THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARDS THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION AND THE ROLE OF DEPARTMENT OR DIVISION CHAIRPERSONS

DISSERTATION

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The problem with which this study is concerned was to analyze the reactions of faculty members and academic administrators toward the practices related to the improvement of instruction as they pertain to the role of department or division chairpersons. The hypotheses designed to serve the purposes of this study were related to supervision of instruction, methods and materials used for instruction, evaluation of the teaching performance of faculty members, participation of faculty members in administrative decisions, faculty members' professional development, and evaluation of the outcomes of instruction.

The instrument utilized to collect data was a perceptionnaire developed through a Likert-type attitude scale. The perceptionnaires were distributed among faculty members and academic administrators of North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University in Denton. The research hypotheses were tested by Mann Whitney U test to determine if significant differences exist between the attitudes of the two groups.

Faculty members and academic administrators indicated significantly different attitudes toward supervision of instruction. The two groups did not have significantly different attitudes towards other areas designed for the improvement of instruction.

Major conclusions were: (1) faculty members do not see the need to receive assistance from a superior teacher to improve their teaching, (2) both groups believed that freedom of thought as well as implementation of a democratic leadership by department chairs could be very helpful to improvement of instruction, and (3) faculty development and provision of teaching materials are most helpful to instructional improvement.

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, it was recommended that department heads should be required to participate in programs designed for the improvement of instruction. A program including seventeen practices was proposed to be used by department heads in order to assist them in their efforts to improve instruction.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Colleges and universities are established to educate students and citizens in order to have a better society. Developed societies are the product of sound educational systems in which efforts for improvement of instruction are always present. Educational leaders have constantly supported the fact that "Effective instruction is, or should be, the ultimate goal of every educator" (20, p. 464). The most important categories of effective teaching are the strategies and methods employed by the instructor to transmit the materials (15). This mechanism through which the body of knowledge is transmitted to students must be improved, and the existing barriers in any instructional environment must be obliterated.

The academic progress of students is a great concern of institutions of higher education. Therefore, the purposes behind the improvement of instruction is nothing but enhancement of students' learning ability. Bergquist (2) states three general purposes for the improvement of instruction: first, learning needs of each student; second, assistance in the personal and professional development of each staff member; and third, the continuous development of

institutional conditions which encourage and reward teaching improvement.

As professional writers of the field believe, institutions of higher learning are accountable for student learning (22, p. 60). The staff of an educational organization, both higher and lower level administrative positions, are held responsible for the improvement of instruction. The president, vice-president of academic affairs, deans, department and division chairpersons are greatly involved in the instructional improvement process. The department and division heads are in direct contact with faculty and students, the two important groups in the instructional process.

> Presidents, provosts and deans have a great effect on academic planning through the decisions they make on other people's plans, but the operating unit for educational leadership is the department and its leader, the chairman (6, p. 29).

Even though the duties of department and division chairpersons are not clearly defined (10, p. 78), different studies show that the improvement of instruction is among the major responsibilities of department chairmen. Williams, in his doctoral dissertation, concludes that department heads are responsible for the improvement of instruction in their respective institutions (30, p. 434). In a study conducted by Heimler (12, p. 158), a list of tasks for the department chairs is presented. This list starts

with the improvement of instruction and ends with writing student records for employment.

The actual teaching and learning takes place in the classrooms of departments and divisions; therefore, the function and duties of the chairs are essential to the improvement of instruction. These people should be leaders in the process of teaching and learning. Educators will not become known as professional leaders in teaching unless they have initially proven to be capable supervisors and managers of the instructional facilities.

Statement of the Problem

This study was concerned with the methods and strategies by which the quality of instruction can be improved through department and division chairpersons as perceived by faculty members and academic administrators.

Purposes of the Study

In addition to examining the duties of department or division chairs for the improvement of instruction, the purposes of this study were (1) to determine if significant differences exist between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators toward supervision of instruction, (2) to determine if significant differences exist between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators toward methods and materials utilized, (3) to determine if significant differences exist between the

attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators in regards to evaluation of teachers' performance, (4) to determine if significant differences exist between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators toward participation of faculty members in administrative practices, (5) to determine if significant differences exist between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators in regards to professional development of faculty members, (6) to determine if significant differences exist between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators toward evaluating the outcomes of instruction, (7) and, finally, to determine if faculty members and academic administrators have different attitudes toward the improvement of instruction in general.

Null Hypotheses

The methods and strategies stated in the instrument of this study were partially borrowed from Eskew's dissertation (7). These questions are modified and added to other methods and strategies collected through a review of literature. However, a pool of forty-five practices for improvement of instruction were grouped in a manner of commonalities to fit the following null hypotheses.

(1) There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regards to supervision of instruction: classroom visitation,

follow-up conferences, preparation of course syllabi, micro-teaching, orientation of new faculty members, helping faculty members with new methods and techniques, involving faculty members in curriculum work, and solving problems proactively.

(2) There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to methods and materials used for improvement of instruction: provision of handbooks, bibliographies, books, pamphlets and bulletins; clerical assistance, teaching load, class size, and utilization of multisensory aids.

(3) There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to evaluation of teachers' performance: department chair evaluation, self-evaluation, student evaluation, and peer evaluation.

(4) There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to participation of faculty members in administrative practices: determination of policies for tenure and promotion, freedom of thought, recognition of superior teaching, selection of new faculty members, and practicing management by objectives.

(5) There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to professional development of faculty members: their

attendance to seminars and workshops, visiting other institutions, summer travels and joining field study groups, leaves of absence with full salary for scholarly work and research, membership in learned societies, inviting outside lecturers, team teaching, and persuading faculty members to pursue advanced degrees.

(6) There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to evaluating the outcomes of instruction: behavioral objectives, conferences with students and alumni, institutional self-study, and maintaining a committee in the institution for the improvement of instruction.

(7) There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators towards the improvement of instruction in general.

Background and Significance of the Study

It is generally agreed that the primary concern of educators is learning and teaching. Institutions of higher learning will never pursue a reputation of excellence without considering the "quality" of teaching or management (4, p. 149). Educational writers claim that the decline of enrollment could be due to the lack of sound and effective teaching (15, p. 20). In addition, Loheyde states:

> The investment in the professoriate is understandable: most college level teachers today are tenured; most were hired and promoted on the basis of research and scholarly endeavors rather than teaching ability.

> Today's declining enrollment has awakened us to the need for competitive programs and quality teaching. To attract and retain students, instruction must be good; students in the 80's are not satisfied with merely sitting at the feet of the scholars with great minds (19, p. 101).

The existence of colleges and universities is due to the services provided for students. Transmission of knowledge from instructors to students could be the most important service provided by the institutions of higher education through a sound instructional system. Wilson, in his article "Teach Me, and I Will Hold My Tongue," states:

> . . . It remains true that the role of teaching is crucial to the survival of our society. It is also true that, whether our survival comes from private donors or from state legislators, the typical university would not be supported and could not exist unless its benefactors believed that it was teaching--and teaching well (32, p. 9).

In the same article, Wilson quoted Plato's observation that "What is honored in a country will be cultivated there."

> If teaching is honored on our campuses, it will be cultivated there and will finally be done well then. If it does not find honor, expressed in the respect and prestige granted the teacher by his colleagues and by the dollars paid him by the comptroller, it is not likely to be cultivated nor to improve (32, p. 9).

Instruction and its improvement process is a matter subject to constant change due to the fast progress of technology and also endless efforts of professional researchers seeking ways for better teaching using both humanistic and behavioristic approaches. Even though great

efforts are made in various ways to improve teaching, Wilson states:

> There is a rising tide of grumbling everywhere, and especially in the larger universities, about the lack of attention to effective teaching and the absence of systematic means of teacher improvement (31, p. 104).

Centers and agencies for improving instruction are operating in most of the states. In a survey conducted in April, 1973, eighty-eight public and twenty-seven private universities in the United States were contacted by mail and were asked if they had any center or unit on their campuses responsible for improving the teaching-learning process. The study shows thirty-five public and private universities with advanced graduate programs and student enrollments greater than 5000 have developed agencies to improve instruction. These agencies influence faculty to improve their teaching through workshops, seminars, courses, newsletters, other publications, and individual consultation (21).

Appendix A of "A Handbook for Faculty Development" (2) contains a list of colleges and universities that have been identified as Instructional Improvement Centers and Programs all over the United States. Several of the characteristics of these centers are listed as follows.

(1) They have an inservice rather than a preservice emphasis.
(2) They focus on higher education.
(3) They are primarily for faculty members.
(4) They have a separate identity and organization.

(5) They have institution-wide responsibilities.
(6) They are different from conventional media centers.
(7) They are currently operational.
(8) They focus on the improvement of instruction within an institution (2, p. 303).

The large amount of books, articles, dissertations, and other published studies in regards to the improvement of instruction indicates the importance of the subject. In addition, the published reports from workshops and conferences, periodicals such as Improving College and University Teaching and course offerings at several graduate schools about the improvement of instruction further emphasize the importance of the problem (7, p. 3).

The significant role of academic administrators and particularly department and division chairpersons for the improvement of instruction is repeatedly mentioned by professional writers. Jennerich (1980) titled his article about improvement of instruction as "The Department Chairperson as Instructional Catalyst." This article was first printed in the Proceedings in the Fourth International Conference on Improving University Teaching (14).

As a review of literature shows, a few studies have been done about the role of academic deans in the improvement of instruction. Eskew in 1960 and Todd (29) in 1965 wrote their doctoral dissertations about the role and functions of the academic dean in the improvement of instruction. Hoeh's doctoral dissertation (1969) is about the effectiveness of department chairmen in the improvement of

instruction, but he is mainly concerned with high school department chairmen. It is intended that this study will provide department and division chairs of colleges and universities, in general, and North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University, in particular, additional guidelines in their endeavor for improving the instructional system of their respective departments and divisions.

Definition of Terms

Practice will be used to denote a procedure or a device, method or technique used by department or division chairpersons for the improvement of instruction (7, p. 7).

Institution of Higher Learning is a "college, university or similar institution offering academic instruction suitable for students who have completed secondary schooling or its equivalent" (11, p. 304). Institutions of Higher Education is synonymously used for the same term.

In her article "In Defense of Departments," Kay Anderson (1, p. 2) defines academic department as "the basic administrative unit of the college, housing a community of scholars that is relatively autonomous and responsible for instruction and research within a specialized field of knowledge." In this study, department and division are used synonymously.

Department Chairman is defined by the Dictionary of Education as "a faculty member, who, in addition to

performing the usual duties of teaching in a department, has been designated to preside over staff meetings and to carry on certain administrative duties involved in managing the affairs of the department" (11, p. 172). In this study, chairperson, chair, and head are synonymously used both for division and department chairmen.

Academic Administrators is concerned with the administrators who are involved with the management and supervision of instructional activities such as academic vice-presidents, deans of instruction, deans, and department or division chairs. In this study, the term administrator might also be used for academic administrator.

Faculty Members are the staffs of institutions of higher education whose major functions are teaching, research, and public services. Faculty members are traditionally ranked as instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors (3, p. 38).

Microteaching is defined as ". . . a video-taped teaching episode which exaggerates a specific teaching-learning situation . . ." (33, p. 397).

Perceptionnaire is the instrument used to receive the perceptions of faculty members and academic administrators toward the practices designed for the improvement of instruction.

Limitations

(1) The findings of this study were limited to the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators of North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University.

(2) This study was mainly concerned with the role of department/division chairpersons in the improvement of instruction.

(3) This study was limited to attitudes of respondents towards certain strategies, techniques and methods mentioned in the instrument for the improvement of instruction.

Basic Assumptions

In this study, it was assumed that faculty members and academic administrators who received a copy of the perceptionnaire were acquainted with practices and techniques mentioned in the instrument for improvement of instruction. It was also assumed that the practices and techniques under each sub-area would represent that area.

Description of the Instrument

The instrument of this study for collecting information on the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators was a perceptionnaire developed through a Likert-type attitude scale. Respondents had four choices to indicate their attitudes toward a certain practice. Participants had to circle one of the following:

4 excellent practice for improving instruction,

3 very good practice for improving instruction,

2 usual or average practice for improving instruction,

1 poor practice for improving instruction,

- practice is not used,

+ practice is used.

A panel of judges for determining validity of the instrument were asked to examine the content of the instrument for corrections, amendments, and other necessary changes. The judges were selected among experienced academic administrators and faculty members of North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University at Denton, Texas.

A test of reliability of the instrument was completed by administering the perceptionnaire to a group of doctoral candidates in Higher Education participating in a course in Academic Administration. The technique used to test the reliability of the instrument was a test-retest procedure with a minimum of two weeks between the two administrations.

Procedures for Collection of Data

After testing the instrument for validity and reliability and incorporating the inputs of the panel of the judges, the instrument was ready to be sent to selected respondents. A copy of the perceptionnaire was hand carried

to the offices or departments of the academic administrators and a sample of faculty members of the two universities.

Two hundred and seventy faculty members were selected randomly among the professors, associate professors, and assistant professors of both Texas Woman's University and North Texas State University at Denton, Texas, as one population. Also the whole population of academic administrators from both universities constituted a second population. A total of 340 individuals were contacted in the first attempt.

A follow-up letter along with another perceptionnaire was sent to nonrespondents after two weeks. To reach a 60 per cent rate of return, another personal contact was made with a number of nonrespondents for the third time. Finally, a total of 210 perceptionnaires were collected from both universities.

Study Design

The purpose of this study was to find out whether significant differences exist between the attitudes of faculty members and those of academic administrators in regard to the six areas designed for improvement of instruction in general and the practices included in each area in specific. Respondents rated each practice by circling one of the four scales of (4) excellent, (3) very good, (2) average/usual, and (1) poor. The rated values of 210 individuals were

totaled for each practice, and an average was computed as the total mean score. Respondents were asked also to indicate if the practice was used in their departments or divisions. The total mean score as well as the percentage of use for each practice were ranked in an order of importance. Considering the two rank orders, certain practices were selected as a sound strategy to be included in a proposed program for the usage of department or division chairs for improving instruction. The practices toward which faculty members and academic administrators indicated significantly different attitudes were not included in the suggested program.

Procedures for Analysis of Data

The information obtained from the returned perceptionnaires was transferred to computer worksheets and from there to keypunch cards for automatic processing at the Computing Center at North Texas State University. Rejection or retention of the hypotheses was based on the results of applying Mann Whitney U test. The level of significance for this study was .05. All hypotheses and included practices were tested in the same manner.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The remainder of this study is organized as follows: Chapter II contains a review of related literature and research; Chapter III describes procedures used in the

collection of the data; Chapter IV is a presentation of the data; and Chapter V contains summary, findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Among the programs designed for the improvement of instruction, supervision of instruction, faculty evaluation, and faculty development are the programs in which division and department chairpersons can be directly involved. These programs are discussed in depth along with other procedures and techniques considering the role of chairpersons in the improvement of instruction. Even though the major purpose of these programs is to create a better environment for learning and teaching, no claim is made by its supporters that each program alone is fully successful. However, the utilization of the processes should enhance the efforts of division and department chairs in the improvement of instruction.

Supervision of Instruction

Improvement of instruction will not be successful unless new, more effective methods and techniques are implemented and out-of-date, non-effective behaviors and procedures for managing a classroom are eliminated. Teachers and faculty members do not necessarily welcome the utilization of new methods and techniques for the supervision of

instruction. They usually feel comfortable with their own establishment behaviors and methods of teaching and generally resist change. Cogan believes that the resistance of teachers to change is due to insufficient in-class support for the teacher. Therefore, the need for a program strong enough to help faculty members with new methods and techniques is evident. Instructional supervision with the collaboration of expert supervisors could provide such help (10, pp. 5-6).

Alfonso defines instructional supervision as "behavior officially designated by the organization that directly affects teacher behavior in such a way as to facilitate pupil learning and achieve the goals of the organization" (1, p. 277). The accomplishment of the goals of an institution of higher learning starts with an interaction which takes place in the classroom between the professor and the students when teaching and learning occurs. The way a professor teaches and the behavior and procedures that he/she utilizes are subject to close supervision. According to Smyth, the "what" and the "how" of teachers as they teach are the two important functions to be analyzed during supervision. He continues, "The purpose of subjecting the teaching to close scrutiny is to effect changes in teaching behavior, hopefully, in the direction of improving instruction" (35, p. 32).

