation were explored. The

results of the study are organized and presented on the basis of six

research questions. This chapter presents a demographic sketch of

the respondents, highlights differences between faculty members from

major discipline groupings (Arts, Science, Professions, Applied

Sciences) and identifies characteristics of respondents who were

past, potential and unlikely participants in University Teaching

Service (U.T.S.) workshops. The reasons given by nonparticipants for

their nonparticipation are reviewed briefly and followed by a

discussion of personal and situational factors which appear to be

associated with faculty nonparticipation in the U.T.S. workshops.

Alterable variables are summarized, and various approaches which may

influence faculty participation are suggested. Speculations about

nonparticipation and recommendations for further research conclude

the report.

Questionnaires were mailed to a proportional randomly-

selected sample of 400 individuals, representing the full-time

academic faculty members of the University of Manitoba. Two hundred

150

and thirteen usable surveys were returned, constituting a 53 percent rate of return and a sample of 16 percent of the total population. Most of the respondents were over 40 years old at the time of the survey; 43 percent were between 40 and 49 years of age. The great majority of the respondents were male, had tenure, and were employed on a full-time basis either as full or associate professors. Over half the respondents had more than 10 years of experience teaching at the University of Manitoba, and over 80 percent held a doctoral degree. The four major faculty groups were represented as follows: 44 percent of the respondents were from the Applied Sciences, 26 percent from the Professions, and 18 and 10 percent of the respondents were from the Faculties of Arts and Science, respectively. In terms of age, sex, academic rank and faculty group, the respondents closely approximated the total population.

The data indicated that the respondents from Arts, Science, the Professions, and the Applied Sciences had consistently different views towards the issues explored. For example, the respondents from the Professions and the Applied Sciences expressed higher overall need for improvement in their teaching abilities and much more positive attitudes towards teaching improvement and the University Teaching Service than did the respondents from the Faculties of Arts and Science. The data suggested that the Science respondents felt the least need for improvement and had the least favorable attitudes both towards teaching improvement and the U.T.S. workshops. These general patterns of faculty group differences were also consistent with data regarding proportions of time spent on teaching and research and

perceptions of promotion criteria and with the reported participation in the U.T.S.

One-quarter of the respondents reported attending at least one University Teaching Service workshop since 1971. Of the remaining respondents who identified themselves as nonparticipants, approximately two-thirds indicated possible interest or intention of future U.T.S. participation (these were categorized as potential participants), and one-third indicated that they had no intention of future U.T.S. participation (these were categorized as unlikely participants). Grouping of the respondents into three groups of past participants, potential participants and unlikely participants provided data for interesting contrasts. For example, the majority of the unlikely participants were full professors while within the group of potential participants, the largest proportion were associate professors. Again, the evidence indicated that each of the groups had distinctly different views on most of the nonparticipation themes. On almost all of the measures investigated, the past participants held the most positive views or attitudes (for example, the highest perceived need for improvement or priority assigned to teaching). The unlikely participants held the least favorable views (for example, in terms of attitudes towards U.T.S.). The potential participants consistently voiced opinions which as a group fell between those opinions of the past and the unlikely participants, with very few exceptions. For example, potential participants appeared most likely to remark on inconvenient U.T.S. scheduling or on insufficient information about the U.T.S. It is interesting to note that the past participants were the most likely

to comment on perceived blocks and barriers to participation while the unlikely participants were the least likely to comment on such external impediments.

Themes or variables thought to be associated with faculty nonparticipation in U.T.S. teaching workshops were explored using direct survey questions and by inferring from attitude items and comments.

Respondents who reported that they had no personal experience with the U.T.S. workshops were asked their reasons for nonpartici- pation. The nonparticipants offered a variety of reasons ranging from a simple lack of time (cited by over half the nonparticipants), to remarks that the Fort Garry Campus location was inconvenient for Health Sciences Campus faculty members. One-quarter of the nonparticipants claimed that they had never considered U.T.S. participation. The next most common reasons for nonparticipation were a mixture of personal and situational influences. These reasons (receiving 10 to 20 percent of the nonparticipants' support each) included: inconveniently scheduled workshops, personal preferences for other means of improvement, absence of perceived need for improvement in teaching skills, insufficient rewards for such improvement, lack of personal priority placed on teaching and the reputation of the U.T.S. workshops. All the other suggested reasons for nonparticipation received less than 10 percent of the non- participants' support. Apparently nine and eight percent of the nonparticipants respectively did not participate because they did not believe that teaching can be taught in a workshop, or that

pedagogical experts have something worthwhile to offer. Other reasons voiced less frequently could be considered to be situational factors: lack of awareness of the U.T.S. programs, the quality or content of the workshops, schedule conflicts, and the length and location of the workshops.

The personal attitudes towards teaching improvement and general views held by the respondents appeared to be strongly related to U.T.S. participation. The data suggested that nonparticipant respondents were significantly less positive than past participant respondents in their attitudes towards teaching improvement and in their confidence in the efficacy and possible benefits of teaching improvement program (T.I.P.) participation. Nonparticipants were also much more likely than past participants to agree that actual teaching experience is the best preparation for teaching and that further specialized subject study is the best strategy for teaching improvement. The evidence also indicated that more nonparticipant respondents than past participant respondents believed that attendance at a teaching workshop may suggest that one's teaching ability is inadequate. These findings appear to be in agreement with Gaff's (1978) conclusion that faculty pessimism regarding T.I.P. efficacy is related to faculty beliefs that teaching cannot be taught and that subject specialization is the best qualification for teaching. The survey data suggested that nonparticipant respondents appear to prefer independent self-directed or discipline-based instructional improvement activities to structured inter-disciplinary group activities. Again, it appears that respondents who lack value for and confidence in teaching improvement programs and who are

concerned that teaching in front of their peers may reveal

inadequacies may be unlikely to demonstrate interest in such group

participation. This finding is in accordance with the conclusions

of many authors in the field (Bess, 1978, Buhl, 1979, Case, 1979,

Cross, 1977, Gaff, 1979). Apparently the academic beliefs that

teaching is a private, discipline-oriented activity (which is hard

to define and difficult deliberately to prepare for) are present and

influential. Eble (1972, p. 66) noted that: "many teachers think

of teaching as a personal, often idiosyncratic, art."

Another important personal factor which appeared to be

strongly associated with nonparticipation was the relative personal

priority assigned to teaching by the professor. Just as with personal

attitudes towards teaching, the personal priority is presumably

influenced by colleagues within the discipline. The survey findings

suggested that nonparticipant respondents assigned much lower

personal priority to teaching than did past U.T.S. participant

respondents. Nonparticipant respondents (in comparison to past

participants) appeared to enjoy teaching less, spend less time on

teaching, feel their colleagues are less committed to teaching, and

have other more urgent priorities (such as research). Perhaps

because their priorities apparently lie elsewhere, the nonparticipant

respondents displayed little concern or interest in teaching

improvement schemes. Faculty members are confronted with many

demands on their limited time; given the apparent acceptance of the

research model of excellence (Herschfield, 1980), it is not

surprising that concern about teaching often does not head the list

of priorities. Again, the survey findings appear to agree with many

speculations found in the literature--that the academic tradition

appears to neglect teaching (Gaff, 1979) and that strong departmental

pressures may influence career-minded professors to assign less

priority to teaching and more priority to aspects viewed as

"instrumental" to success (Mathis, 1979).

Another personal factor which appeared to be associated with

U.T.S. participation was the professor's perception of her/his need

to improve her/his teaching skills. The difficulty in clearly

delineating between personal and situational factors is once again

evident. For example, the professor's personal perceptions of

teaching adequacy could be influenced by situational factors such as

feedback or pressure from students and peers, and by student ratings

of classes. The survey data suggested that nonparticipant

respondents were much less likely than past participant respondents

to express the need for improvement in teaching abilities.

Apparently, these respondents are not only satisfied with their

teaching abilities, but they appear confident that no improvement is

necessary; it would appear that they have not received pressure or

indications to believe otherwise. In addition, the nonparticipant

respondents declared that they feel confident that they are capable

of handling any instructional improvements that may become necessary.

These findings seem to support the conclusions stated by Cross (1977)

that surveyed professors evidenced a level of self-satisfaction

which mitigated against attempts at self-improvement. Similarly,

several authors (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975; Case, 1979; Centra,

1975; Eraut, 1975; Francis, 1975) have concluded that teachers who

consider themselves to be satisfactory or excellent instructors and

do not perceive any dissatisfaction with the status quo see no

reason to be concerned with improvement.

The attitudes held by the respondents towards the University

Teaching Service workshops also appeared to be related to faculty

participation. The perceptions held by each individual may be

considered to be influenced by a number of situational factors such

as the quality of the available workshops, the reputation the

workshops enjoy, and the departmental or faculty-shared perceptions

and evaluations of the workshops. Although the majority of

respondents had no personal experience with U.T.S. workshops (and

some subsequently declined to offer opinions), approximately 50

percent of all the respondents felt able to express opinions based

upon their general impressions and what they had heard on campus.

Despite a generally positive overall evaluation of the U.T.S.

workshops, nonparticipant respondents expressed significantly less

favorable attitudes than past participants towards the U.T.S.

workshops. Nonparticipant respondents were far less likely than

past participant respondents to agree that U.T.S. workshops appear to

be worthwhile, effective in improving instruction and successful in

meeting the needs and interests of faculty members. It appears that

nonparticipant respondents would desire "hard" evidence that U.T.S.

programs are effective and worthwhile, in order to weigh the

relative costs and to be convinced of the benefits of attendance.

The findings suggest that for many respondents, the subjective cost

of participation outweighs the perceived benefits; the result is

nonparticipation. These findings seem to agree with those

conclusions reached by many authors (Case, 1979; Cross, 1977; Gaff, 1979; Hoffman, 1981; Jolling, 1981) which hold that the perceived quality and efficacy of the teaching improvement programs will influence participation level. Gage (1972) also suggested that skeptics would require evidence of program impact and benefit. A program's reputation spreads rapidly via word of mouth, especially within departments and faculties (Foster and Nelson, 1979). The requests made by respondents for more advanced, sophisticated courses with well-documented content echoed the suggestions made by Bergquist (1975).

Situational factors such as the faculty level of awareness of the University Teaching Service programs appeared to have less (although still significant) association with nonparticipation. It is worth noting that 12 percent of all respondents claimed to have had no source of information about the U.T.S. Apparently most of the respondents were informed through the annual U.T.S. brochure; few respondents learned about U.T.S. through colleagues or department heads. Again, the data indicated that nonparticipant respondents were significantly less likely than past participant respondents to feel they have sufficient information about U.T.S. upon which to base participation decisions. Respondents who had participated in the U.T.S. workshops considered themselves to be much more knowledgable than nonparticipants about the University Teaching Service. Comments from survey respondents suggested that the visibility level of the University Teaching Service at the University of Manitoba may be fairly low, indicating perhaps that the U.T.S. relies too heavily on

what McMillan (1975) termed the low key, "let them come to us" approach.

The perceived convenience of the U.T.S. workshops in terms of scheduling and registration was one of the final situational considerations. The data suggested that nonparticipant respondents saw themselves as being potentially inconvenienced to a greater extent than past participant respondents by course scheduling and registration procedures.

Exploration into the theme regarding perceived university support and rewards for good teaching revealed that although many respondents voiced definite concerns, the overall reactions of the past participants were as diverse as those of the nonparticipants. Therefore, no discernable pattern emerged which helped distinguish between past and nonparticipants. Respondents in general appeared to feel that good teaching was not particularly rewarded within the university system, although some support was evident for the view that the university appears committed to improving the quality of instruction. Respondents agreed that personal satisfaction is the most influential reward or motivator. In all faculty groups, research was considered to be the most important priority in promotion decisions. Half the respondents observed that professors would probably try to improve their teaching if they felt it would be rewarded. The data suggested that academic values and priorities are deeply ingrained, and that simple policy statements which stress the importance of teaching would probably not substantially influence promotion practices. This finding agrees with the ideas expressed

by Gaff (1975) and by Bergquist (1979) that despite excellent

intentions of university administrators, institutional practices may

be resistant to change. The strong emphasis on university rewards

and incentives found in the literature (Buhl, 1979; Mauksch, 1980)

does not appear to be reflected in the survey comparison between past

and nonparticipants. The data suggested that both past and

nonparticipant respondents were relatively uninfluenced by the

perceived lack of incentives; the past participant respondents

claimed to have been attracted out of personal interest. It appears

that the potential participant respondents, however, might be

encouraged to participate in U.T.S. workshops if incentives were

offered.