In-class supervision is called by most of its proponents "clinical supervision." Cogan categorizes supervision as "clinical supervision" and "general supervision" (10, p. 9). Clinical supervision is "focused upon the improvement of the teacher's classroom instruction," and general supervision "subsumes supervisory operations that take place principally outside the classroom" (10, p. 9). Clinical supervision is mainly the observation of a teaching session and the recording of the events which take place in the classroom. The accumulated data are analyzed later, in order to help the professor to improve his teaching behavior (10). Goldhammer defines clinical supervision as

> The term should also denote supervision of actual practitional behavior. What the teacher does is central in clinical supervision, of which one hallmark is that the supervisor is an observer in the classroom and that the observational data he collects represent the principal face of subsequent analyses (15, p. 54).

Reviewing the literature related to supervision of instruction and concentrating on the definitions made by advocators of this process, it will be revealed that improvement of instruction is stated as the major purpose of supervision (4, p. 4). The evident need for supervision and management of instruction in order to improve the teaching learning process strengthens the case for the development of the science of supervision and the training of more supervisors. Department and division chairpersons as academic administrators must be trained to supervise

instructional programs effectively. Their ability to improve the work of weak faculty members, to recognize the good work of expert professors, and to secure their positions cannot be accomplished unless excellent supervisory skills are implemented (29, pp. 7-9).

Supervisors might be school principals, instructional leaders, senior professors, external consultants or academic administrators (35, p. 32). Department and division chairs are not excluded; in fact, they are in most situations the most qualified persons for the job. In most of universities and colleges, a department chair is usually selected from the department senior professors, recommended by the dean or vice president of academic affairs and approved by the president of the university or college (22, p. 190). Therefore, department and division chairpersons are probably the most qualified staff members available and responsible for the supervision of instruction, provided that they themselves are acquainted with the different phases of supervision. Otherwise, "supervision is much better not done with inadequate support or with less-than-expert supervisors" (10, p. 15).

Stages of Supervision

Cogan (10, pp. 10-13) lists eight phases for supervision:

Phase 1. Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship

Phase 2. Planning with the teacher

Phase 3. Planning the strategy of observation

Phase 4. Observing the instruction

Phase 5. Analyzing the teaching-learning processes

Phase 6. Planning the strategy of the conference

Phase 7. The conference

Phase 8. Renewed planning

Among the writers of clinical supervision, Goldhammer's five sequence cycle of clinical supervision has gained wide acceptance (15). This cycle is:

Stage 1. Preobservation conference

Stage 2. Observation

Stage 3. Analysis and strategy

Stage 4. Supervision conference

Stage 5. Post-conference analysis (nicknamed the "post-mortem")

Preobservation Conference

In this stage, the faculty members and supervisor try to establish a sound relationship and get to know each other better. Goldhammer (15, p. 57) divides this stage into five sub-stages which include:

a. Reestablishing communication: relaxation: the supervisor and the faculty member become acquainted, relax and try to remove any existing tension;

b. Fluency: supervisor and faculty members both should know and be aware of the teacher's intentions. What the teacher wants to do and how he wants to do it should be clear to both of the members;

c. Rehearsal: faculty member and supervisor will role play and anticipate problems that might be created by students. This will prepare the teacher to handle probable specific situations more comfortably;

d. Revision: faculty members and supervisor review the lesson plans once more during the last minutes before the observation stage starts;

e. Contract: supervisor and faculty member agree upon the necessity of a supervision session and then make a contract about the observation time and length, observers' seating arrangement and the possibility of using recording equipment or talking with the students (34, p. 23).

Cogan explains the significance of the preobservation conference as follows:

> a. establishes the clinical relationship between himself and the teacher; b. helps the teacher to achieve some general understandings about clinical supervision and a perspective on its sequences; and c. begins to induct the teacher into his new role and functions in supervision. These first-phase operations are generally advanced before the supervisor enters the teacher's classroom to observe his teaching (10, p. 11).

Observation

The supervisor now attends the class and records the process that takes place. In this stage, it is most important to take careful notes about the teaching behavior of the teacher because the consequences of the supervision are based on the data obtained from the events which occurred in the observation session. The problems that a teacher has with his teaching should be recorded truthfully and precisely in order to prevent their reoccurrence in the future. As Goldhammer points out, ". . . tomorrow's problems and plans are structured upon false representations of reality; thus, the whole business will have been a terrible waste and will not be likely to result in anything better than disenchantment" (15, p. 61).

Analysis and Strategy

Analyzing the data obtained from an observation session is as important as the observation itself. A deep analysis of the events that happened in the classroom will prevent supervisors from selecting arbitrary issues and superficial aspects of instruction such as bulletin boards, window shades, physical postures, and the like. However, it is the performance of the teacher which will be analyzed and proper feedback provided as well.

In the analytical stage of supervision, in contrast to the traditional supervisory procedures, priority is given

to the strengths observed in the teaching behavior of the faculty member. It should not be implied that the weaknesses are ignored but that they are "dealt with when they interact with a strength" (10, p. 204).

During a detailed analysis of the observational data, the supervisor commits himself to spending his time considering every movement that the teacher has made. The involvement of the supervisor in the analysis of a teaching session proves the extent of his concern for the teacher's professional behavior. It is the main purpose of this analysis to indicate the weaknesses and strengths and at the same time to provide the teacher with suggestions and other feedback in order to modify his teaching behavior.

The next step in this stage is to plan for conducting the supervision follow-up conference. A supervision follow-up conference is productive when it is planned carefully. The feedback coming from the supervisor and the way of presenting teaching abilities of the teacher in the conference should be decided upon through the selection of a precise strategy. This is in order to avoid teacher anxiety. In the same respect, Goldhammer points out that "Clinical supervision [my professional practice] is not likely to remain viable if my clients feel damaged by it" (15, pp. 66-67).

Supervision Conference

In a supervision conference, the supervisor expresses his impression of the faculty member's teaching performance. This expression is based on the analysis of the observational data and the selected strategy discussed in the previous stage. Even though there are numerous ways of managing the supervision conference, it is recommended that the teacher's personal impression of his teaching behavior be expressed prior to the supervisor's impression to enhance self-analysis and self-correction (35, p. 33). The feed-back received from the supervisor's impression of the faculty member's teaching behavior along with the teacher's self-analysis will provide the faculty member with a plan designed to improve his instructional behaviors. In short, the feedback received from the supervisor is the main purpose and concern of the follow-up conference. To provide nonthreatening feedback, Johnson (19, pp. 16-17) recommends the following:

1. Focus feedback on behavior rather than the person;
2. Focus feedback on observation rather than the inference;
3. Focus feedback on description rather than judgment;
4. Focus feedback on descriptions of behavior in terms of "more or less" rather than "either or";

5. Focus feedback on behavior related to a specific situation, preferably to the "here and now" rather than on behavior in the abstract, or "there and then";
6. Focus feedback on the sharing of the ideas and information rather than on giving advice;
7. Focus feedback on the value it may have to the receiver, not on the value of "release" that it provides the person giving it;
8. Focus feedback on exploration of alternatives rather than answers or solutions;
9. Focus feedback on the amount of information that the person receiving it can use, rather than on the total amount that you might have available;
10. Focus feedback on time and place so that personal data can be shared at appropriate times;
11. Focus feedback on what is said rather than why it is said.

Goldhammer explains other intentions of the supervision conference as

> 1. To provide a time to plan future teaching in collaboration with another professional educator. Perhaps the best measure of whether a conference has been useful, in Teacher's framework, is whether it has left him with something concrete in hand, namely, a design for his next sequence of instruction.
>
> 2. To provide a time to redefine the supervisory contract: to decide what directions supervision should take and by what methods it should operate [or whether supervision should be temporarily terminated].

3. To provide a source of adult rewards. In common practice, teachers have few opportunities for their value to be acknowledged by other adults who have professional sophistication and who know their work, that is, teacher's work, intimately.

4. To review the history of supervision, that is, of the problems that supervisor and teacher have addressed formerly and to assess progress in mastering technical [or other] competencies upon which Teacher has been working.

5. To define treatable issues in the teaching and to authenticate the existence of issues that have been sensed intuitively.

6. To offer didactic assistance to Teacher, either directly or by referral, in relation to information of theory that Teacher requires and of which supervisor may have relatively advanced knowledge.

7. To train Teacher in techniques for self-supervision and to develop incentives for professional self-analysis.

8. To deal with an array of factors that may affect Teacher's vocational satisfaction as well as his technical competency. The question of what issues of this kind are appropriate to treat in supervision depends largely upon the participant's inclinations, the supervisor's special skills for such work, pertinent situational variables and the overriding question of how supervision can be therapeutic [small "t"] without becoming Therapy [large "T"] (15, p. 69).

Post-Conference Analysis

This stage is designed to improve the work of the supervisor himself, by analyzing his own behavior in the process of supervision stages. The supervisor asks the question to what extent his supervision has contributed to the teacher's instructional improvement: have his suggestions and criticisms provided the teacher with a better

plan for teaching and if not, what weaknesses he finds in himself that must be improved.

One outstanding advantage of group supervision is that the work of the supervisor himself is analyzed by other colleagues. A particular process of peer observation is developed in the College of Education at Texas Tech University. This process follows the same sequences as described above but a team of supervisors consisting of an observation team leader, one or three other professors and a graduate student will observe a professor while teaching (34, p. 23). This process not only will help the professor who is being observed to develop his professional skills, but also provides an opportunity to analyze the supervisor's work as well.

Frequency of Visitations

Unfortunately, faculty members do not welcome visitors in their classrooms and they resent the idea of being observed for administrative rating purposes. This expression of faculty members for classroom visitation is due to the fact that academic administrators have not identified and communicated the purposes behind classroom visitation. If department chairpersons and other academic administrators nullify the existing idea that visitation is for rating faculty members and express that they visit to participate and learn, supervision of instruction will significantly

contribute to the improvement of instruction (2, p. 7). Allen and Ryan comment:

> . . . When the classroom door opens and the teacher sees an administrator or department head standing there with his notebook, does the teacher at once think, "Good. Here is someone to help me be a better teacher"? Not likely. Probably his first thoughts are "Now I'm going to be evaluated. He'll be making judgments that will affect my future" (32, p. 7).

How often should the teachers and their classes be observed? The teacher should be supervised and his class be observed until he or she is able to master the classroom situation. However, the classes of new faculty members should be observed in the first weeks in order to establish desired behaviors (23). The visitation and observation must be continued until the new faculty member is able to instruct independently and effectively enough to serve the instructional goals of the institution (29, p. 201). The experienced teacher as well as the inexperienced should be visited at least twice a year. Even though master teachers do not need to be visited, observing their teaching methods and techniques might help supervisors to enhance the improvement of inexperienced teachers (23).

Microteaching

Microteaching is a newly developed technique used as a supervisory tool for teacher preparation and in-service training programs. "It is teaching in miniature--teaching

scaled-down in terms of class size, time, task and skill. It is contrived, but nevertheless, real teaching" (37, p. 59). According to the investigations done, micro-teaching is known as a perceptual model. "A perceptual model in teacher education refers to a video-taped teaching episode which exaggerates a specific teaching-learning situation in a micro-teaching format" (41, p. 397).

Microteaching, as well as a regular teaching class, requires the instructor to set his objectives and to state his expectations after the instruction is completed. The level of competency and the conditions under which the learner is expected to learn the desired behaviors should be stated precisely (31, pp. 1-3). For as Tyler notes,

> As teachers try to state what they are attempting to do, they should formulate this in terms of what the student is supposed to learn, and state this in terms of the kinds of behavior which they hope the student will acquire as a result of instruction (36, p.).

These measurable and observable objectives should be stated in regards to cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains. The clarity of objectives of instruction in a video-taped teaching session is as important as the whole supervisory process of microteaching.

The sophisticated technology of the twentieth century has undoubtedly had great impact on the improvement of instruction and faculty development. Video-taping a mini-lesson conducted by a teacher can drastically facilitate the work of a supervisor in analyzing the performance of

the teacher spontaneously, objectively and comprehensively (6, p. 317).

To carry out a microteaching session, the faculty member or the supervisor selects a topic that can be taught in fifteen minutes and prepares a lesson plan while considering certain behaviors that are to be modeled. The lesson is taught several times to different groups in order to eliminate distracting stimuli or non-desired behaviors. The final teaching performance will not be more than 5-7 minutes in length (41).

The observed teacher of the mini-lesson (which is the result of a close scrutiny by the supervisor and the students) will be constructively criticized, and the weaknesses and strengths of his teaching performance will be mentioned in a positive manner.

According to Von Haden and King (17), advantages of microteaching are

1. Attention is given to the teacher's specific behavioral acts;

2. Less time is required in microteaching than in student teaching;

3. All aspects of teaching can be considered;

4. Supervisors who monitor a microteaching exercise can make comments that are definite, understandable, and relevant because they refer to precise acts;

5. The techniques can be adopted for use in any college course.

Faculty Evaluation

Institutions of higher learning like other businesses or educational organizations are subject to evaluating the performance of their manpower skills against the institutional goals and objectives. Evaluation is an important function of management and cannot be ignored. Many states require systematic evaluation of public school and community college and university teachers, and this trend could be expected to spread to other states and to higher levels of education (11, p. 437).

Evaluation can be both encouraging and threatening. People should be compensated for effective and efficient work and be warned against bad performance and incompetencies. As Centra (9, p. 1) points out, "A faculty member's teaching, research, and other activities should be evaluated continuously to give that individual the opportunity to improve on weak points and build on strengths." He also states that "For many people, however, whether they are teachers or students, evaluation is a threat to their egos; others fear that the measures used will not or cannot rank them fairly" (9, p. 1).

Faculty evaluation serves two major purposes: "to improve instruction in order to increase student learning"

and a ". . . justification for administering a system of rewards and punishment" (11, p. 437). According to evaluation practitioners, if faculty evaluation is used for improvement of instruction, it will be referred to as "formative," and if the purpose is to gain information for employment decisions, it will be referred to as "summative." In many cases, administrators appraise faculty members both for instructional purposes and also for promotion or tenure decisions in a single evaluation even though experts are doubtful about the extent to which both can be achieved simultaneously (20, p. 8).

Gardner (14, pp. 571-93) provides Five Evaluation Frameworks Implications for Decision Making in Higher Education:

1. Evaluation as professional judgment: ". . . a qualified professional is asked to examine the thing to be evaluated and then render an expert opinion regarding its quality, effectiveness, or efficiency." Examples of this kind of evaluation can be accreditation terms, doctoral committees, peer review of grant proposals, referees for selection of manuscripts for publication and finally, promotion/tenure decisions.

2. Evaluation as measurements: "To evaluate means to measure the results, effects, or performance using some type of formalized instrument which produces data that can be compared to some sort of standardized scale." Examples

for this kind of evaluation can be: GRE scores, faculty activity questionnaires, attitude surveys, and teaching effectiveness questionnaires.

3. Evaluation as the assessment of congruence between performance and objectives: comparison of performance or product with previously stated standards of performance, goals or objectives. Teacher certification based on achievement of prescribed competencies, evaluation of academic departments on the basis of stated goals, behavioral objectives, and contract learning are the examples for this kind of evaluation.

4. Decision-oriented evaluation: Phi Delta Kappa defines this evaluation as "the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives." Management information systems, NCHEMS costing and data management systems, and HEPS (Higher Education Planning System) are examples of this kind of evaluation.

5. Goal-free responsive evaluation: identification and judgment of actual outcomes (irrespective of goals, standards, etc.) and/or the concerns of constituents. Evaluation reports of "program side effects," "holistic" evaluation of educational programs in the arts are examples of this kind of evaluation.

To reemphasize the major objectives of faculty evaluation, Dressel observes the purposes behind evaluation of instruction as

> . . . At the most general level, the stated purposes usually include improvement of teaching; improvement of learning in reference to behavioral objectives; provision of basis for selection, recognition and reward of good teachers; research contribution to understanding teaching and learning; and assurance to students and the public that teaching is regarded as important (12, p. 336).