The final theme for nonparticipation which was explored was

the possibility that faculty members were being blocked or prevented

from participating by institutional or situational barriers. The

data indicated that past participants reported a significantly

greater number of blocks than did nonparticipants. These findings

suggest that the reported existence of discouraging factors did not

block U.T.S. participation. The impediments mentioned by past

participant respondents included situational concerns such as

schedule conflicts and course quality. When past participant and

unlikely participant respondents described the circumstances under

which they would consider U.T.S. participation, the differences in

emphases between groups became more evident. Again, past

participants responded with largely situational concerns, while the

nonparticipant respondents suggested that they would consider U.T.S.

participation if their personal priorities and commitments were altered, or if they were convinced that U.T.S. workshops were effective and worthwhile.

The fifth research question of the study involved the identification of those factors or variables related to faculty nonparticipation in U.T.S. workshops which appear to be alterable. The data suggested that the most important aspects associated with nonparticipation are the faculty member's views about teaching and teaching improvement and the relative personal priority assigned to teaching. Slightly less important factors may include the faculty member's perceived need for improvement in teaching abilities and her/his attitudes towards the local teaching improvement programs (T.I.P.'s). The overall survey data and written comments suggested that the perceived university support and rewards for good teaching were also important factors. Faculty awareness of the available T.I.P.'s and the perceived convenience of the T.I.P.'s were judged to be of less importance to participation and the perceived existence of blocks or barriers to participation was not found to be associated with faculty nonparticipation.

It is worthwhile to notice that the variables which appear to be most readily altered by direct administrative action are those which appear to be the least important to participation. Conversely, the factors which appear most strongly associated with nonparticipation are those personal factors which may not be easily or directly altered. This might imply that, in order to influence U.T.S. participation, emphasis should not be placed solely on situational

changes (such as course scheduling) but that consideration should
also be given to those complex personal factors which may have a real
impact on participation.

Implications

Increasing Faculty Involvement

> If college teaching is to be improved, diverse forces
> must change both attitudes and practices (Eble, 1972,
> p. 1979).

The survey findings (both responses to questions and
additional comments) suggest various approaches to help increase the
likelihood of faculty participation in teaching improvement programs.
The suggestions range from indirect approaches to more direct
recommendations. Indirect approaches might include attempts to
change personal perceptions, attitudes and beliefs, and attempts to
influence the perceived value, priority, or importance of teaching
within the university. More direct recommendations could deal with
all those situational changes which might encourage or facilitate
participation.

Changes in the personal beliefs and attitudes held by many
faculty members would appear to be necessary before they perceive
teaching improvement programs as worthy of their consideration.
Eble (1972) suggested that it was necessary to dispel, by means of
building up opposing forces, the myths and stereotypes which
adversely affect teaching. The survey data suggest that documented
evidence demonstrating that teaching skills can be effectively
taught and can result in increased student achievement might help

convince skeptical faculty members. The impressions held by some

faculty that "good instruction . . . has become a close synonym for

popularity" and that T.I.P.'s promote "slick, attention-grabbing

presentation" should be counteracted in a convincing manner. Several

respondents expressed opinions revealing their concerns over the

potential benefits and the efficacy of the workshops:

> I would have to be convinced that workshops could tell me
> something I do not already know.

> I would have to see an improvement in the teaching effectiveness
> of someone who attended.

Another aspect of professional personal beliefs which might

influence T.I.P. participation is the perception they have of the

adequacy of their teaching skills. For example, if professors could

be encouraged to appraise their own teaching effectiveness, they

might become motivated not only to correct deficiencies, but also to

further instructional development activities. Various types of

feedback (student, peer) could be utilized to facilitate such self-

appraisal. Several respondents commented that they would probably

not consider T.I.P. workshops unless they felt "more dissatisfied

with (their) teaching skills" or they received "unfavorable assess-

ment of (their) teaching by students."

One large hurdle to overcome before major changes in

attitudes towards teaching and teaching improvement can occur is the

difficult issue of definition and evaluation of effective teaching.

Unfortunately, resolution of these controversies is hampered by the

relatively underdeveloped state of the research literature, in

terms both of the identification of satisfactory criteria, and

appropriate measures to evaluate effective instruction (Centra, 1976; Miller, 1980; Roe, 1978). The adoption of procedures and instruments to evaluate effective instruction, although representing a difficult challenge, appears to be a necessary step before institutional reward systems can properly take teaching into consideration. One respondent lamented that: "virtually no effort is made to evaluate it (teaching) and virtually no weight is given to it." Another respondent suggested that "respect and recognition (be given) in Department, Faculty and University policies to those who do a good job of teaching." In a statement made before the University of Manitoba Senate on April 4th, 1978, then Dean of Students Dr. M. Kinnear commented on the role of the university in raising the stature of teaching through the development of evaluation guidelines:

> Altogether, we must attempt to be less haphazard in two areas especially: in intelligent evaluation, and in judicious regulation, if teaching, in all its varieties, is to be improved, encouraged, rewarded, and appreciated as the central activity it is, and must be, at any university.

The survey responses imply that changes in certain beliefs and values held by professors may indirectly influence participation in teaching improvement programs. Both Cahn (1978) and Eble (1972) suggested that these changes could be prompted in graduate programs, where many values (such as the valuing of research over teaching) are established; and through increased attention to the development and preparation of future instructors.

A major obstacle to increased faculty participation appears to be the perception that teaching is not highly valued within the

university. Therefore, strategies which may help raise the perceived stature, priority or importance of teaching may indirectly encourage faculty consideration of teaching improvement activities. Institutional policies and rewards, and administrative encouragement and support may all have a role in creating a climate which encourages faculty efforts to improve instructional quality.

An interesting report was published in 1977 by a subcommittee of the Senate Planning and Priorities Committee of the University of Manitoba which described survey results concerning apparent university goals, and ideal or appropriate university goals. All respondent groups agreed that research was emphasized over teaching and "generally indicated that much less stress should be given to . . . emphasis on research work rather than teaching" (1977, p. x). The report concluded that (1977, p. xii-xiii):

> It may be possible in some areas to institute internal changes within the university itself. . . .
>
> Certainly the views expressed by several groups that the university is currently more interested in research than teaching, and that greater emphasis should be given to evaluation of staff and programs could be overcome to a considerable degree by measures undertaken by the University personnel themselves.

Over five years later, a different group of respondents (in the present study) appeared to echo similar concerns--that the university appears to value research more than teaching. Respondents commented that they might consider participating in T.I.P.'s if the university would make "teaching a high priority," "if teaching becomes as important as research," or if there was a "change in attitude about the importance of teaching." Another

suggested that university policies could be worded to demonstrate a "shift in responsibility from research to teaching;" while yet another respondent concerned with teaching and research claimed "university policy in hiring, promotion, tenure, etc. must reflect the at least equal value of both."

The survey data suggest that changes in the reward system offer a partial solution to this imbalance. Respondents requested: "an improved reward system," "more incentives for attendance," and that evidence of effective teaching be made "a requirement for promotion/tenure." One respondent noted that "promotion would have to be based in part on teaching rather than entirely on publications as at present."

In the view of several staff, institutional recruiting policies should be reformulated to emphasize the hiring of new faculty who have a genuine desire to teach and who appear to be qualified or prepared to teach. One respondent suggested: "prospective university teachers should receive some instruction in teaching methods before they start teaching at the university." Another suggested the addition of: "an intensive (two to three week) course specifically designed for new professors." Several respondents who wrote: "workshops could be, if not mandatory, at least highly recommended for new professors who are not already qualified teachers."

The academic departments and the department heads provide another approach indirectly to help increase the stature of teaching. Eble (1972, p. 123) suggested that: "teaching . . . has the

maximum chance of being recognized and rewarded within the departmental structure." One respondent suggested that the department heads should "identify and select and encourage their genuine teachers, pay them and promote them for their teaching ability." Several respondents implied that departments should be more flexible with their appointments and rewards and strive for an "academic mix" or balance among staff resources (a mix of academic staff whose strengths support departmental objectives).

Deans, department heads, professional associations and faculty members could encourage and recommend participation, or set examples by participating. The importance of the attitudes held by "significant others" in membership or reference groups should not be underestimated (Cross, 1981).

The visible institutional backing and support of teaching improvement efforts may also influence faculty motivation to be involved in T.I.P.'s. Eble (1972, p. 116) claimed: "The departmental chairman's influence should be supported by the institution's visible efforts to make the most of its investment in the . . . faculty member." The provision of funding and resources may reflect the extent of the university's perceived commitment to teaching improvement. Several respondents offered suggestions which they felt would enable them to participate in T.I.P.'s: "less pressure to do research and obtain grant funding," "less committee work," "a more reasonable allocation of manpower," and the "reduction of pressure from outside agencies."

Many respondents offered suggestions directly related to

the University Teaching Service, which if implemented, might encourage faculty participation. The comments ranged from suggestions to increase publicity, to ensure high quality effective programming, to develop programs specifically suited to individual faculty and school needs, to ideas regarding expanded functions for the U.T.S.

Over 40 percent of all survey respondents suggested that publicity for the teaching workshops should be increased. To accomplish this, respondents suggested the provision of detailed descriptive booklets and year-long calendars of planned events, informative presentations at departmental meetings and emphasis of the "supportive nature of the courses." The "word of mouth" of satisfied participants may be the most powerful testimony possible to convince fellow faculty members of the efficacy and benefits of participating (Cross, 1981). The channelling of information to various disciplinary groups should be considered. The data suggest that a more active approach on the part of the U.T.S. which emphasizes personal benefits and stimulates intellectual curiosity may help increase visibility and awareness of the programs.

Documented evidence of the efficacy of the workshops may help improve the reputation of the program. One respondent recommended that the U.T.S. attempt to "improve the status and elevate the profile of the program." Other respondents emphasized that they would want to be: "convinced that these courses improve teaching." Publicizing the names of the workshop leaders may encourage participation. Several respondents voiced concerns

related to confidence in the instructors. They wanted: "knowledge of who the people are and their criteria of 'good' teaching," "instructors with established reputations," and "highly respectable teachers" who "know more than (themselves) about the area."

The credibility or the reputation of the service could be influenced by the perceived quality of the program offerings. Before past participants or department heads can encourage their colleagues to participate, the U.T.S. should try to ensure that participation is perceived as accomplishing the learners' goals. Respondents suggested that "good," "appropriate," "relevant," "new" topics or even "more intensive and sophisticated" courses be made available. Respondents suggested that the U.T.S. "should focus on improving the service" and providing "effective techniques." Perhaps routine evaluations of participant reactions to the workshops should be collected, and follow-up studies of long-term course impact considered.

In view of the beliefs which respondents appear to hold about teaching improvement, perhaps the U.T.S. should concentrate on working with individual faculties or schools in order to provide what one respondent termed "a more discipline-oriented approach." Thirty-seven percent of the respondents approved of the suggestion to tailor the workshops to the needs of the faculty or school.

Although the focus of this study was the annual workshops offered by the University Teaching Service, respondents offered miscellaneous suggestions regarding other aspects of the U.T.S. Respondents suggested that improved access in terms of a variety of

locations, times and schedule options might facilitate participation. An increased variety of topics and courses was suggested, as was the inclusion of distinguished lecturers. Twenty-seven percent of the respondents remarked that they would be interested in using prepared materials to study independently. Other respondents suggested that "certificates of recognition" would be desirable additions to the program.

As ways of responding to these suggestions, the University Teaching Service could expand its functions in response to perceived or expressed needs and interests of faculty members. For example, a network of committed interested faculty members in different disciplines could serve as "mentors" for inexperienced instructors in their own fields. Observation and evaluation of colleagues' instruction could be made available on request. Documentation on instructional research and pertinent references could be collected in a convenient information bank. An expanded central resource center might also provide faculty members with guidance in the selection and interpretation of course evaluation instruments.

Suggestions for Further Study

The focus of this study was descriptive and the data collected did not permit conclusions about causal relationships. In the future, correlational and causal research designs could attempt to identify determinants of faculty nonparticipation in instructional development programs.

The data collected for this study suggested that personal factors such as the views towards teaching and the relative personal

priority assigned to teaching may be important concepts for further

investigation. For example, the past participant respondents and

unlikely participant respondents appeared to have significantly

different responses to survey items concerned with attitudes (or

views) towards teaching and the relative personal priority assigned

to teaching (Figure 2). Unlikely participants appeared to hold

views of teaching which emphasized the importance of subject material

while past participants appeared to feel that some common

instructional or communication skills could be beneficial. Figure 2

illustrates several views on teaching with respondents' comments.