Sources of Information for Faculty Evaluation

Clarifying the fact that evaluation is appraising the quality, worth, or effectiveness of an individual's work, the question will be posed of who evaluates and what are the sources of evaluation. In institutions of higher education, evaluation is primarily done by students, colleagues, and administrators. The information needed to evaluate faculty members performance is either obtained directly through a formal, systematic process or through an informal, haphazard one (20, p. 7). Deans' and chairmens' evaluations of faculty performance is a frequent method used as well as evaluation by students, colleagues, and committee evaluation. But again, Gustad raises the familiar question:

> What kinds of data do students, deans, and chairmen have available for making such evaluations? Students, of course, are regular observers, . . . classroom visitation has become less frequent, a fact that leaves one to wonder where chairmen and deans get their information--unless it be from informal student opinions (16, p. 271).

In response to the previous question and in search of better techniques for evaluating the professor's teaching ability, a survey was conducted in the spring of 1966 by the American Council of Education (3, p. 296). The questionnaire, in connection with this survey, was mailed to the deans of different colleges and universities throughout the States and was intended to gather information about

> 1. The frequency with which various sources of information are used in judging a professor's teaching ability;
>
> 2. Techniques used for training new college teachers;
>
> 3. The importance of classroom teaching relative to other factors [such as publication, committee work, community services, etc.] in the over-all evaluation of faculty members for promotions, salary increases, or tenure (3, p. 296).

Although this study is somewhat dated, the results are of interest historically.

As the survey shows (Table I), department chairs' and deans' evaluations of faculty performance were the most common technique used for faculty evaluation. Only 3.4 per cent of the colleges in the entire population of higher educational institutions reported not using chairpersons' evaluation; 85.1 reported using this technique. Classroom visits by academic administrators and systematic student ratings were drastically low in comparison to chairman and dean evaluation. Astin and Lee believe that "Even though the dean, the department chairman and professional colleagues have the final say about a professor's teaching

TABLE I

FREQUENCY OF USE OF VARIOUS SOURCES OF INFORMATION IN EVALUATION OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

Source of Information	Used in All Or Most Departments (%)	Not Used (%)
Chairman evaluation	85.1	3.4
Dean evaluation	82.3	5.8
Colleagues' opinion	48.9	8.7
Scholarly research and publication	43.8	21.6
Informal student opinions	41.2	9.6
Grade distributions	28.0	37.4
Course syllabi and examinations	26.4	28.0
Committee evaluation	25.1	52.4
Student examination performance	19.6	35.8
Self-evaluation or report	16.3	57.2
Classroom visits	14.0	39.5
Systematic student ratings	12.4	47.6
Enrollment in elective courses	11.0	49.9
Long-term follow-up of students	10.2	47.1
Alumni opinions	9.9	46.8

Source: Completed questionnaires from 1,110 academic deans, Improving College Teaching, edited by B. T. Lee, Washington, 1967, p. 298.

ability, their evaluation must be based on the opinions of others" (3, p. 298). Therefore, to reach the final judgment, the acquisition of informal information such as "hearsay evidence" and "informal student opinions" and other sources of data as listed on Table I must be utilized.

Criteria for Salary, Promotion, and Tenure

Faculty members' promotions in grade and salary are based on their accomplishments in each academic year as reviewed by a group of peers. Thus, teaching, research, and public service are considered to be the major criteria for faculty promotion (38, p. 56).

Referring to Table II, classroom teaching seems to be the most frequent technique used for decisions in regard to salary increase, promotion and tenure in colleges. However, many departments of colleges and universities consider research and publication as significant a factor as classroom teaching for the purpose of evaluation. From the analysis of the data, Astin and Lee conclude:

> . . . the more selective and wealthier colleges are more likely to use the professor's research and publications as a basis for deciding questions of salary, promotion and tenure. Conversely, the less affluent university colleges [but not the liberal arts colleges] depend more on outside consulting, membership in professional societies, and student advising. The wealthier institutions also tend to place a relatively high value on supervision of graduate students, although the relationships were not consistent for all measures of affluence (3, p. 305).

Among the three criteria used for purposes of promotion in higher education, "Teaching is most difficult to

TABLE II

IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS FACTORS IN EVALUATING FACULTY FOR PROMOTION, SALARY, OR TENURE

Source of Information	All Colleges (N=1,110)
Classroom teaching	95.9
Personal attributes	56.8
Length of service in rank	47.4
Research	46.6
Supervision of graduate study	40.8
Publication	39.9
Student advising	39.5
Campus committee work	29.2
Activity in professional societies	25.3
Public service	20.5
Competing job offers	13.2
Supervision of honors program	12.4
Outside counseling	5.3

Source: Improving College Teaching, edited by B. T. Lee, Washington, 1967, p. 304.

evaluate" (38, p. 57). Each institution might have a different intention from its instructional programs. Therefore, a proper outcome of teaching is not generally expected by all colleges and universities (7, p. 180). Due to different goals and purposes of institutions of higher

education, the three areas of concern for faculty promotion might not be considered equally. However, the faculty member who proves to have contributed significantly in all three functions cannot be denied for a fast promotion in grade or salary (38, pp. 57-59).

Student Evaluation

Attitudes of professional writers vary about students evaluating professors. Proponents of student evaluation technique believe that students are an important source of information for evaluating the teaching performance of faculty, provided that they are asked the right questions. Students are the only direct observers of the professor's performance for one whole semester; therefore, their classroom experiences could be used as a valid source of information for evaluation of instruction. Howe's observation of student evaluation is as follows:

> We have the obvious fact that students do pay for the instruction they receive; they are not simply a necessary evil to be tolerated as part of the educational endeavor, but are the purpose of it. The opinions of those who eat the pudding certainly ought to be considered if we wish to know how the pudding tastes (18, p. 260).

Practitioners of faculty evaluation believe that student evaluation is one of the current effective means for evaluating instruction and the performance of the faculty. Kronk and Shipka state that "Student rating is probably the most widely used structured method of evaluating faculty in

higher education. This method reflects the level of student satisfaction with a teacher's performance in the classroom" (20, p. 9). In the same regard, Dennis says: "Student ratings of teachers would seem to be the most frequently used means of teacher evaluation at the college level" (11, p. 458). Due to the existence of this support for student evaluation of faculty performance, institutions of higher education, especially colleges, have developed different forms of student evaluation of teaching. For instance, Purdue University uses an instrument called "cafeteria." This instrument gives faculty members a free hand with the selection of the items upon which they are to be rated. The IDEA system of Kansas State University is a system through which professors can select their desired learning objectives and let the students rate teacher effectiveness in regards to accomplishing the objectives (21, p. 11).

Scriven states that student ratings and evaluation of faculty performance is "the key component in the evaluation process" (33). He also suggests that the best way to administer the questionnaires to the students is to have department secretaries distribute the questionnaire among the students in the first five minutes of the class hour. The professor must leave the class while the questionnaire is administered. The professor might announce the date of the evaluation in advance, in order to have all the students who are enrolled for the course to answer the questionnaire.

He also suggests that the questionnaire be prepared in the following sequence in order to prevent controversial questions:

1. evaluation of the instructor as a person;
2. evaluation of the course itself;
3. evaluation of the job done by the instructor in teaching the course.

The evaluation form must be sent to the department head or the dean for analysis of the evaluation (33).

Student evaluations should be administered twice per semester, once early in the term and again at the end of the term. The first student evaluation is used by the faculty member for comparing the results with his personal rating, using the self-evaluation form. This early evaluation will allow the faculty member to appraise himself against the student ratings and to try to modify and to improve his teaching behavior. The correlation between the two student evaluation results should be low if any improvement has taken place (24, pp. 27-29).

Referring to Table I, the survey done by American Council on Education, systematic student rating is not indicated as a favorite technique for evaluating instruction. A number of experts in the field of faculty evaluation and also faculty members share the opinion that student rating cannot evaluate the performance of a professor and the contents of the course. What the students are concerned

about is not sufficient to set them as a criteria for faculty evaluation. Dressel points out:

> . . . they are concerned that professors express themselves clearly, that their statements be audible, that their assignments be clear and not too demanding, that their examinations be directly related to classroom coverage, and that they require neither unreasonable memorization nor extensive thought . . . They are seldom encouraged to think about a course or the instruction as relevant to their personal interests or their other courses. They are not urged to view a course as a contribution to a liberal or general education. Students do not expect that, as a result of a particular course, they will be increasingly capable of independent effort in the field (12, pp. 345-46).

Dressel continues, "Generally, students are asked to evaluate petty details which have little significance to them and often no significance to the instructor who might wish to use student reactions to improve teaching" (12, p. 346). Students do not possess the experience and sensitivity for a perfect evaluation even though they observe the teaching behavior of the professor for many hours. The only way to utilize student attitudes as a rating tool for faculty evaluation is to provide and prepare precise instruments in order to direct students toward the actual goals of instruction; otherwise, student ratings cannot be helpful in the evaluation process.

> . . . Evaluation of teaching is a complex and difficult task. Students are not likely to carry off effectively what faculty and administrators have thus far failed to accomplish (12, p. 347).

Lindquist mentions that students' evaluations of faculty performance are often insufficient aids to improvement

of instruction. However, he suggests two ways for efficient usage of student evaluation:

> . . . One is to integrate student ratings with instructional development so that professors have expert assistance in moving from ratings to improvements. A skilled colleague or "support group" can fulfill this facilitative role, given some training for the task. The second response is to integrate student ratings with colleague evaluations and research on students as the information base upon which to shape professional growth contracts. In this way, the formal evaluation system is tied to student ratings but in a less threatening, more meaningful sense than simply reporting scores to the tenure and promotion committee (21, p. 11).

Administrator Evaluation of Faculty Members

Academic administrators usually visiting faculty classrooms are department or division chairpersons and deans. Classroom visitation by administrators is more common in two-year colleges than in four-year or graduate institutions (20, p. 10). This method, as well as other methods of faculty evaluation, possesses strong and weak points. The presence of an administrator in a teacher's classroom will interfere with the teaching style of a teacher. As Morton remarks "It is not possible to visit a classroom without affecting the normal balance and setting. The supervisor's very presence injects a foreign element which often brings tension and an abnormal condition" (26, p. 122). Scriven has even a much stronger negative view of classroom visitation by administrators when he says "Classroom visits by colleagues (administrators or 'experts') to evaluate

teaching is not just incorrect, it is a disgrace" (33). He substantiates his assertion by giving the following reasons.

1. The visit itself alters the teaching, so that the visitor is not looking at a random sample.

2. The number of visits is too small to be an accurate sample from which to generalize, even if it were a random sample.

3. The visitor is not devoid of independent personal prejudices in favor of or against the teacher, arising from the fact that the visitor is normally an administrator or colleague of the teacher and in his/her other role is involved in adversary proceedings, alliances, etc. with the teacher.

4. There is nothing that could be observed in the classroom [except the most bizarre special cases] which can possibly be used as a basis for an inference about the merit of the teaching.

5. Regardless of the fact that no observations of teaching style can legitimately be used as a basis for inferences to the merit of the teaching, the visitor normally believes the contrary. This is often because the visitor has his or her own preferences as to a certain style, or has many years of experience in teaching this same type of course, and consequently, believe that not doing it this way--or in one or two other ways that are approved--is doing it badly (33, p. 4).

Administrators' evaluation of faculty teaching performance for the purpose of improvement of instruction could be effectively used if department and division chairpersons would try to nullify the existing notion of being rated when faculty members' classes are visited by administrators. To create a nonthreatening atmosphere about administrative visits, Morton has a number of suggestions:

> . . . No administrator should swoop or snoop. He should not set traps; he should not deliberately try to make a situation difficult for an instructor. He

> should not formalize the occasion as that it becomes stiff and austere. It should involve friendliness and interest as well as a critical and inspectional purpose. If possible, the visitor should try to make two or three informal and unofficial visits as well as the official one and not label which is which (26, p. 122).

Department and division heads may refer to their memoranda, information, notes on activities and classroom visitations in order to evaluate their faculty members. This obtained information about the faculty's performance should be kept in a file and reviewed annually for decisions on promotion, tenure, salary increase or dismissal.

Self-Evaluation

Faculty members, better than any other group, are aware of their weaknesses, strengths, and areas of improvement; therefore, their participation in the process of faculty evaluation is considered as a most critical factor (5, p. 185). Faculty members can take positive and effective steps in improving their instructional performance by comparing their own evaluation of competencies and skills against what administrators and students expect from them. The discrepancies observed should be considered as guidelines for faculty members to improve their instructional behaviors and competencies.

Despite the fact that faculty self-evaluation is a helpful tool for self-improvement, it is found to be very subjective. According to studies done, little agreement can

be observed between faculty self-evaluation, administrators, students, and colleague evaluation. Apparently, faculty rate themselves higher than others do (20, p. 9).

Dennis (11, p. 441) explains that, "An honest self-appraisal would seem to be about as useful these days as an honest recommendation of a student for his placement papers." But Kronk and Shipka (20, p. 9) believe that "An honest and specific self-evaluation which falls into the hands of administrators or other decision-makers may be used to support adverse decisions such as nonrenewal, promotion denial, or tenure denial." However, self-evaluation accompanied by student and administrators evaluation of faculty members must be used hand in hand in order to have a sound evaluation system. To conclude, Morton remarks:

> Evaluation, to my mind, must not be an occasional matter, accomplished by one or two established means, but a continuing process, using many means. The ambitious teacher wants evidence from students, colleagues, administrators, people in the community, and from various specialists (26, p. 123).

Faculty Development

Undoubtedly, one of the major issues of higher education in the 1970s has been faculty development (27, p. 141). Different studies conclude that faculty development programs and practices in the 1960s have not been sufficiently designed to serve the purpose for faculty professional and intellectual growth (8, p. 189); therefore, educators have

given more thought and energy to the issue of faculty development in the last ten years.

Colleges and universities have been practicing new, special programs beside the traditional practices for the professional and intellectual development of faculty members. Those programs are devised to serve two major purposes: first, to help faculty members with new skills and methods of instruction to increase their effectiveness in their teaching profession, and second, to assist faculty members to better understand themselves and their institution and also to create a better teaching and learning environment (8, p. 188).

Even though practices for faculty development vary in different colleges and universities, faculty developmentalists are in full agreement about the purposes of faculty development when they define it. Gaff (13, p. 14) defines faculty development as ". . . enhancing the talents, expanding the interests, improving the competence and otherwise facilitating the professional and personal growth of faculty members, particularly in their roles as instructors." The ultimate end of faculty development is the improvement of instruction and it is stated more clearly in the following definition.

> Faculty development activities on any given campus may focus on the intellectual and professional growth of faculty, on course design or curriculum development or on organizational change; however, whatever

> the means, the ultimate end of faculty development is to improve the quality of education, to reemphasize the basic teaching mission of the institution. . . . (40, p. 15).

The development of faculty is not separated from the concept of "change." Professors, like other individuals, have always resisted change because as Benjamin Bloom concludes, ". . . all of the human characteristics he has examined become set at a very early age and become increasingly stable as individuals grow older" (13, p. 19). This does not imply that age is an unavoidable factor in preventing change, but that certain human characteristics will require "more effort" and "more powerful environments" to motivate and encourage new characteristics and behaviors. Gaff explains that "Although faculty members may have their values and personalities fairly well set, they may be able to learn new behaviors, additional skills, and new techniques of teaching" (13, p.

Faculty developmentalists must consider the fact that their programs will not succeed unless they can motivate faculty to change. A change assisting faculty members to develop professionally and intellectually, a change which would cause faculty members to abandon their undesired behaviors and to adopt new methods and techniques is necessary if a better educational environment is to be acquired for student development and progress.

Traditional and New Approaches to Faculty Development

The practices used for faculty development in the 1960s are different from programs designed in the 1970s. According to a survey conducted by Southern Regional Education Board in 1963, the deans who were interviewed expressed that improvement of teaching effectiveness and professional growth are generally the most important goals of faculty development (25, pp. 41-55). The practices used for these two goals in the small colleges of the southern region are:

Improvement of Instruction:

a. systematic visitation of classes by administrative officers or other faculty members;

b. presence of an active committee charged with the improvement of instruction;

c. scheduled conferences in some departments to deal specifically with the improvement of teaching;

d. organize series of faculty discussions of college teaching;

e. series of visiting lectures to discuss problems of higher education, and

f. collection of library materials on higher education for faculty use.