Cahn (1978, p. ix) emphasized these differences in views on teaching,

stating: "the crisis in college teaching . . . results from a

failure to recognize the crucial principle that intellectual

competence and pedagogic competence are two very different qualities."

Speculations about possible relationships between the priority

assigned to teaching and views of teaching and faculty participation

in T.I.P.'s could be explored and developed more fully.

The literature review, interview data and survey data

suggested many topics worthy of further study. For example, the

literature and the survey respondents' comments suggested that the

academic department and its head are very influential in shaping the

common values and goals of its members and are the local sources of

rewards. Further study could investigate the congruence between

various attitudes held by department heads and their department

members. The role of the "discipline" and the professional bodies

in influencing professional attitudes towards teaching and the
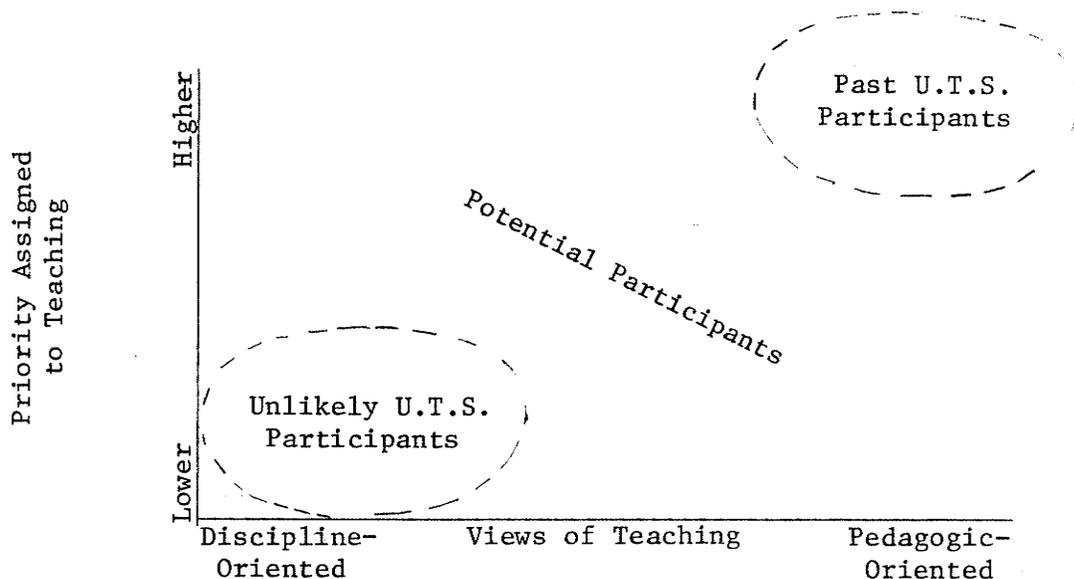
Figure 2. Participation Status of Faculty in Relation to Views
of Teaching and Priority Assigned to Teaching

Examples of Respondent Comments:

discipline-orientation:

"There is very little of value to
teach about teaching."

"In a professional discipline,
enthusiasm about one's field of
study can compensate for poor
teaching ability."

"Excellent instruction stems
from enthusiasm for and
knowledge of subject material."

"I don't feel that teaching and
associated activities as they
pertain to Universities can be
taught."

"Teachers like actors are
born not made."

pedagogic-orientation:

". . . there are common methods
of communication for all disci-
plines."

"Since knowledge of his subject
and teaching or communicating
ability are the two practical
requirements of university
professors."

"Many professors who become
university teachers have had little
or no exposure to instruction in
methods of effective communication/
teaching."

"I am sure that teaching workshops
help to improve the quality of
instruction. . . . There is no
substitute for mastery of subject
matter . . . but methods of
communication have changed
dramatically . . . as have
student's backgrounds. . . .
This is where workshops would be
most helpful."

extent of their involvement in instructional development could be subjected to study. Similarly, a survey of instructional development activities sponsored by the schools or faculties themselves might be revealing. The methods and resources used by professors in self-appraisal of their instructional abilities could demonstrate how and to what extent such self-evaluation occurs. It might be of interest to determine the percentage of professors who use formal student evaluations and whether their use is mandated by their departments or faculties. Further exploration into the perceived discrepancy between official criteria and actual practice with regard to tenure and promotion could help determine, at least officially, how teaching is valued within the reward structure. Regular evaluations of workshops and follow-up research into the effectiveness of the teaching workshops have already been recommended.

Conclusion

This exploration of personal and situational variables which might influence faculty nonparticipation in instructional development programs has touched upon several unresolved issues within the university. The literature and survey data are replete with opinions and explanations regarding the relatively low level of faculty participation, but the supporting research evidence is scanty. Approaches and suggestions to encourage faculty involvement both directly and indirectly are similarly numerous, but the issues involved appear so complex that simple solutions are likely to have minimal impact on participation levels.

The opinion of the survey sample of professors was clear:

> If teaching is to be improved, it must be seen as being important to the institution and those who inhabit the institution.
>
> The impetus for teaching improvement must come from within the University and professional pride.
>
> If high quality teaching is recognized and rewarded by peers, professors will automatically and voluntarily become involved in activities that will help to improve their instructional skills. Personal satisfaction and student gains in achievement should be the main motivational forces.

The respondents appeared to express high commitment to scholarship but less uniformly high interest and concern in the quality of teaching. Cahn (1978) maintained that serious reflection about teaching is a crucial step in achieving excellence in instruction. Eble (1972, p. 129) expressed his concern in 1972: "Teaching needs to be given the same kind of detailed, searching, devoted attention that has been given to scholarship." More recently Becher, in an editorial, concluded (Roe, 1978, p. 8): "There is . . . a long way to go before the majority of academics will come to regard it as a proper part of their job to think as hard about teaching as they do about research."

The quest for personal satisfaction appears to have a strong motivating influence on respondents. These personal aspirations of faculty should be given high consideration in the study of influences on participatory behavior of faculty. As one respondent noted: "the desire for improvement must stem from within." Cross (1981, p. 148) reminded researchers that increased understanding of the forces and influences on adult learners is necessary to permit "planning for a learning society."