Professional Improvement:

a. financial assistance to the faculty for further graduate study;

b. adjustment of teaching loads of individuals periodically to allow time for research and writing.

c. funds for publication of faculty writing;

d. annual financial assistance for at least half the faculty to attend professional meetings;

e. sabbatical year leaves with at least half salary, and

f. a functioning teacher exchange.

The newer approaches for faculty development programs are less supportive of traditional practices and are more directed toward comprehensive programs. This claim is vividly stated by different writers in the field of faculty development such as White, who remarks that:

> Although the more traditional components of professional renewal are viable avenues for self-improvement, such approaches are inadequate mechanisms for dealing in a more comprehensive manner with contemporary problems of professional development (38).

In 1975, Centra (8) conducted a study to find out what activities colleges and universities have utilized in order to facilitate faculty development. The instrument utilized consisted of activities directly related to instructional improvement and also personal-development efforts such as improving self-awareness, interpersonal skills, and the like. The practices were grouped into five categories:

1. Institution-wide practices such as sabbaticals and annual teaching awards (traditional practices);

2. Analysis or assessment by students, by colleagues, by use of videotapes, or other means;

3. Workshops, seminars, or similar presentations;

4. Activities that involve media, technology, or course development;

5. Miscellaneous practices.

In Table III a list of practices and the percentage of usage in colleges and universities all throughout the United States of America is presented. The effectiveness of these practices is not entirely known yet and is subject to more time and studies.

Bergquist (5) and Phillips (30), in their program for faculty development, have focused emphasis on three levels. These levels are: (a) attitude, (b) process, and (c) structure. In a model of faculty development, instructional improvement is the primary goal; therefore, a number of means for reaching this goal such as: instructional methods and technology, curriculum development, and student evaluation of instruction must be given major attention. The attitudes of faculty toward their profession and how they value teaching must be taken into consideration in a faculty development program. According to the model, the attitude of faculty is considered as an input for the instructional process of the model. Each box in the model (See Figure 1.) represents a component. The relationship between the components and their movement toward each other is indicated by lines and arrows. The dimension of threat and resistance of faculty is indicated by the number of lines around the boxes. Boxes with single-lined-edges are the least threatening and least resisted components by faculty members. The opposite is true about the boxes with three-lined-edges (5, pp. 177-84).

TABLE III

Use and Estimated Effectiveness of Institution-Wide Policies or Practices in Development (*N = 756*)

	Percentage of institutions at which the practice existed				*Percentage indicating practice was effective or very effective*[a]			
	All (N = 756)	*2-yr. (326)*	*4-yr. (315)*	*Univ. (93)*	*All*	*2-yr.*	*4-yr.*	*Univ.*
1. Annual awards to faculty for excellence in teaching	38	20	44	79	28	37	24	27
2. Circulation of newsletter, articles, etc. that are pertinent to teaching improvement or faculty development	68	71	65	67	27	32	22	25
3. A specific calendar period is set aside for professional development	44	62	33	14	52	52	55	38
4. There is a periodic review of the performance of all faculty members, whether tenured or not	78	87	71	77	59	63	56	49
5. Sabbatical leaves with at least half salary	67	60	72	82	66	60	73	61
6. A policy of unpaid leaves that covers educational or development purposes	72	70	73	80	51	47	55	49
7. Lighter than normal teaching load for first-year faculty	21	15	23	25	53	64	51	45
8. Temporary teaching load reductions to work on a new course, major course revision, or research area	61	58	59	81	64	68	63	59
9. Travel grants to refresh or update knowledge in a particular field	52	46	56	61	64	67	64	57
10. Travel funds available to attend professional conferences	93	95	92	95	62	69	59	51
11. Visiting scholars program that brings people to the campus for short or long periods	55	37	65	86	57	60	57	54
12. Summer grants for projects to improve instruction or courses	58	61	56	62	70	72	66	74
13. There is a campus committee on faculty development	61	63	60	62	50	55	48	46

[a]Percentages based only on institutions at which practice existed.

Source: Teachers College Record, Vol. 80, September 1978, No. 1, p. 193.

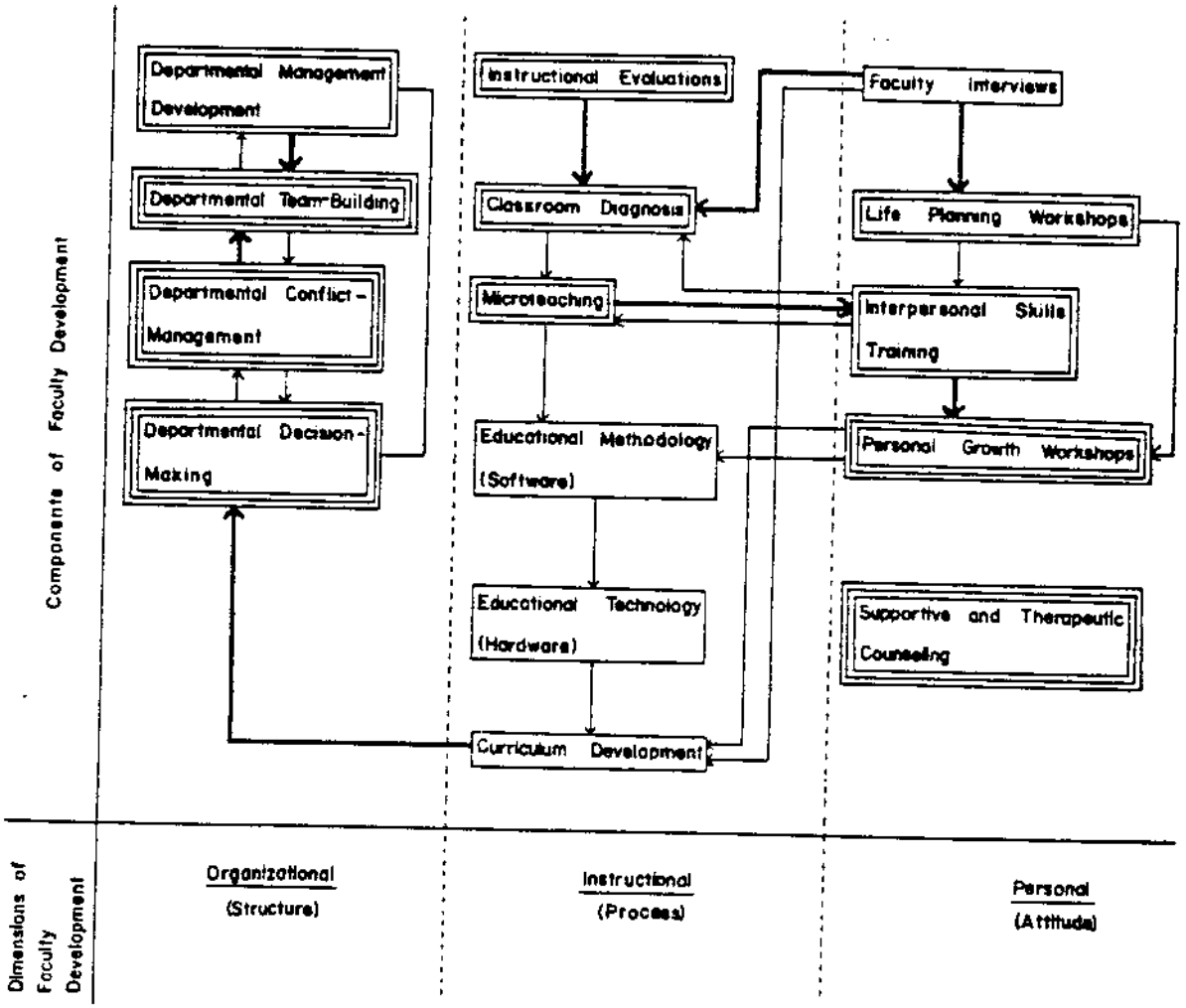

FIG. 1. A Model for Effective Faculty Development

Bergquist, William H., "Components of an Effective Faculty Development Program," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. XLVI, No. 2, March/April, 1975.

Bergquist and Phillips' idea about a new approach to faculty development is not that different from other models when they assert:

> Since piecemeal efforts to improve college and university teaching have generally proven ineffective, we must turn to a comprehensive approach to faculty development, through which we can develop new methods of evaluation and diagnosis, find viable ways of introducing new technology and curricula, and explore new approaches to instructional improvement. Faculty development must give serious attention to the impact of change on the faculty member himself and on his institution. Organizational and personal development thus become essential to faculty development. It is only through such a comprehensive approach that efforts toward improvement can have lasting impact (5; 30, p. 177).

Nelson (27, pp. 143-45) in his article "Faculty Development: Prospects and Potentials for the 1980s" has a number of suggestions to be considered in inservice programs. Briefly, these suggestions are as follows.

1. Faculty development programs must be flexible and compatible with the interests and needs of the individual faculty.

2. The proportion of funds attributed to corporated activities such as institutes, workshops, and group study must be more than the fund designated to individual opportunities such as sabbaticals, summer study, released time and others because faculty members can benefit from corporated activities more than individual activities.

3. Scholarly writing must be encouraged among faculty

members who do not write very often, and those who write and publish must be encouraged to write more meaningfully.

4. Department and division chairs must be trained to manage and to supervise their faculty effectively enough to launch a faculty development program successfully.

5. Faculty development programs should provide faculty members with a full understanding of student development concept. "A faculty member is first [or only] a professional historian or sociologist and secondarily [or never] a professional educator" (27, p. 148).

6. Academic administrators at different levels must launch programs to develop faculty members with new teaching skills. These programs need commitment, appreciation, and recognition from the administrators' side as well as financial support.

White's approach to developmental programs of the 1980s is different from Nelson's view. He suggests:

> Development plans of the 1980s must be more holistic. They must consist of multi-faceted approaches to attract a broad cross section of the professional staff. They may still include the traditional sabbatical. They may encourage staff to return for specialized graduate work. More importantly, however, they must develop new links between private enterprise and public education. Under a comprehensive leave program, faculty and staff in business and public administration will exchange positions with professionals in the field. College instructors and administrators will take time off to work briefly in another sector of the economy, breeding their understanding of their own profession and of the society at large. Some of these individuals may choose to pursue career goals outside of education after such an experience (38).

Department Chairpersons and Faculty Development

The reviewed literature of faculty development programs represents no unique, one hundred per cent successful program for faculty improvement. They mostly indicate the fact that academic administrators, particularly chairpersons, due to insufficient administrative training, have not been quite as successful in dealing with faculty development programs. Therefore, the need for administrative in-service programs is vital on campuses. As Gaff (13, p. 88) mentions, "Department chairpersons are the front-line administrators for teaching and learning in a college, and some schools have set up programs to help them perform their work more effectively." To point out the importance of administrative training for department and division chairpersons, Nelson (27, p. 147) states:

> Jack Noonan was correct in spending a great deal of time and energy in working with department chairmen at Virginia Commonwealth University under a Lilly grant. AAC is correct in setting up regional workshops for department chairmen. Colleges would do well to put some of their faculty development funds into specific programs for improving the personnel management skills of department heads. Incidently, division chairmen and yes, even deans and other administrators could often benefit greatly from such programs.

Department and division heads might have a high degree in a certain discipline but no special or formal training for running a department. This does not mean that chairpersons are incompetent due to lack of formal training; it implies rather that the experiences that chairmen gain

through trial and error must be accompanied with cognitive principles and formal training. In-service programs to help administrators learn the concepts, skills, and techniques of administration are the key to preparation of better administrators (13, p. 86).

In his department chairpersons program, Noonan interviewed a number of chairpersons, asking their attitudes toward chairing a department, assumptions about teaching and learning, conceptions of leadership and professional aspirations. Based on the results of these interviews, a series of small group sessions and exercises were designed to help chairpersons specify their assumptions, clarify their values, and enhance their leadership styles (13, p. 88).

Administrators must also be trained to cope with the human side of their institutions. Good interpersonal relations is an important factor towards a successful administrative effort.

> There is a perfectly respectable theory that holds that when relationships are improved among top administrators and between administrators and faculty, they will lead to an improvement in relationships among faculty members and between faculty and students. Although there is little solid empirical evidence to support this theory as applied to academia, it does make sense that faculty members who are treated with respect and dignity by their administrative staff will accord these same courtesies to their students, solicit student views, and respond to student interest (13, p. 90).

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CHAPTER III

PERCEPTIONNAIRE CONSTRUCTION AND DATA COLLECTION

Description of the Instrument

The purpose of this study was to gather information on the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators concerning the role of department or division chairpersons for the improvement of instruction. The instrument which was developed for measuring the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators was a Likert-type perception-naire. Among the attitude scales used in the process of a survey research, "the Likert scale is a widely used type of ordinal measurement" (7, p. 125). According to Kerlinger:

> A summated rating scale [one type of which is called Likert-type scale] is a set of attitude items, all of which are considered of approximately equal "attitude value," and to each which subjects respond with degrees of agreement or disagreement [intensity]. The scores of the items of such a scale are summed, or summed and averaged, to yield an individual's attitude score. As in all attitude scales, the purpose of the summated rating scale is to place an individual somewhere on an agreement continuum of the attitude in question (3, p. 496).

The Likert-type scale used in this study has four categories ranging from excellent to poor. The scale does not include negative values for the practices compiled in the instrument. According to the reviewed literature, the forty-five practices were designed to improve rather than

to hinder the instructional process. However, respondents had four choices to indicate their positive attitude toward a certain practice for improvement of instruction. In order to analyze the collected data, each response or choice was assigned a numerical value: Excellent, 4; Very Good, 3; Usual (average), 2; and Poor, 1. Also, a plus (+) was added if the method or strategy was being used and a minus (-) was added if the method or strategy was not being used in their department or division.

A non-symmetrical scale was used for the following reasons: (1) negative values could not be assigned to the practices since they were to improve instruction; (2) the instrument and its scale were validated by a panel of jurors, and (3) the same scale was used by Eskew (1) for his doctoral dissertation.

The developed perceptionnaire consisted of practices related to six areas for instructional improvement. The practices were based upon information collected from a review of literature: studies and dissertations done in the field, books and articles written by professional writers. A partial number of the practices were borrowed from Theodore Eskew (1), who has written a dissertation on "The Academic Dean and His Role in the Improvement of Instruction." Prior to distribution of the perceptionnaire to the samples, the instrument had to be validated and also tested

for reliability purposes. A copy of the instrument may be found in Appendix D.

Validity

The pool of the practices had to be validated by a panel of jurors in order for an agreement to be reached upon the face and content validity of the practices placed on the perceptionnaire. Selection of the jurors was based on several criteria. First, all of the jurors must have been selected from the population of faculty members and academic administrators. The jurors had to have ten years of teaching experience. Fifty per cent of the jurors were academic administrators, and fifty per cent were faculty members from both North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University in Denton, Texas. At least two of the jurors had to be department or division chairpersons.

Seven judges were selected based on the set criteria. The panel of the jurors was to determine the validity of the instrument, to examine the content of the perceptionnaire, to make the necessary corrections, modifications, suggestions, additions, deletions, clarifications, and to determine the appropriateness of the practices mentioned in each area for the improvement of instruction. The panel included one academic vice-president, one college dean (College of Education), two department/division heads, and

four faculty members. The judges were selected through a random sampling technique.

The seven judges reviewed and examined the instrument and made their suggestions and corrections according to the instructions stated in the validation letter (Appendix A). After revising the instrument and incorporating the corrections and suggestions of the panel of judges, the perceptionnaire had to be tested for reliability purposes.

Reliability

Following the validation of the instrument, a test of reliability was performed by using a test-retest technique. A test of reliability is a measurement of stability through which the same perceptionnaire is administered twice to the same group of respondents. The correlation between the two scores obtained by the two administrations would be the coefficient of stability. The longer the time between the two administrations, the lower the coefficient of stability would be. Also, if the perceptionnaire is poorly constructed, a lower coefficient of correlation between the two scores of the two administrations would be expected (5, p. 230).

A group of doctoral candidates in Higher Education participating in a course in Academic Administration were the subjects of the reliability test for this study. The validated perceptionnaire was distributed among the group as

the first administration. Two weeks later, the same perceptionnaire was administered to the same group for the second time. Applying the Spearman Brown correlation coefficient, the value of r was found to be 0.74.