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE :

INTERVIEW : April 12, 1982, 09:30-10:30, Board Room, Faculty of Education.

PARTICIPANTS : representative faculty members from: Science, Zoology,
      Engineering, English, Architecture and Psychology, total = 6.

AGENDA :

1. Welcome, introductions, set agenda for hour.

2. Introduction to the research,(background, context.)

3. Question: Who attends the U.T.S. T.I.P.'s, who does not attend ?

4. Question: Why do faculty members not participate in the T.I.P.'s ?

5. Probe: Personal reasons ?

6. Probe: Situational reasons ?

7. Summarize views of interviewees.

8. Ask for suggestions for changes to help increase participation.

9. Summarize major reasons given and ask for confirmation/clarification.

10.Thank interview participants.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS : Please answer all the questions. Feel free to comment or to clarify your responses at any time.

1. Department (or Faculty/School, if no department):_____

2. Age :
   - _____ 20 - 29 years
   - _____ 30 - 39 years
   - _____ 40 - 49 years
   - _____ 50 - 59 years
   - _____ 60 +   years

3. Professorial Rank :
   - _____ Full Professor
   - _____ Associate Professor
   - _____ Assistant Professor
   - _____ Lecturer

4. Sex :
   - _____ Male
   - _____ Female .

5. Type of Appointment :
   - _____ Tenured
   - _____ Probationary
   - _____ Term
   - _____ Sessional

6. Status of Employment :
   - _____ Full-time
   - _____ Part-time

7. How many years have you taught at the University of Manitoba ?
   - _____ 0 - 2 years
   - _____ 3 - 5 years
   - _____ 6 - 10 years
   - _____ 10 +   years

8. How many years, if any, have you taught at other universities ? _____years.

9. Your final Degree:_____ Discipline:_____

10.a) Please indicate, to the nearest 5% - 10%, how much of your time is spent on the following professorial roles (as applicable) throughout the calender year ?

   Research and Publication   _____
   Undergraduate Teaching   _____
   Graduate Teaching   _____
   Graduate Advising   _____
   University Committees and Service   _____
   Professional Associations   _____
   Community Service   _____
   Consulting Work   _____
   Clinical Supervision   _____
   other:_____   _____
   (eg.creative work)

   b) Which aspect of the role was most influential in attracting you to becoming a university professor ? (Please indicate response with (*) on list above)

11. Please indicate the VALUE or PRIORITY which <u>YOU</u> <u>PERSONALLY</u> place on your various roles as a professor (as applicable from list below). Then indicate the value or priority which you feel <u>YOUR</u> <u>DEPARTMENT</u> places on these roles.

Please rate the applicable priorities using the following code:
H = High Priority
M = Medium Priority
L = Low Priority
N/A = Not Applicable

<u>Professorial Roles:</u>	Personal Priorities:				Departmental Priorities:			
	H	M	L	N/A	H	M	L	N/A
Research and Publication . . .								
Undergraduate Teaching. . . .								
Graduate Teaching								
Graduate Advising								
University Committees/Service .								
Professional Associations. . .								
Community Service								
Consulting Work								
Clinical Supervision								
other:_____								

12.a) Which of the following possible rewards associated with professorial work are the strongest influences on <u>YOU</u> <u>PERSONALLY</u> ?
(Please check any applicable)

Possible Professorial Rewards:	Very Strong Influence:	Fairly Strong Influence:	Not an Influence:
Promotion (as it affects pay scale)			
Promotion (" " "academic status)			
Tenure			
Travel Grants			
Reduced Teaching Load			
Research Grants			
Teaching Awards			
National Professional Reputation			
Peer Recognition within the U.ofM.			
Personal Satisfaction			
other:_____			

b) Please place an asterisk (*) next to the <u>most</u> <u>powerful</u> <u>reward</u> of all for you.

13. For decisions about promotion to full professor, in your opinion, how are <u>research</u>, <u>teaching</u>, and <u>service</u> weighted in your department ?
(Please indicate rough percentage out of 100%)

Research = _____ %

Teaching = _____ %

Service = _____ %

INSTRUCTIONS : In this section, your personal opinions regarding various subjects are requested. Please consider _teaching_ as those activities such as classroom or laboratory instruction, student advising and clinical supervision. _Teaching improvement programs_ are those workshops or courses which are specifically designed to help improve instructional effectiveness. One example of such a program is the teaching workshops offered at the University of Manitoba by the University Teaching Service (U.T.S.). Even if you have no personal experience with these specific workshops, please respond to the statements using your experience and general impressions.

The following statements reflect a variety of possible views. Using the code below, please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the most appropriate response.

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
N = Neutral/Undecided/No Opinion
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		SA	A	N	D	SD
14.	Teaching is the central component of the professor's role.	SA	A	N	D	SD
15.	Research and publications are much more important to me professionally than teaching.	SA	A	N	D	SD
16.	Professors in my department are able to recognize their strengths and weaknesses with regard to teaching.	SA	A	N	D	SD
17.	Subject matter expertise is normally a sufficient condition to ensure effective instruction.	SA	A	N	D	SD
18.	In general, the "climate" at the University of Manitoba encourages good quality instruction.	SA	A	N	D	SD
19.	The personal emphasis placed on teaching changes during the professor's career.	SA	A	N	D	SD
20.	I believe my teaching performance compares favorably to that of other faculty members in my department.	SA	A	N	D	SD
21.	Teaching is the most satisfying and enjoyable aspect of my professorial work.	SA	A	N	D	SD
22.	A professor requires different skills in teaching undergraduates than in teaching graduate students.	SA	A	N	D	SD
23.	Undergraduate students are _not_ very good judges of instructional quality.	SA	A	N	D	SD
24.	I sense an increasing pressure on campus to upgrade the general quality of instruction.	SA	A	N	D	SD
25.	Community and/or professional service tends to be my primary responsibility.	SA	A	N	D	SD
26.	It is possible to improve teaching effectiveness by means of a specialized course about teaching.	SA	A	N	D	SD

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral / No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please circle the best response.	SA	A	N	D	SD

27. In those programs which include clinical or field-based education components, professors have more need to acquire instructional skills than is the case in lecture-based programs.   SA A N D SD