Subjects of the Study

Participants of this study were both faculty members and academic administrators. All the deans and department or division chairpersons from Texas Woman's University and North Texas State University participated in this study. The selection of these universities was based on the following facts: (1) both universities are fully accredited by appropriate agencies, and each includes more than six different colleges and schools; (2) North Texas State University has more than 800 faculty members and over 18,000 students; Texas Woman's University has more than 600 faculty members and over 7,900 students; (3) both universities are involved in cross-cultural education and vast graduate programs; and (4) both institutions are located in Denton, a fact that facilitates the collection of data. Faculty members including professors, associate professors, and assistant professors of both universities also participated as a second group. Among the methods used for taking samples from a population, random sampling is a method which gives equal chance to all the members of the population to be included (2, p. 131). Thus, a sample of 270 faculty members

were randomly selected from 900 faculty members listed in Faculty/Staff Directory 1982 of North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University General Catalog for 1981-1983. The samples in this study were drawn from the populations using a table of random numbers. Also the whole population of academic administrators which included seventy department heads and deans from both universities were contacted to participate in this study. Larger sample sizes are always recommended by statisticians. As Kerlinger notes, "The larger the sample size, the smaller the error. To avoid any sample error larger sizes of a sample is recommended" (3, p. 127). A sixty per cent rate of return was considered adequate to represent the faculty members and academic administrators of the different colleges and the schools of the two universities.

Procedures for Collection of Data

After testing the instrument for validity and reliability and incorporating the inputs of the panel of judges, the instrument was ready to be distributed among the randomly selected respondents. An attempt was made to hand carry the perceptionnaire to each of the administrators and faculty members in order to have a faster and higher percentage of return. Most of the academic administrators and a number of faculty members were personally contacted, and a copy of the instrument was submitted to them. However, the

perceptionnaires were given to the department secretaries to be delivered to participants if they were not present at their offices. A request was made to the respondents to leave the completed perceptionnaire with the department secretaries or to attach it to their office doors in order for it to be picked up. A period of two weeks was considered sufficient for respondents to return the completed perceptionnaire. One hundred and twenty faculty members and nineteen academic administrators from the universities responded to the first request. The perceptionnaires were either picked up from departments or were sent to the director of the study through campus mail. A letter of reminder (See Appendix C.) and also a self-stamped envelope along with another copy of the instrument was mailed to the non-respondents of both universities for the second time. In a period of two weeks a total of fifty-six more completed perceptionnaires were received by mail. To reach the agreed upon rate of return (sixty per cent), a final personal contact was made with the remaining non-respondents through which fifteen more completed perceptionnaires were collected. This personal contact was mostly made with academic administrators, particularly department heads.

The total number of collected perceptionnaires from faculty members in the three attempts was one hundred and sixty-six which constituted 61.5 per cent of the randomly assigned sample size of two hundred and seventy faculty

members from both universities. The rate of return from academic administrators was almost sixty-three per cent, which is forty-four out of a population of seventy academic administrators who participated in this study. The rate of return varied across the different colleges and schools of the two universities. The corresponding rates for North Texas State University were as follows: College of Arts and Science fifty-two per cent, College of Business Administration thirteen per cent, College of Education twenty per cent; School of Music twelve per cent, and School of Home Economics two per cent. The corresponding rates for Texas Woman's University were College of Education nineteen per cent, College of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation nine per cent, College of Humanities and Fine Arts eighteen per cent, College of Natural and Social Sciences twenty-eight per cent, College of Nutrition, Textiles, and Human Development ten per cent, and College of Nursing sixteen per cent. Table IV indicates the overall rate of return in the three different attempts made for collecting data.

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGES OF RETURNS FROM THE DATA-PRODUCING SAMPLES

	Respondents	North Texas State University	Texas Woman's University	Total
First	Faculty Members	88	32	139
	Academic Administrators	10	9	40.8%
Second	Faculty Members	13	28	55
	Academic Administrators	7	8	16.1%
Third	Faculty Members	4	1	15
	Academic Administrators	8	2	4.4%
	Total	130	80	210 61.3%

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CHAPTER IV

TREATMENT AND PRESENTATION OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the collected data and its statistical treatment. The reactions of 166 faculty members and 44 academic administrators toward 45 practices designed for the improvement of instruction were analyzed. The comments of the respondents in this study were reproduced directly from the returned perceptionnaire and cited as direct quotes throughout this chapter.

The total mean score of each practice combined with the percentage of use were the two criterions for suggesting a practice to be used by department or division heads for improving instruction. The practices which are valued significantly differently by faculty members and academic administrators were not considered in the proposed program for the improvement of instruction.

Treatment of the Data

After the agreed upon number of perceptionnaires was collected, the obtained data were tabulated, and statistical treatment was applied to test the research hypotheses. The data were transferred to computer worksheets and from there to IBM punchcards. To distinguish data related to the two

groups of faculty members and academic administrators, a coding system was designed. The data was analyzed at the Computer Center of North Texas State University, Denton, Texas using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), Program Version M, Release 9.

The statistical procedure used for testing the null hypotheses was a Mann Whitney U Test. Retention or rejection of the null hypotheses was made at a .05 level of significance. Also, Mann Whitney U Test was used to test the significance of difference between the means of the two groups for each practice.

Mann Whitney U Test is a very popular nonparametric test, requiring data on at least an ordinal scale. The data is assumed to be continuously distributed. This test does not require homogeneity of variance nor normality of distribution and is "almost as powerful as the t-test under common research conditions" (2, pp. 230-236; 1, pp. 387-90).

Faculty members and academic administrators constituted two independent groups. The rating scale of the instrument measured each practice on an ordinal scale (3, p. 121). Considering these facts Mann Whitney U Test was found to be a proper procedure to test the significance of each hypothesis.

Mann Whitney U Test is a ranking test. It combines the two groups and assigns a rank of 1 to the lowest score and a rank of 2 to the next lowest score. Then

$$(1)\quad U = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_1(n_1+1)}{2} - R_1$$

or, equivalently,

$$(2)\quad U = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_2(n_2+1)}{2} - R_2$$

where

R_1 = Sum of the ranks assigned to group whose sample size is n_1 and

R_2 = Sum of the ranks assigned to group whose sample size is n_2.

When the sample size is large (more than 20), the sampling distribution of U rapidly approaches the normal distribution; therefore,

$$z = \frac{U - \frac{n_1 n_2}{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1)(n_2)(n_1+n_2+1)}{12}}}$$

To calculate the absolute value of z, either formula (1) or (2) could be used (3, pp. 116-121). To reject the null hypotheses the absolute value of z must be equal or greater than 1.96 for a nondirectional test at the .05 level of significance (1, p. 388).

Hypothesis No. I

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regards to supervision of instruction: classroom

visitation, follow-up conferences, preparation of course syllabi, micro-teaching, orientation of new faculty members, participating faculty members in curriculum work, and faculty members' visitation of one another's classes.

The z-score obtained for significance of difference in the attitudes of academic administrators and faculty members toward supervision of instruction was -2.0477, resulting in a level of significance of 0.0406. To reject the null hypothesis, a z-score equal to or more than 1.96 is required for a .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis must be rejected based upon the responses to practice 1, practice 7, practice 13, practice 19, practice 25, practice 30, practice 34, practice 39,and practice 42 combined on the perceptionnaire which were directly related to Hypothesis No. I. Table V illustrates the results of the Mann Whitney U Test applied to the hypothesis.

Generally the practices included in this hypothesis were rated higher by academic administrators than faculty members. Academic administrators believed that supervision of instruction could help improve the teaching process. Contrary, faculty members believed that supervision of instruction cannot be a major help for this purpose, especially if department heads are not trained to supervise instruction. The results of the Mann Whitney U Test and the raw data related to each practice included in this hypothesis are summarized in Tables VI and VII.

TABLE V

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION TESTED BY MANN WHITNEY U TEST

Sample	Number of Cases
Faculty Members	136
Academic Administrators	136

z-score	2 tailed P value
-2.0477	0.0406

Practice #1

Department heads visit classes to observe instruction and have follow-up conferences with faculty members to discuss methods and techniques used.

Faculty members and academic administrators reacted differently toward the practice of this strategy. The obtained z-score of -2.5538 was significant at a .05 level of significance.

Faculty members believe that department heads lack the knowledge and skills for supervising instruction. One faculty member wrote, "The practice assumes the department head is a good instructor or knows good instruction when he/she sees it." Another participant stated, "A university

TABLE VI

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
1. Department heads visit classes to observe instruction and have follow-up conferences with faculty members to discuss methods and techniques.		-2.5538		2.080	13.2%
Faculty Members	1.981		157		
Academic Administrators	2.442		43		
7. The department head or other designated member of the administration assists teachers in developing more proficiency in teaching methods and techniques.		-2.4830		2.382	23.0%
Faculty Members	2.287		157		
Academic Administrators	2.738		42		
13. Department heads encourage faculty members to visit one anothers' classes, especially those taught by experienced teachers, not to criticize but to learn and share.		-1.4074		2.455	10.6%
Faculty Members	2.400		155		
Academic Administrators	2.651		43		

VI - Continued

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
19. Department heads urge faculty members to prepare course syllabi for courses they teach and make them available to students.		-1.1149		3.132	77.3
Faculty Members	3.099		162		
Academic Administrators	3.256		43		
25. Department heads visit the classes of new faculty members in the first week of the semester to avoid undesirable habits and improve procedures of teaching.		-1.7550		1.816	7.5
Faculty Members	1.768		155		
Academic Administrators	2.000		41		
30. Department heads point out the strengths and weaknesses of the faculty and make suggestions through micro-teaching (teaching via videotape).		-1.2461		1.948	2.5
Faculty Members	1.908		152		
Academic Administrators	2.103		39		
34. Department heads arrange orientation programs for new faculty members to enhance their instructional improvement.		-2.0313		2.975	29.1
Faculty Members	2.898		157		
Academic Administrators	3.275		40		

VI - Continued

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
39. Faculty members as well as academic administrators get involved in curriculum work in order to increase their motivation and their feeling of mutual interests.		-0.1974		2.935	62.1
Faculty Members	2.917		157		
Academic Administrators	3.000		43		
42. Department heads establish positive relationships with faculty members and try to solve the existing problems (pro-active) rather than negotiating in an adversary bargaining situation (reactive).		-0.5901		3.391	78.9
Faculty Members	3.393		163		
Academic Administrators	3.386		44		

TABLE VII

FACULTY MEMBERS' AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS' RATING PERCENTAGES FOR EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Practice	Groups	Excellent	Very Good	Average	Poor
No. 1	F	13.4 n=21	18.5 n=29	21.0 n=33	47.1 n=74
	A	20.9 n=9	27.9 n=12	25.6 n=11	25.6 n=11
No. 7	F	17.8 n=28	23.6 n=37	28.0 n=44	30.6 n=48
	A	19.0 n=8	50.0 n=21	16.7 n=7	14.3 n=6
No. 13	F	18.1 n=28	30.3 n=47	25.2 n=39	26.5 n=41
	A	20.9 n=9	32.6 n=14	37.2 n=16	9.3 n=4
No. 19	F	40.7 n=66	32.7 n=53	22.7 n=36	4.3 n=7
	A	55.8 n=24	16.3 n=7	25.6 n=11	2.3 n=1
No. 25	F	7.7 n=12	15.5 n=24	22.6 n=35	54.2 n=84
	A	7.3 n=3	19.5 n=8	39.0 n=16	34.1 n=14
No. 30	F	10.5 n=16	17.1 n=26	25.0 n=38	47.4 n=72
	A	10.3 n=4	23.1 n=9	33.3 n=13	33.3 n=13
No. 34	F	35.0 n=55	29.9 n=47	24.8 n=39	10.2 n=16
	A	42.5 n=17	42.5 n=17	15.0 n=6	--
No. 39	F	38.2 n=60	28.7 n=45	19.7 n=31	13.4 n=21
	A	37.2 n=16	32.6 n=14	23.3 n=10	7.0 n=3
No. 42	F	58.9 n=96	25.2 n=41	12.3 n=20	3.7 n=6
	A	50.0 n=22	38.6 n=17	11.4 n=5	--

F = Faculty Members; A = Academic Administrators

professor needs no foreman to oversee his work." Comparatively, academic administrators indicated less opposition toward the practice of this technique. Almost 50 per cent of faculty members believed that the practice is a poor strategy for improving instruction, while only 25 per cent of academic administrators believed so. Considering the ratings of the two groups, the practice was ranked as the fourth lowest strategy for improvement of instruction. Only 13.2 per cent of the participants marked the practice as being used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #7

The department head or other designated member of the administration assists teachers in developing more proficiency in teaching methods and techniques.

The values given to this practice by the two groups were found to be significantly different. The obtained z-score of -2.4830 was significant at a .05 level of significance. Close to 31 per cent of faculty members and 14.3 per cent of academic administrators rated the practice as a poor strategy, while 50 per cent of academic administrators and 23.6 per cent of faculty members rated it as a very good strategy. One faculty member commented that "other designated faculty members would be a better suggestion" than department heads for assisting teachers with their teaching methods. The practice was ranked as the fifth lowest

strategy and 23 per cent of the respondents indicated it as being used in their department or division.

Practice #13

Department heads encourage faculty members to visit one another's classes, especially those taught by experienced teachers, not to criticize but to learn and share.

The attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different toward this practice. Only 10.6 per cent of the respondents indicated that the strategy is used in their department/division. Several also indicated that the practice is very time consuming. However, the total mean score of the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators was 2.455. Based on this value, the importance of the practice was ranked as the sixth lowest strategy for improving instruction.

Practice #19

Department heads urge faculty members to prepare course syllabi for courses they teach and make them available to students.

Responses from faculty members and academic administrators participating in this study indicate the commonality of syllabi preparation for the courses taught. The mean score of the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were 3.099 and 3.256 respectively, which were not

significantly different. More than 55 per cent of academic administrators and 40.7 per cent of faculty members rated the practice excellent. The total mean score was 3.132; therefore, the importance of the strategy was ranked fourteenth among other practices designed for improvement of instruction. More than 77 per cent responded that preparation of course syllabi is required.

Practice #25

Department heads visit the classes of new faculty members in the first week of the semester to avoid undesirable habits and improve procedures of teaching.

More than 54 per cent of the faculty members and 34.1 per cent of academic administrators participating in this study believed that the practice is a poor strategy for improvement of instruction. Only 7.7 per cent of faculty members and 9.3 per cent of academic administrators rated it as an excellent strategy for improving teaching. One faculty member stated that the practice "creates too much pressure" on the teacher. The total mean score of 1.816 was ranked as the second lowest important strategy for improvement of instruction. The difference between the attitudes was not found to be significant. Only 7.5 per cent of the participants said the practice is used.

Practice #30

Department heads point out the strengths and weaknesses of the faculty and make suggestions through micro-teaching (teaching via videotapes).

The percentage of responses for both groups increases as the scale moves from excellent to poor. (See Table VII.) Only 2.5% of the respondents indicated the usage of the strategy for improving instruction. One faculty member noted that department heads should employ micro-teaching "if they are qualified." Another participant noted that the practice should be used "on voluntary basis only." The difference between the ratings of the two groups was not significant, but academic administrators had rated the practice higher. The importance of the practice was ranked as the third lowest strategy for improvement of instruction.

Practice #34

Department heads arrange orientation programs for new faculty members to enhance their instructional improvement.

The means calculated from the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were significantly different at a .05 level of significance. (See Table VI.) Administrators rated this strategy higher than faculty members. Forty-two and five-tenths per cent of academic administrators rated the practice as excellent and 42.5 per cent of them rated it very good and only the remaining

15 per cent rated it as an average (usual) method for improvement of instruction. Ten and two-tenths per cent of faculty members rated the practice as a poor strategy, 24.8 per cent rated it average, 29.9 per cent rated it very good, and 35.0 per cent rated the practice excellent. The importance of this procedure was ranked nineteen and almost 30 per cent of the respondents reported it as being used.

Practice #39

Faculty members as well as academic administrators get involved in curriculum work in order to increase their motivation and their feeling of mutual interests.

The attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different. The mean score for the ratings of faculty members was 2.917 and academic administrators 3.000. Thus, the total mean score of 2.935 ranked the practice as the twentieth most important method for improvement of instruction. More than 62 per cent of the respondents indicated the usage of this strategy in their respective departments and divisions.