28. I believe I have a reputation among my colleagues for being a satisfactory instructor.   SA A N D SD

29. The U. of M. appears committed to improving the quality of instruction.   SA A N D SD

30. In my opinion, preparation to teach university, beyond subject specialization and research, is not necessary.   SA A N D SD

31. Professors in my department appear to be highly committed to teaching.   SA A N D SD

32. I feel the need to improve my instructional abilities.   SA A N D SD

33. University professors best learn how to teach through actual teaching experience.   SA A N D SD

34. There appears to be increasing concern amongst my colleagues about quality of instruction.   SA A N D SD

35. The best strategy to improve a professor's teaching effectiveness is to facilitate further study in his/her specialty area.   SA A N D SD

36. I am satisfied with my teaching effectiveness.   SA A N D SD

37. The University of Manitoba reward structure recognizes good teaching.   SA A N D SD

38. I am capable of handling any improvement that may be necessary in my teaching.   SA A N D SD

39. One of the most potent rewards available to professors is the reduction of the teaching load.   SA A N D SD

40. My undergraduate students appear to be satisfied with my teaching skills.   SA A N D SD

41. Pedagogical training courses tend to promote "the correct" way to teach.   SA A N D SD

42. More faculty members in my department would try to improve their teaching if good teaching were rewarded in the system.   SA A N D SD

43. I do not feel under any pressure to improve my teaching effectiveness.   SA A N D SD

44. It is unrealistic to expect that teaching quality could really be effectively assessed for use in promotion and tenure decisions.   SA A N D SD

45. Attendance at a teaching improvement workshop may suggest that a professor's teaching is in some way inadequate.   SA A N D SD

Please circle the best response.   SA   A   N   D   SD

46. Professors from all areas of specialization can benefit
from common interdisciplinary instructional development
programs offered by pedagogical experts.   SA   A   N   D   SD

47. Even if the U.of M. public_ly supported the increased
relative importance of teaching, it is unrealistic to
expect that actual promotion and tenure decision-making
will change substantially from current practice.   SA   A   N   D   SD

48. Professors may be reluctant to attend teaching workshops
because they do not feel comfortable "performing" in
front of their peers.   SA   A   N   D   SD

INSTRUCTIONS : The next few statements (#49-#58) pertain to
the teaching improvement workshops held annually by the
University Teaching Service (U.T.S.) at the University of
Manitoba. Your personal opinions are requested even if you
have never participated in these specific U.T.S.workshops.
Please use your general impressions to react to the state-
ments.(If you have never had the occasion to hear or learn
anything about the U.T.S. workshops, please omit questions
#49 through #58 and continue with question #59.)

49. The publicity regarding the U.T.S. teaching workshops
appears to be adequate.   SA   A   N   D   SD

50. The University Teaching Service workshops appear
to be worthwhile.   SA   A   N   D   SD

51. Scheduling the U.T.S. teaching workshops in the spring-
time makes them inconvenient for many professors.   SA   A   N   D   SD

52. The U.T.S. teaching workshops appear to meet the faculty
members' needs and interests.   SA   A   N   D   SD

53. I consider myself to be quite knowledgable about the
scope of the courses offered by the University Teaching
Service.   SA   A   N   D   SD

54. The "costs" of participating in the U.T.S. teaching
workshops outweigh the "benefits".   SA   A   N   D   SD

55. I have been exposed to sufficient information regarding
the U.T.S. teaching workshops to make decisions about
whether to participate.   SA   A   N   D   SD

56. The U.T.S. teaching workshops take too much time from
more urgent priorities.   SA   A   N   D   SD

57. The U.T.S. teaching workshops appear to be effective
in improving instructional skills.   SA   A   N   D   SD

58. Registration for the U.T.S. teaching workshops takes
place so far in advance that it is difficult to antici-
pate time committments at the time of the workshops.   SA   A   N   D   SD

INSTRUCTIONS : Please answer the following questions, using a checkmark (✓) to indicate the best response(s) .

59. What is the source of whatever information or knowledge you currently possess about the U.T.S. teaching workshops ? (check any combination)

_____No source
_____Colleagues
_____Department Head
_____Dean/Director
_____Annual Brochure from U.T.S.
_____Media
_____Personal Experience
_____other (please specify):_____

60. From what you have heard in discussion, and from your general impressions, what is the overall "tone" or "feeling" about the U.T.S. teaching workshops ?

_____No discussions or opinions
_____Favorable
_____Ambivalent
_____Unfavorable

61. In your opinion, who should administer the U.T.S. teaching workshops ?

_____Central University Administration
_____Faculty of Education
_____Individual Faculty/School
_____other (please specify):_____

62. Apart from the U.T.S. teaching workshops, have you undertaken any instructional development (eg.teaching skills) activities ?
(For example, inservice workshops within your School/Department, or teaching improvement programs at other universities...)

Please specify which activities and their value.

Activities:	Activity Worthwhile ?	
	No	Yes
-		
-		
-		

63. Have you ever participated in any of the University Teaching Service teaching workshops ?

☐ YES   if "Yes" , PLEASE TURN DIRECTLY TO QUESTION # 65.

☐ NO   if "No" , PLEASE CONTINUE WITH QUESTION # 64.
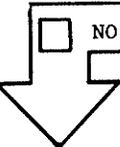
64. INSTRUCTIONS : This question is to be answered by those faculty members who have never participated in any U.T.S. teaching workshops.
    (If you have participated, please go ahead to question #66 on the next page).

   a) Please indicate which of the following statements, if any, correspond to the reasons WHY you did not participate in any of the U.T.S. workshops :
      (please check any combination)

      _____I have never contemplated attending the workshops.

      _____I am not interested in involvement in programs on instruction.

      _____Teaching is not my major priority ; my current priority is:_____

      _____

      _____I am not interested in the available teaching workshops.

      _____I do not believe that teaching is something that can be taught or
             improved in a course or workshop.

      _____I do not feel a need to improve my teaching abilities.

      _____I prefer other means of improving my teaching effectiveness ; for

             example:_____

      _____I have never heard about these particular teaching workshops.

      _____The workshops do not have a particularly good reputation.

      _____If I attend, it may appear as though my teaching is not adequate.

      _____There are insufficient (or no) rewards for attending.

      _____I do not believe that educational experts can help me.

      _____I do not have enough time.

      _____The courses are inconveniently scheduled; they would be more
             convenient if held during:_____

   b) Please explain any other reasons why you have not participated in the
      U.T.S. teaching workshops :

      _____

      _____

      _____

      _____

      _____

   c) Do you have any intentions of participating in any of the U.T.S.workshops
      in the future ?
      _____No
      _____Undecided
      _____Yes

      PLEASE SKIP THE NEXT PAGE (Question #65) AND RESUME WITH QUESTION # 66

65. <u>INSTRUCTIONS</u> : This question is to be answered by those faculty members
who have participated previously in one or more of the U.T.S. teaching
workshops. (If you have never participated, please go ahead to question #66).

a) Please indicate briefly your opinion of each of the workshops you have
taken.   (Check applicable responses)

WORKSHOP OR COURSE	WORKSHOP OR COURSE	WORKSHOP OR COURSE
Subject:_____	Subject:_____	Subject:_____
Year:_____	Year:_____	Year:_____
Overall Rating :	Overall Rating :	Overall Rating :
__Outstanding __Good __Fair __Poor __Unsatisfactory	__Outstanding __Good __Fair __Poor __Unsatisfactory	__Outstanding __Good __Fair __Poor __Unsatisfactory
Was it Worthwhile ?	Was it Worthwhile ?	Was it Worthwhile ?
__No __Yes	__No __Yes	__No __Yes
Would Recommend Course to Others ?	Would Recommend Course to Others ?	Would Recommend Course to Others ?
__No __Yes	__No __Yes	__No __Yes

b) Comments (if desired):_____

_____

_____

_____

c) In general, what was your reason(s) for participating in the workshop(s) ?
(Please check any applicable)

_____Personal interest
_____Concern regarding promotion/tenure decisions
_____Encouragement from administrators
_____Encouragement from colleagues
_____other (please specify):_____

d) Do you have any intentions of participating in further workshops ?

_____Yes
_____Undecided
_____No   if "No" , please explain <u>why not</u> ?_____

_____

_____

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE.

INSTRUCTIONS : For all respondents – please answer the following questions.

66. Have any circumstances ever discouraged or prevented you from partici-
pating in the U.T.S. teaching workshops ?

Please explain :_____

_____

_____

What would have to change (or be changed) in order for you to go ?

_____

_____

_____

67. Please indicate which of the following suggestions, if any, you would
recommend in an effort to increase faculty member participation in the
U.T.S. teaching workshops. (Please check any combination)

_____Increase the publicity regarding the workshops.
_____Publicize the names of the workshop leaders.
_____Administer the teaching workshops through the Central Administration.
     (For example through the President or Vice President - Academic.)
_____Encouragement to participate from the Department Head.
_____Encouragement to participate from the Dean/Director.
_____Encouragement to participate from the Central Administration.
_____Encouragement to participate from colleagues.
_____Reward participation through promotion/tenure decisions.
_____Require formal evaluation of instruction for promotion/tenure decisions.
_____Reinstate merit pay with an emphasis on teaching quality.
_____Improve the Teaching Service offerings.
_____Improve content of courses.
_____Establish full-time office of professional consultants.
_____Use experts instead of colleagues as group leaders.
_____Provision of materials to permit individual independent study.
_____Tailor courses to the specific needs of Faculty/School.
_____Increase the use of lectures/guest lecturers.
_____Include more advanced-level courses to build on introductory courses.
_____Include new topics ; such as:_____

_____Change course format ; to,for example:_____

_____Decrease course length ; to, for example:_____

_____Change course scheduling : for example:_____

PLEASE add any other comments or suggestions you may have to help increase
the level of faculty involvement in the teaching workshops. (Changes could
be at the university, faculty, department or U.T.S. workshop level.....)

_____

_____

_____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT.

(optional)

Please feel free to add any further comments or reactions you may have...
Do you have any suggestions about how to go about trying to improve the
quality of instruction - generally or individually ?
Should U.T.S. teaching workshops be mandatory for inexperienced/new prof-
essors ?
COMMENTS ??????

INSTRUCTIONS : PLEASE RETURN THIS COMPLETED SURVEY AS SOON AS POSSIBLE,
USING THE ENCLOSED ENVELOPE THROUGH THE CAMPUS MAIL.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Elisabeth Botman
Graduate Student,
Dept.Educational Administration and Foundations,
Faculty of Education,
University of Manitoba.

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER

Dear Professor,   June 7, 1982.

I am writing to request your assistance in a university-
wide survey designed to explore the attitudes of faculty
members towards teaching and "teaching improvement programs".
It is expected that the results of this research will permit
greater understanding of the complex attitudes that faculty
members have towards teaching, of the special needs and
interests of faculty groups, and of possible approaches to
the improvement of teaching effectiveness.

I am aware that you have many demands on your time, but I am
optimistic that you will contribute to this research effort.
Your thoughtful response is vital to ensure validity of the
research results. A copy of the survey and a self-addressed
envelope are enclosed. The title page (colored slip) is
coded to permit selective follow-up reminders, and upon
receipt of your survey, the coded slip will be separated
from your responses. Please be assured that your responses
will be kept completely confidential. The results of this
research will be made available in thesis form at the Eliza-
beth Dafoe Library.

Please return the completed survey as soon as possible through
the campus mail delivery system. Thank you very much for
your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Elisabeth Botman,   Thesis Committee:
Graduate Student,   Dr. Alexander Gregor
University of Manitoba.   Dr. J.Anthony Riffel
                                     Dr. Arnold Naimark

APPENDIX D

FIRST FOLLOW-UP LETTER

July 5, 1982.

Dear Professor,

Early in June I sent you a copy of a university-wide survey which was designed to collect data for my thesis research regarding faculty attitudes towards teaching and "teaching improvement programs". I realize that you may be very busy at this time; however I am optimistic that you will contribute to this research effort. Your thoughtful response is vital to ensure validity of the research results.

A copy of the survey and a self-addressed envelope are enclosed. The title page is coded to permit selective follow-up reminders, and upon receipt of your survey, the coded slip will be separated from your responses. Please be assured that your responses will be kept completely confidential.

If you have not already returned the survey, please complete and return the survey as soon as possible through the campus mail delivery system. Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Elisabeth Botman,
Graduate Student,
University of Manitoba

Thesis Committee:
Dr. Alexander Gregor
Dr. J.Anthony Riffel
Dr. Arnold Naimark