Practice #42

Department heads establish positive relationships with faculty members and try to solve the existing problems (pro-active) rather than negotiating in an adversary bargaining situation.

In a program designed to improve instruction, a sound staff relationship is necessary to gain any success. Both responding groups rated the strategy very high. According to the calculated total mean score of 3.391, the practice was ranked as the fourth most important method for improvement of instruction. Almost 59 per cent of faculty members and 50 per cent of academic administrators rated the practice as an excellent strategy. (See Table VII.) Also, 78.9 per cent of the respondents marked the strategy as being practiced in their departments.

Hypothesis No. II

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to methods and materials used for improvement of instruction: provision of handbooks, bibliographies, books, pamphlets and bulletins, clerical assistance, teaching load, class size, and utilization of multisensory aids.

The z-score obtained for significance of differences in the attitudes of academic administrators and faculty members toward methods and materials used for improvement of instruction was -0.5971, resulting in a level of significance of 0.5504. The obtained z-score does not reach the required level of 1.96. Therefore, the null hypothesis must be retained. Retention of the null hypothesis is based upon the responses to practice 2, practice 8,

practice 14, practice 20, practice 26, practice 31, practice 40, practice 44, and practice 45 combined on the perceptionnaire which were directly related to Hypothesis No. I. According to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators, both groups believed that provision of materials for teaching purposes would help improvement of instruction. The results are summarized in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD METHODS AND MATERIALS USED FOR INSTRUCTION TESTED BY MANN WHITNEY U TEST

Sample	Number of Cases
Faculty Members	144
Academic Administrators	37

z-score	2 Tailed P value
-0.5971	0.5504

The results of the Mann Whitney U Test and the raw data related to each practice included in this hypothesis are summarized in Tables IX and X.

TABLE IX

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO METHODS AND MATERIALS USED FOR INSTRUCTION

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
2. Department heads see that staff members are provided with copies of the faculty handbook containing information about the availability of instructional aids, suggested types of examinations and methods of instruction.		-1.0964		2.718	62.1
Faculty Members	2.675		160		
Academic Administrators	2.881		42		
8. Faculty members are provided adequate clerical assistance in the preparation of class materials and in the performance of routine jobs.		-0.8573		3.375	74.7
Faculty Members	3.396		164		
Academic Administrators	3.295		44		
14. Librarians furnish prepared bibliographies, lists of references and other aids for instruction.		-0.9824		2.740	30.5
Faculty Members	2.782		156		
Academic Administrators	2.575		40		

IX - Continued

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
20. Books, magazines, pamphlets, and other materials on the improvement of instruction are placed in a convenient place for faculty use.		-0.4120		2.680	30.7
Faculty Members	2.692		159		
Academic Administrators	2.634		41		
26. Bulletins containing summaries of educational research and helpful hints on improving teaching are circulated regularly among the faculty.		-0.7086		2.518	33.0
Faculty Members	2.538		158		
Academic Administrators	2.439		41		
31. Efforts to minimize faculty time on committees and in clerical or semi-administrative duties should be made in order to maximize time for class preparation.		-1.8914		3.155	39.6
Faculty Members	3.215		163		
Academic Administrators	2.930		43		
35. The teaching load is adjusted to facilitate a faculty member's participation in institutional activities other than teaching.		-0.9843		3.209	39.7
Faculty Members	3.239		159		
Academic Administration	3.095		42		

IX - Continued

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
40. Department heads see that classes are not too crowded and set an optimal size for each class.		-0.9822		3.300	66.3
Faculty Members	3.270		163		
Academic Administrators	3.409		44		
44. Department heads encourage faculty members to do research in instructional methods and see that time as well as equipment, materials and facilities are provided for this purpose.		-1.6739		2.765	29.9
Faculty Members	2.816		158		
Academic Administrators	2.571		42		
45. Department heads provide faculty members with multi-sensory aids such as film-strips, slides, movies, television, audio-tapes, opaque and overhead projectors in order to enhance instructional improvement.		-0.5359		3.194	76.0
Faculty Members	3.206		160		
Academic Administrators	3.146		41		

TABLE X

FACULTY MEMBERS' AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS' RATING PERCENTAGE FOR EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO METHODS AND MATERIALS USED FOR IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

Practices	Groups	Excellent	Very Good	Average	Poor
No. 2	F	30.6 n=49	20.0 n=32	35.6 n=57	13.7 n=22
	A	38.1 n=16	19.0 n=8	35.7 n=15	7.1 n=3
No. 8	F	60.4 n=99	22.0 n=36	14.6 n=24	3.0 n=5
	A	52.3 n=23	25.0 n=11	22.7 n=10	--
No. 14	F	31.4 n=49	30.1 n=47	23.7 n=37	14.7 n=23
	A	27.5 n=11	27.5 n=11	20.0 n=8	25.0 n=10
No. 20	F	25.8 n=41	29.6 n=47	32.7 n=52	11.9 n=19
	A	24.4 n=10	24.4 n=10	41.5 n=17	9.8 n=4
No. 26	F	19.6 n=31	29.7 n=47	35.4 n=56	15.2 n=24
	A	19.5 n=8	19.5 n=8	46.3 n=19	14.6 n=6
No. 31	F	49.7 n=81	28.2 n=46	16.0 n=26	6.1 n=10
	A	32.6 n=14	34.9 n=15	25.6 n=11	7.0 n=3
No. 35	F	49.7 n=79	28.3 n=45	18.2 n=29	3.8 n=6
	A	40.5 n=17	33.3 n=14	21.4 n=9	4.8 n=2
No. 40	F	47.2 n=77	35.0 n=57	15.3 n=25	2.5 n=4
	A	54.5 n=24	34.1 n=15	9.1 n=4	2.3 n=1
No. 44	F	32.3 n=51	31.6 n=50	21.5 n=34	14.6 n=23
	A	16.7 n=7	35.7 n=15	35.7 n=15	11.9 n=5
No. 45	F	48.7 n=78	28.7 n=46	16.9 n=27	5.6 n=9
	A	41.5 n=17	36.6 n=15	17.1 n=7	4.9 n=2

F = Faculty Members; A = Academic Administrators

Practice #2

Department heads see that staff members are provided with copies of the faculty handbook containing information about the availability of instructional aids, suggested types of examination and methods of instruction.

Based on the ratings of one hundred and sixty faculty members and forty-two academic administrators, the total mean score was found to be 2.718. Therefore, the practice was ranked twenty-seventh in importance as a method for improvement of instruction. Almost 31 per cent of faculty members and 38 per cent of academic administrators valued the practice excellent, and 14 per cent of faculty members and 7.1 per cent of academic administrators rated the practice as a poor strategy for improving instruction. The differences of attitudes was not significant. More than 62 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #8

Faculty members are provided adequate clerical assistance in the preparation of class materials and in the performance of routine jobs.

Over 60 per cent of faculty members and 52.3 per cent of academic administrators rated the practice excellent. Only 3 per cent of faculty members and none of the academic administrators rated the practice as a poor strategy for

improvement of instruction. However, the ratings of the two groups were not significantly different. Almost 75 per cent of the respondents indicated that clerical assistance is provided to some extent. According to the total mean score of 3.375, the practice was ranked the fifth highest strategy for improving instruction.

Practice #14

Librarians furnish prepared bibliographies, lists of references and other aids for instruction.

The mean score for the ratings of faculty members was 2.782, and the one for academic administrators was 2.575. The difference between the two means was not significant. The total mean score of 2.740 ranked the importance of the practice twenty-fourth. A number of respondents stated that preparation of bibliographies and lists of references should be done by faculty members and not by the librarians. The importance of the practice was ranked in the third quartile, and 30.5 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used in their department or division.

Practice #20

Books, magazines, pamphlets, and other materials on the improvement of instruction are placed in a convenient place for faculty use.

Faculty members and academic administrators did not react differently toward this practice. The mean scores of

2.692 and 2.634 for the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different. The highest percentages of the two groups were concentrated on the third category, a usual or average method for improvement of instruction. (See Table IX.) Based on the total mean score of 2.680, the practice was ranked as the fifteenth lowest strategy for improvement of instruction. Almost 31 per cent of the respondents marked it as being used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #26

Bulletins containing summaries of educational research and helpful hints on improving teaching are circulated regularly among the faculty.

The mean related to the ratings of faculty members was 2.538 and the one of academic administrators was 2.439. These two means were not significantly different. The total mean score of 2.518 was ranked as the eleventh lowest practice for improving instruction. The larger percentage of the ratings related to both groups was concentrated under the third category of the scale. Almost one-third of the respondents said the practice is used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #31

Efforts to minimize faculty time on committees and in clerical or semi-administrative duties should be made in

order to maximize time for class preparation.

About 50 per cent of the faculty members and 33 per cent of the academic administrators rated the practice as an excellent strategy for improvement of instruction. (See Table X.) The mean score for the ratings of faculty members was 3.215, and the one for academic administrators was 2.930. Even though faculty members rated the practice higher than did academic administrators, the difference of the attitudes of the two groups was not significant. The total mean score of 3.155 was ranked twelfth, and 39.6 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #35

The teaching load is adjusted to facilitate a faculty member's participation in institutional activities other than teaching.

The contradictory nature of Practice #31 with this one did not create major differences in the ratings of faculty members. Apparently, faculty members would like to be involved in administrative practices as well as teaching. The mean score for the ratings of academic administrators was 3.095, and the one for faculty members was 3.239, scores not significantly different. The total mean score of 3.209 ranked the practice as the tenth most important

strategy for improvement of instruction. Almost 40 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used in their divisions or departments.

Practice #40

Department heads see that classes are not too crowded and set an optional size for each class.

Attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different in regards to this strategy for improvement of instruction. The mean score for the ratings of faculty members was 3.270, and the one of academic administrators was 3.409. The total mean score (3.300) calculated from the ratings of 207 respondents was ranked as the sixth most important method for improvement of instruction. More than 66 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used in their department/divisions. One faculty member wrote, "You cannot mass-produce education. It is the tedious work of a craftsman. Too many of those enrolled in university classes may not be educable." However, setting an optimal size for classes was greatly favored by both faculty members and academic administrators.

Practice #44

Department heads encourage faculty members to do research in instructional methods and see that time, as well as equipment, materials and facilities are provided for this purpose.

The two groups rated the practice differently but not significantly different. The mean calculated for the ratings of faculty members was 2.816, while the one for academic administrators was 2.571. Almost 30 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used. The total mean score was 2.765. Based on this value, the importance of the practice was ranked twenty-second.

Practice #45

Department heads provide faculty members with multi-sensory aids such as filmstrips, slides, movies, television, audio-tapes, opaque and overhead projectors in order to enhance instructional improvement.

Faculty members and academic administrators believed that using multisensory aids could be very helpful to the improvement of instruction. The mean scores for the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were 3.206 and 3.146 respectively. Even though faculty members had rated the practice higher, the difference was not significant. The total mean score was 3.194, and based on this value, the importance of the practice was ranked eleventh. The usage of this practice was found to be among the ten most commonly used practices because 76 per cent of the respondents said that it was used in their departments or divisions. (See Tables IX and X.)

Hypothesis No. III

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to evaluation of teachers' performance: department chair evaluation, self-evaluation, student evaluation, and peer evaluation.

The z-score obtained for significance of difference in the attitudes of academic administrators and faculty members toward evaluation of teaching was -1.7559, resulting in a level of significance of 0.0791. The obtained z-score is less than the tabled value of 1.96. There are no grounds for rejecting the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis must be retained based upon the responses to practice 5, practice 11, practice 17, and practice 23 combined on the perceptionnaire which were directly related to Hypothesis No. III. Table XI illustrates the results of the Mann Whitney U Test applied to the hypothesis. Based on these results, academic administrators and faculty members believed that instruction could be improved by appropriate evaluation. However, academic administrators indicated a more positive attitude toward the practices included in this hypothesis.

The results of the Mann Whitney U Test and the raw data related to each practice included in this hypothesis are summarized in Tables XII and XIII.

TABLE XI

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD EVALUATION OF TEACHERS' PERFORMANCE TESTED BY MANN WHITNEY U TEST

Sample	Number of Cases
Faculty Members	146
Academic Administrators	43

z-score	2 Tailed P Value
-1.7559	0.0791

Practice #5

Department heads evaluate faculty members' teaching effectiveness and provide constructive criticism where indicated.

The calculated means of the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were 2.634 and 3.000 respectively. The difference between the two mean scores was found to be significantly different due to the obtained z-score of -2.1749. Academic administrators were more supportive for the practice of this strategy. They believed that evaluation of faculty members by department or division chairs could be helpful to improvement of instruction. On the contrary, not too many faculty members liked

TABLE XII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO EVALUATION OF TEACHERS' PERFORMANCE

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
5. Department heads evaluate faculty members' teaching effectiveness and provide constructive criticism where indicated.		-2.1749		2.712	59.9
Faculty Members	2.634		161		
Academic Administrators	3.000		44		
11. Faculty members will adopt a self-evaluation instrument with which to analyze their own feelings about their teaching effectiveness.		-0.2546		2.753	26.3
Faculty Members	2.735		155		
Academic Administrators	2.814		43		
17. Provision is made for anonymous evaluation of each instructor by the students for the use of the teacher in improving performance.		-0.6076		2.796	92.0
Faculty Members	2.945		163		
Academic Administrators	3.091		44		
23. Department heads assign senior faculty members to observe their peers' classroom instruction and evaluate their performance.		-1.9778		1.750	5.9
Faculty Members	1.693		153		
Academic Administrators	1.953		43		

TABLE XIII

FACULTY MEMBERS' AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS' RATING PERCENTAGES FOR EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO EVALUATION OF TEACHERS' PERFORMANCE

Practices	Groups	Excellent	Very Good	Average	Poor
No. 5	F	23.6 n = 38	34.8 n = 56	23.0 n = 37	18.6 n = 30
	A	43.2 n = 19	25.0 n = 11	20.5 n = 9	11.4 n = 5
No. 11	F	31.6 n = 49	25.8 n = 40	27.1 n = 42	15.5 n = 24
	A	27.9 n = 12	32.6 n = 14	32.6 n = 14	7.0 n = 3
No. 17	F	41.1 n = 67	22.7 n = 37	25.8 n = 42	10.4 n = 17
	A	43.2 n = 19	25.0 n = 11	29.5 n = 13	2.3 n = 1
No. 23	F	8.5 n = 13	10.5 n = 16	22.9 n = 35	58.2 n = 89
	A	11.6 n = 5	11.6 n = 5	37.2 n = 16	39.5 n = 17

the idea of being evaluated by their department or division chairs. One faculty member said the practice of evaluating faculty members' teaching by department heads be used "only if too many complaints from students." Otherwise, they generally felt that department or division heads lack the competency to do so. However, the importance of the practice was ranked twenty-eighth based on a total mean score

of 2.712. Almost 60 per cent of the respondents said that the practice is used in their departments or divisions. (See Table X.)

Practice #11

Faculty members will adopt a self-evaluation instrument with which to analyze their own feelings about their teaching effectiveness.

Faculty members and academic administrators did not believe that a self-evaluation device would greatly improve instruction, even though the strategy is designed for such a purpose. The mean score for the ratings of academic administrators was 2.814 and faculty members 2.735, which were not significantly different. The practice was ranked twenty-third based on a total mean score of 2.753. More than 26 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used. (See Table XIII.) Faculty members prefer to be self-evaluated rather than being evaluated by department heads while academic administrators valued the latter higher than the former.

Practice #17

Provision is made for anonymous evaluation of each instructor by students for the use of the teacher in improving his/her performance.

The practice was rated as the second most commonly used strategy (92.0 per cent) for instructional improvement

purposes. One faculty member stated, "I do not give grades to my students anonymously; why should the students not sign their comments on me?" Another respondent wrote that students' anonymous rating is "probably practiced more for salary consideration." More than 40 per cent of each group valued the practice as an excellent method used by department or division heads for improving teaching. The mean score for the ratings of administrators was 3.091 and the one of faculty members 2.945. The total mean score of 2.976 ranked the importance of the practice eighteenth.

Practice #23

Department heads assign senior faculty members to observe their peers' classroom instruction and evaluate their performance.

The obtained z-score of -1.9778 was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, there is a significant difference in the attitudes of the two groups toward this practice. According to this study, the practice was found to be the second lowest used strategy (5.9 per cent) and the least important method for the improvement of instruction due to the total mean score of 1.750. (See Table XII.) Over 58 per cent of the faculty members and 39.5 per cent of academic administrators valued the practice as a poor strategy. (See Table XIII.) One faculty member commented that the practice is "done only at faculty's request for

his or her feeling of accountability and desire to learn more." Neither of the two groups believed that this practice could help improve instruction.

Hypothesis No. IV

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to participation of faculty members in administrative practices: determination of policies, freedom of thought, and selection of new faculty members.

The z-score obtained for significance in the attitudes of academic administrators and faculty members toward participating faculty members in administrative practices was -0.2905, resulting in a level of significance of 0.7714. There is no ground for rejecting the null hypothesis since the obtained z-score is less than 1.96 at a .05 level of significance. The null hypothesis is retained based upon the responses to practice 3, practice 9, practice 15, practice 21, practice 27, and practice 36 combined on the perceptionnaire which were directly related to Hypothesis No. IV. Table XIV illustrates the results of the Mann Whitney U Test applied to the hypothesis. Based on the values given to each practice by faculty members and academic administrators, both groups believed that participation of faculty members in administrative practices could help improve the instructional process.

TABLE XIV

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD PARTICIPATION OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN ADMINISTRATIVE STUDIES TESTED BY MANN WHITNEY U TEST

Sample	Number of Cases
Faculty Members	152
Academic Administrators	39

z-score	2 Tailed P Value
-0.2905	0.7714

The results of the Mann Whitney U Test and the raw data related to each practice included in this hypothesis are summarized in Tables XV and XVI.

Practice #3

All faculty members participate in the selection of new faculty members.

There were no significant differences between the two mean scores of 3.069 and 3.000 related to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators. More than 51 per cent of the academic administrators and 47.5 per cent of faculty members rated the practice as an excellent strategy for improving instruction. (See Table XVI.) Approximately 60 per cent of the respondents reported that faculty members

TABLE XV

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO PARTICIPATION OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
3. All faculty members participate in the selection of new faculty members.		-0.0444		3.054	59.9
Faculty Members	3.069		160		
Academic Administrators	3.000		43		
9. Department heads and deans will reward superior teaching with promotion, public recognition and salary increments.		-0.4043		3.444	50.5
Faculty Members	3.436		163		
Academic Administrators	3.477		44		
15. The institution provides funds for publication of faculty research.		-0.8876		3.135	29.2
Faculty Members	3.164		159		
Academic Administrators	3.024		41		
21. Freedom of thought and expression within the area of a faculty member's field is guaranteed.		-0.5317		3.522	95.5
Faculty Members	3.545		165		
Academic Administrators	3.432		44		

XV - Continued

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
27. Faculty members through committees or other mechanisms participate in the determination and implementation of policy in such matters as salary, tenure, and promotion.		-0.5338		3.272	79.9
Faculty Members	3.284		162		
Academic Administrators	3.227		44		
36. Department heads require faculty members to set goals and objectives for each academic year and examine these objectives against the institution's long range goals or mission statement.		-2.3141		2.570	39.8
Faculty Members	2.478		159		
Academic Administrators	2.927		41		

TABLE XVI

FACULTY MEMBERS' AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS' RATING PERCENTAGES FOR EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO PARTICIPATION OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES

Practices	Groups	Excellent	Very Good	Average	Poor
No. 3	F	47.5 n=76	24.4 n=39	15.6 n=25	12.5 n=20
	A	51.2 n=22	18.6 n=8	9.3 n=4	20.9 n=9
No. 9	F	62.0 n=101	24.5 n=40	8.6 n=14	4.9 n=8
	A	65.9 n=29	18.2 n=8	13.6 n=6	2.3 n=1
No. 15	F	53.5 n=85	18.2 n=29	19.5 n=31	8.8 n=14
	A	43.9 n=18	26.8 n=11	17.1 n=7	12.2 n=5
No. 21	F	67.3 n=111	21.8 n=36	9.1 n=15	1.8 n=3
	A	65.9 n=29	13.6 n=6	18.2 n=8	2.3 n=1
No. 27	F	56.2 n=91	20.4 n=33	19.1 n=31	4.3 n=7
	A	52.3 n=23	22.7 n=10	20.5 n=9	4.5 n=2
No. 36	F	23.3 n=37	25.8 n=41	26.4 n=42	24.5 n=39
	A	36.6 n=15	26.8 n=11	29.3 n=12	7.3 n=3

F = Faculty Members; A = Academic Administrators

are involved in the selection of new faculty members in their departments and divisions. Based on the calculated total mean score of 3.054, the importance of the practice was ranked seventeenth as a strategy for improving instruction.

Practice #9

Department heads and deans will reward superior teaching with promotion, public recognition, and salary increments.

The comparatively high mean scores of 3.436 and 3.477 calculated from the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators respectively, indicate that rewarding superior teaching could be very helpful to improvement of instruction. More than 60 per cent of each group rated it as an excellent strategy for improving teaching. (See Table XVI.) Several of the comments made by respondents indicate that department heads cannot do much about rewarding superior teaching. One faculty member said that the practice is "out of department head control in some cases." Another comment was that "they can only recommend it." Other comments made on this practice connote that promotion and salary increments are mostly based on research. One respondent wrote, "promotion, etc. is based predominantly on research rather than good teaching." Considering the total mean score of 3.444, the practice was

ranked as the third most important strategy for improving instruction. More than 50 per cent said the practice is used in their divisions or departments. (See Table XV.)

Practice #15

The institution provides funds for publication of faculty research.

The application of this practice ought not directly enhance the improvement of instruction mainly because the emphasis is on research rather than teaching. Also, many department heads may not have control of funds and designation of funds to special activities. However, the mean scores of 3.164 and 3.024 related to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different. The total mean score was 3.135; therefore, the practice was ranked thirteenth. Approximately 30 per cent of the respondents reported it used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #21

Freedom of thought and expression within the area of a faculty member's field is guaranteed.

According to the responses of 207 participants, freedom of thought was valued as the most important aspect in improvement of instruction. The total mean score was 3.522, and 95.5 per cent of the respondents indicated that the practice is used in their departments or divisions. (See

Table XV.) More than 65 per cent of faculty members and academic administrators rated the practice excellent. (See Table XVI.) One faculty member wrote, "This freedom is absolutely essential. Without it, the free exchange of ideas ceases."

Practice #27

Faculty members through committees or other mechanisms participate in the determination and implementation of policy in such matters as salary, tenure, and promotion.

Faculty members' and academic administrators' ratings resulted in the mean scores of 3.284 and 3.227, which were not significantly different. Participation by faculty members in decisions related to matters such as salary, tenure, and promotion will build a high morale, and this indirectly will have positive effects on the teaching process. One faculty member wrote, "The University is a community of scholars. The function of department head, dean, vice presidents, and president should be to carry out the will of this community of scholars." Carrying out the will of faculty members would be much easier if they participate in decisions which are related to them. Based on the total mean socre of 3.272, the importance of the practice was ranked seventh. Almost 80 per cent of the participants said the practice is used. (See Table XV.) Therefore, it was found to be the fourth most widely used practice.

Practice #36

Department heads require faculty members to set goals and objectives for each academic year and examine these objectives against the institution's long range goals or mission statement.

According to the obtained z-score of -2.3141 (Table XV), the difference in the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators was found to be significant at a .05 level toward this practice. The mean score for the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were 2.478 and 2.927 respectively. The total mean score of 2.570 ranked the importance of the practice as the twelfth lowest strategy for improvement of instruction. Approximately 40 per cent of the respondents said that management by objective is used in their department or division. (See Table XV.)

Hypothesis No. V

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to professional development of faculty members: their attendance at seminars and workshops, visiting other institutions, summer travels and joining field study groups, leaves of absence with full salary for scholarly work and research, membership in learned societies, inviting outside lecturers, and team teaching.

The z-score obtained for significance of difference in the attitudes of academic administrators and faculty members toward professional development of faculty members was 0.7108, resulting in a level of significance of 0.4772. The obtained z-score does not lead us to reject the null hypothesis since it does not reach the required level of 1.96 at .05 level of significance. Upon the responses to practice 6, practice 12, practice 18, practice 24, practice 29, practice 33, practice 38, practice 41 and practice 43 combined in the perceptionnaire which were directly related to Hypothesis No. V, retention of the null hypothesis is guaranteed. Table XVII illustrates the results of the Mann Whitney U Test applied to the hypothesis. Based on these results, it was found that faculty members and academic administrators support the idea that faculty members should continue to develop professionally and that their knowledge of the field that they teach must be continually updated if an instructional improvement is desired. The results of the Mann Whitney U Test and the raw data related to each practice included in the hypothesis are summarized in Tables XVIII and XIX.

Practice #6

A periodic seminar or workshop on problems of college teaching will be offered by a "master" teacher.

TABLE XVII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF FACULTY MEMBERS TESTED BY MANN WHITNEY U TEST

Sample	Number of Cases
Faculty Members	132
Academic Administrators	32
z-score	2 Tailed P Value
-0.7108	0.4772

According to a z-score of -2.1038 the difference between the means of the two groups was significant at a .05 level. The calculated mean for the ratings of faculty members was 2.599 and the one for academic administrators was 3.049. Academic administrators rated the practice higher than faculty members as a strategy for improvement of instruction. Faculty members did not believe that the help of a master teacher will have a significant impact on their professional development. Based on the total mean score of 2.680, the practice was ranked as the fifteenth lowest strategy for improving instruction. Almost 18 per cent of the respondents reported it to be used in their department or division.

TABLE XVIII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF FACULTY MEMBERS

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
6. A periodic seminar or workshop on problems of college teaching will be offered by a "master" teacher.		-2.1038		2.680	17.9
Faculty Members	2.599		159		
Academic Administrators	3.049		41		
12. Department heads will encourage faculty members to visit other similar institutions to study institutional organization and curriculum and to observe outstanding teachers.		-0.0829		2.510	6.5
Faculty Members	2.503		153		
Academic Administrators	2.535		43		
18. Regular seminars are held in which small voluntary groups of faculty members meet to exchange ideas and consider new research findings relative to the improvement of instructional practices.		-0.0671		2.732	21.0
Faculty Members	2.731		156		
Academic Administrators	2.738		42		

XVIII - Continued

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
24. Faculty members are motivated to do summer travel, to join summer field study groups and to accept exchange professorships.		-0.6679		3.070	29.4
Faculty Members	3.082		159		
Academic Administrators	3.024		42		
29. Leaves of absence with salary are provided for scholarly work and research.		-0.2803		3.472	9.0
Faculty Members	3.462		156		
Academic Administrators	3.512		41		
33. Department heads will encourage faculty members to join learned societies and will provide travel funds for attendance at selected professional meetings. The attendees will make reports of such meetings to their colleagues.		-0.7876		3.214	68.4
Faculty Members	3.242		161		
Academic Administrators	3.100		40		
38. Individual and group conferences on the improvement of instruction are held by outside experts at periodic intervals.		-0.0159		2.508	19.6
Faculty Members	2.506		158		
Academic Administrators	2.512		41		

XVIII - Continued

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
41. Department heads encourage faculty members to participate in team teaching and become acquainted with the methods and techniques used by other colleagues.		-0.3798		2.739	33.5
Faculty Members	2.722		158		
Academic Administrators	2.805		41		
43. Department heads encourage faculty members without terminal degrees to pursue advanced degrees or to take additional university course work.		-0.9906		3.235	79.2
Faculty Members	3.195		149		
Academic Administrators	3.412		34		

TABLE XIX

FACULTY MEMBERS' AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS' RATING PERCENTAGES FOR EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF FACULTY MEMBERS

Practice	Groups	Excellent	Very Good	Average	Poor
No. 6	F	29.6 n=47	25.8 n=41	18.2 n=29	26.4 n=42
	A	36.6 n=15	39.0 n=16	17.1 n=7	7.3 n=3
No. 12	F	22.2 n=34	28.1 n=43	27.5 n=42	22.2 n=34
	A	16.3 n=7	39.5 n=17	25.6 n=11	18.6 n=8
No. 18	F	24.4 n=38	37.2 n=58	25.6 n=40	12.8 n=20
	A	33.3 n=14	19.0 n=8	35.7 n=15	11.9 n=5
No. 24	F	39.0 n=62	35.8 n=57	19.5 n=31	5.7 n=9
	A	31.0 n=13	42.9 n=78	23.8 n=10	2.4 n=1
No. 29	F	66.0 n=103	19.9 n=31	8.3 n=13	5.8 n=9
	A	61.0 n=25	29.3 n=12	9.8 n=4	--
No. 33	F	49.7 n=80	29.2 n=47	16.8 n=27	4.3 n=7
	A	45.0 n=18	27.5 n=11	20.0 n=8	7.5 n=3
No. 38	F	20.9 n=33	31.0 n=49	25.9 n=41	22.2 n=35
	A	19.5 n=8	31.7 n=13	29.3 n=12	19.5 n=8
No. 41	F	25.9 n=41	34.2 n=54	25.9 n=41	13.9 n=22
	A	31.7 n=13	26.8 n=11	31.7 n=13	9.8 n=4
No. 43	F	51.0 n=76	22.8 n=34	20.8 n=31	5.4 n=8
	A	52.9 n=18	38.2 n=13	5.9 n=2	2.9 n=1

F = Faculty Members; A = Academic Administrators

Practice #12

Department heads will encourage faculty members to visit other similar institutions to study institutional organization and curriculum and to observe outstanding teachers.

The mean scores of 2.503 and 2.535 related to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different. The total mean score was 2.510; consequently, the practice was ranked as the tenth lowest strategy for improving instruction. Only 6.5 per cent of the respondents reported that the practice is used in their departments or divisions. Therefore, visiting other similar institutions was found to be the third least commonly used strategy for the improvement of instruction. Based on the obtained data, neither of the groups believed visiting other institutions by faculty members could improve instruction.

Practice #18

Regular seminars are held in which small voluntary groups of faculty members meet to exchange ideas and consider new research findings relative to the improvement of instructional practices.

The mean calculated for the ratings of faculty members was 2.731 and the one for academic administrators was 2.738; therefore, the practice was almost equally valued by both

groups. The total mean score of 2.732 ranked the importance of this practice as the twentieth lowest strategy. Only one-fifth of the respondents marked the practice as being used in their department or division. According to the ratings of the two groups, this practice was valued higher than the two previous ones but still too low to be considered as a valuable strategy for improvement.

Practice #24

Faculty members are motivated to do summer travel, to join summer field study groups and to accept exchange professorships.

Respondents were much more in favor of this practice rather than the previous ones as a strategy for professional development of faculty members. The means for the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were 3.082 and 3.024. The 3.070 total mean score of the practice was ranked fifteenth, and almost 30 per cent of the participants said the practice is used in their departments or divisions. Naturally, time consuming practices with no compensation do not seem to be very attractive, even if they might help improvement of instruction.

Practice #29

Leaves of absence with salary are provided for scholarly work and research.

Updated knowledge is the main concern of every scholar in his or her discipline. Faculty members need the opportunity to grasp the current knowledge in their fields. One faculty member wrote, "Some of my colleagues are teaching on knowledge which is a quarter-of-a-century out of date, but they have no chance to update their skills. Each semester is a rush of overcrowded classes and harrowing committee assignments."

No significant difference was found between the mean scores of 3.462 and 3.512 related to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators. Based on a very high total mean score of 3.472, the practice was valued as the second most important strategy for improving instruction. Over 60 per cent of both groups rated it excellent. (See Table XIX.) Less than 10 per cent of respondents reported it used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #33

Department heads will encourage faculty members to join learned societies and will provide travel funds for attendance at selected professional meetings. The attendees will make reports of such meetings to their colleagues.

The practice was found to be popular in the departments and divisions of North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University. Almost 50 per cent of faculty members and 45 per cent of academic administrators rated the

practice excellent. (See Table XIX.) The mean scores of 3.242 and 3.100 related to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different. The total mean score was 3.214; therefore, the practice was ranked as the ninth most important strategy for improvement of instruction. Over 68 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #38

Individual and group conferences on the improvement of instruction are held by outside experts at periodic intervals.

According to the total mean score of 2.508, the practice was found to be among the ten least valued strategies for improving instruction. The calculated mean scores for the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were 2.506 and 2.512 respectively. The attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different toward conferences held by outside lecturers in regard to improvement of instruction. Less than 30 per cent of the respondents reported that the practice is used in their departments or divisions. Faculty members and academic administrators did not believe the practice of this strategy would drastically affect the instructional improvement process.

Practice #41

Department heads encourage faculty members to participate in team teaching and to become acquainted with the methods and techniques used by other colleagues.

The mean score for the ratings of academic administrators was 2.805 and the one for faculty members was 2.722. However, the difference was not significant at a .05 level of significance. The total mean score of 2.739 ranked team teaching twenty-fifth as a strategy for improvement of instruction. More than 33 per cent of respondents reported the practice as being used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #43

Department heads encourage faculty members without terminal degrees to pursue advanced degrees or to take additional university coursework.

Over 50 per cent of the participants of each group rated the practice excellent. The total mean score of 3.235 was ranked eighth as a strategy for improving teaching. There was no significant difference between the two mean scores of 3.195 and 3.412 related to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators. Many of the respondents noted that a terminal degree is required in their departments and applicants with less than a doctoral degree are not employed. Therefore, more than 79 per cent of the

respondents said the practice is used. Based on this report, the practice was found to be the sixth most used strategy in departments or divisions.

Hypothesis No. VI

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators in regard to evaluating the outcomes of instruction: behavioral objectives, conferences with students and alumni, institutional self-study, and maintaining a committee in the institution for the improvement of instruction.

The z-score obtained for significance of difference in the attitudes of academic administrators and faculty members toward evaluating the outcomes of instruction was -1.2609, resulting in a level of significance of 0.2073. The obtained z-score does not reach the required level of ±1.96 at .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis must be retained based upon the responses to practice 4, practice 10, practice 16, practice 22, practice 28, practice 32 and practice 37 combined on the perceptionnaire which were directly related to Hypothesis No. VI. Table XX illustrates the results of the Mann Whitney U Test applied to the hypothesis. Faculty members and academic administrators believed that evaluating the outcomes of instruction through practices included in the

hypothesis cannot be as helpful as other areas designed for improvement of instruction.

TABLE XX

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES OF INSTRUCTION TESTED BY MANN WHITNEY U TEST

Sample	Number of Cases
Faculty Members	101
Academic Administrators	28

z-score	2 Tailed P Value
-1.2609	0.2073

The results of the Mann Whitney U Test and the raw data related to each practice included in this hypothesis are summarized in Tables XXI and XXII.

Practice #4

Provision is made for defining behavioral or specific objectives in terms of outcomes which can be measured objectively.

Sixteen individuals did not rate this practice apparently because the term behavioral objective was not clear for them or the practice was not defined explicitly.

TABLE XXI

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES OF INSTRUCTION

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
4. Provision is made for defining behavioral or specific objectives in terms of outcomes which can be measured objectively.		-1.3840		2.592	40.9
Faculty Members	2.542		144		
Academic Administrators	2.775		40		
10. Instructors will be encouraged to seek input from students about teaching methods, course content and expectations.		-1.3100		3.059	80.6
Faculty Members	3.006		159		
Academic Administrators	3.250		44		
16. Informal conferences or surveys are conducted with alumni to receive suggestions concerning the teaching effectiveness of staff.		-1.2318		2.688	26.2
Faculty Members	2.639		153		
Academic Administrators	2.864		44		
22. Each instructor shall try to comply with the institution's grading policy.		-0.6547		2.899	79.6
Faculty Members	2.873		157		
Academic Administrators	3.000		42		

XXI - Continued

Practices	Mean for each Group	z-Score	No. of Valid Cases	Total Mean Score	(PCT) Used
28. An institutional self-study is made to evaluate the quality of teaching.		-1.4759		2.687	55.2
Faculty Members	2.624		157		
Academic Administrators	2.927		41		
32. The institution maintains a committee to stimulate and assist with research studies aimed at determining the relative effectiveness of alternative instructional modes.		-0.3866		2.505	15.3
Faculty Members	2.520		150		
Academic Administrators	2.447		38		
37. Department heads confer with students, privately or in groups, about the effectiveness of instruction, seeking their suggestions for improvement.		-1.2328		2.462	35.8
Faculty Members	2.413		155		
Academic Administrators	2.643		42		

TABLE XXII

FACULTY MEMBERS' AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS' RATING PERCENTAGES FOR EACH PRACTICE RELATED TO EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES OF INSTRUCTION

Practice	Groups	Excellent	Very Good	Average	Poor
No. 4	F	20.1 n=29	34.7 n=50	24.3 n=35	20.8 n=30
	A	32.5 n=13	32.5 n=13	15.0 n=6	20.0 n=8
No. 10	F	41.5 n=66	27.7 n=44	20.8 n=33	10.1 n=16
	A	50.0 n=22	27.3 n=12	20.5 n=9	2.3 n=1
No. 16	F	24.5 n=38	31.0 n=48	28.4 n=44	16.1 n=25
	A	31.8 n=14	36.4 n=16	18.2 n=8	13.6 n=6
No. 22	F	35.7 n=56	28.7 n=45	22.9 n=36	12.7 n=20
	A	42.9 n=18	19.0 n=8	33.3 n=14	4.8 n=2
No. 28	F	30.6 n=48	21.0 n=33	28.7 n=45	19.7 n=31
	A	41.5 n=17	22.0 n=9	24.4 n=10	12.2 n=5
No. 32	F	18.7 n=28	32.7 n=49	30.7 n=46	18.0 n=27
	A	5.3 n=2	50.0 n=19	28.9 n=11	15.8 n=6
No. 37	F	21.9 n=34	21.9 n=34	31.6 n=49	24.5 n=38
	A	28.6 n=12	21.4 n=9	35.7 n=15	14.3 n=6

F = Faculty Members; A = Academic Administrators

According to the obtained mean scores of 2.542 and 2.775, faculty members rated the practice lower than academic administrators; however, the difference was not significant at the .05 level. According to the total mean score of 2.592, the importance of the practice was ranked thirteenth as a strategy for the improvement of instruction. Almost 41 per cent of participants responded that the practice is used in their departments or divisions. Even though the practice was not ranked very high, exit behaviors of the students can be measured objectively with proper measuring devices to examine the effects of instruction.

Practice #10

Instructors will be encouraged to seek input from students about teaching methods, course content and expectations.

Academic administrators, with a mean score of 3.250, rated the practice higher than faculty members, who had a mean score of 3.006. The difference between the two means was not significant at a .05 level. Fifty per cent of the academic administrators and 41.5 per cent of faculty members rated this practice excellent. The total mean score of 3.059 was ranked sixteenth as the most important strategy for improving instruction. Over 80 per cent of the respondents said the practice is used in their departments or divisions; therefore, it was found to be the third most

commonly used method. Students are the receivers of the instruction, and they should be first to be asked about the effectiveness of instruction.

Practice #16

Informal conference or surveys are conducted with alumni to receive suggestions concerning the teaching effectiveness of staff.

Alumni cannot be a good source for evaluating the instructional process. Their information and knowledge about the instructional process cannot be current. The mean score for the ratings of faculty members was 2.639 and the one of academic administrators was 2.864. Even though academic administrators rated the practice higher, the total mean score of 2.688 ranked the importance of this practice seventeenth. About 26 per cent of respondents reported it as being used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #22

Each instructor shall try to comply with the institution's grading policy.

Administrators, with a mean score of 3.000, valued the practice higher than faculty members who had a mean score of 2.873. Faculty members rated it lower probably because they do not like to follow a set grading policy. As one respondent wrote, "Grading is largely a faculty prerogative." The total mean score was found to be 2.899.

Consequently, the strategy was ranked twenty-first. The practice was also found to be the fourth most commonly used strategy because 79.9 per cent reported it as being used in their departments or divisions.

Practice #28

An institutional self-study is made to evaluate the quality of teaching.

This practice could be an important strategy for improvement of instruction if faculty members were directly involved and participated in organizing such institutional self-studies. Faculty members and academic administrators did not show significantly different attitudes toward this practice as far as their mean scores of 2.624 and 2.927 were concerned. The total mean score of 2.687 ranked the importance of the practice thirtieth as a strategy for improvement of instruction. Approximately 55 per cent of the participants reported it as being used in their departments or divisions. (See Tables XXI and XXII.)

Practice #32

The institution maintains a committee to stimulate and to assist with research studies aimed at determining the relative effectiveness of alternative instructional modes.

Based on a low total mean score of 2.505, the practice was not considered as a highly important strategy for improving instruction. The mean score for the

ratings of faculty members was 2.520, and the one for the academic administrators was 2.447, which were not significantly different. Twenty-two individuals did not rate this strategy. Only 15.3 per cent of respondents said the practice is used in their departments or divisions. The importance of the practice was ranked as the eighth lowest important strategy for improving instruction.

Practice #37

Department heads confer with students, privately or in groups, over the effectiveness of instruction, seeking their suggestions for improvement.

As the review of literature shows, student input could be very helpful to improvement of instruction because students are the direct recipients of instruction. The responses of the participants of this study did not highly support the idea that department heads confer with students to seek their suggestions and points of view over the effectiveness of instruction. Faculty members and administrators ratings resulted in the low mean scores of 2.413 and 2.643. Even though academic administrators valued the practice higher, the difference was not significant. The importance of the practice was ranked as the seventh lowest strategy for improving instruction due to the total mean score of 2.462. Almost 35 percent of the respondents reported it used in their departments or divisions.

Hypothesis No. VII

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and administrators toward improvement of instruction in general.

Hypothesis No. VII was designed to test if significant differences exist between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators toward all the practices. The obtained z-score was -0.1257, resulting in a level of significance of 0.9000. Therefore, the null hypothesis that no significant difference exists between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators toward practices 1-45 combined in the perceptionnaire must be retained.

TABLE XXIII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF FACULTY MEMBERS AND ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN GENERAL TESTED BY MANN WHITNEY U TEST

Sample	Number of Cases
Faculty Members	127
Academic Administrators	35

z-score	2 Tailed P Value
-0.1257	0.9000

Faculty members and academic administrators believed that the instructional process should be improved and that the search for a better learning and teaching environment must be on a continuous base for institutions of higher education. The high positive reactions of both groups to a considerable number of practices compiled in the perceptionnaire could be the indication of such a belief.

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CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was conducted at North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University in Denton, Texas, for the purpose of determining the responses of faculty members and academic administrators to certain practices which might improve the quality of instruction in a university environment. Even though numerous studies have been conducted in an attempt to improve instruction, few studies have been done which compare the attitudes of faculty members with those of academic administrators. As the review of literature in Chapter II suggests, department and division chairpersons are important figures in the process of instructional improvement. Therefore, the emphasis of this study was on proposing a program including practices which faculty members and academic administrators considered valuable strategies to be used by department or division chairpersons for improving instruction.

In order to accomplish the purposes of this study, a Likert-type perceptionnaire for measuring the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators was constructed. Next, the review of literature and related studies suggested a number of practices which could be pooled and submitted as

a whole to a panel of jurors for a review of surface and content validity. When these seven jurors had reviewed the practices and their suggested deletions and additions had been incorporated, the perceptionnaire was reconstructed accordingly.

To test the stability of the instrument, a test-retest procedure was applied. The perceptionnaire was administered twice to a group of doctoral candidates in Higher Education taking a course in Academic Administration. After the reliability of the instrument was established, the perceptionnaires were distributed among the selected faculty members and academic administrators.

A sample of two hundred and seventy faculty members and a total population of seventy academic administrators from the combined staff of North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University were the subjects of this study. These participants each received one copy of the perceptionnaire that was hand carried to their individual offices. Of the completed perceptionnaires, 40 per cent were picked up from offices or departments of the respondents in the first attempt. A follow-up letter and another personal contact resulted in a total return of two hundred and ten perceptionnaires; forty-four from academic administrators and one hundred sixty-six from faculty members for a total 60 per cent rate of return.

The collected data were transferred to computer worksheets and from there to key-punched cards. Analysis of data was then done by utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) through the computer facilities of North Texas State University. Chapter IV presents these data and their statistical analysis.

The forty-five practices compiled in the perceptionnaire were categorized into six general areas for the improvement of instruction. Hypotheses I through VI were related to supervision of instruction, methods and materials used for instruction, evaluation of teachers' performance, participating faculty members in administrative practices, professional development of faculty members, and evaluating the outcomes of instruction. To test whether significant differences existed between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators regarding the six areas cited for improvement of instruction and also each single practice included in each area, the Mann Whitney U Test was found to be a proper procedure. The level of significance was .05.

Findings

The data for the final analysis were obtained through the completed perceptionnaires returned by faculty members and academic administrators. The following results were

found when these data were subjected to the Mann Whitney U Test.

1. There is a significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and those of the academic administrators concerning supervision of instruction. The z-score obtained was -2.0477, resulting in a level of significance of 0.0406. The z-score -2.0477 was significant at a level of .05 with the result that the null hypothesis was rejected.

Faculty members did not believe that the practices related to supervision of instruction could be very helpful for improvement of instruction. They felt this was more likely to be true the less the supervisors in question were professionally trained to supervise instruction. The reaction of academic administrators was more positive. They believed that supervision of instruction could improve the instructional process.

2. The attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different with reference to methods and materials used for improvement of instruction. The obtained z-score of 0.5971 which resulted in a level of significance of 0.5504 was too far from being significant at .05, so the null hypothesis was retained. Faculty members and academic administrators both believed that provision of materials for teaching purposes would help the improvement of instruction.

3. There was no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators toward evaluation of teaching. The obtained z-score of -1.7559 and the resulting level of significance of 0.0791 did not reach the required level of significance; however, the z-score was close to being significant. The null hypothesis was retained. Both groups believed that instruction could be improved by appropriate evaluation, but academic administrators indicated a more positive attitude toward those practices currently used for evaluation of instruction.

4. Faculty members and academic administrators did not indicate a significantly different attitude toward participating faculty members in administrative practices. The obtained z-score of -0.2905 resulted in a level of significance of 0.7714 which did not exceed the minimum level of .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. Faculty members and academic administrators believed that participation of faculty members in administrative practices could help improve the instructional process.

5. The attitudes of faculty members and academic administrators were not significantly different with respect to continued professional development on the part of faculty members. The obtained z-score was 0.7108, resulting in a level of significance of 0.4772 which does not exceed the minimum level of .05. Thus, there was no ground for

rejecting the null hypothesis. Faculty members and academic administrators supported the idea that faculty members should continue to develop professionally and that their knowledge of the field that they teach must be continually updated.

6. There was no significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and those of academic administrators toward evaluating the outcomes of instruction. The obtained z-score was -1.2609, resulting in a level of significance of 0.2073 which does not exceed the required level of 1.96 at .05 level of significance. As a result, the null hypothesis must be retained. According to the collected data, both faculty members and academic administrators believed that practices related to evaluating the outcomes of instruction cannot be as helpful as other areas designed for improvement of instruction.

7. Hypothesis Number VII was stated to test if significant differences existed between the attitudes of faculty members and those of academic administrators toward all the forty-five practices designed for improvement of instruction. The obtained z-score of -0.1257, resulting in a level of significance of 0.9000, did not exceed the required level of 1.96 at a .05 level. Hence, no significant difference was observed between the attitudes of faculty

members and those of academic administrators toward practices one through forty-five designed for the improvement of instruction.

In general, academic administrators and faculty members believed that the instructional process must be improved on a continuous basis through the implementation of proper methods and strategies. However, the two groups reacted differently to several practices included in the perceptionnaire.

Practice 1. Department heads visit classes to observe instruction and have follow-up conferences with faculty members to discuss methods and techniques used.

Faculty members and academic administrators had significantly different attitudes toward the practice of this strategy. The obtained z-score of -2.5538 exceeded the required level of 1.96 at a .05 level of significance.

Faculty members were not very much in favor of this practice probably for two reasons. First, they did not like the idea of being observed or supervised, and second, the level of the competency of academic administrators, particularly department heads, to supervise instruction seemed to be questionable to faculty members. However, academic administrators indicated a more positive attitude toward this practice.

Practice 7. The department head or other designated member of the administration assists teachers in developing more proficiency in teaching methods and techniques.

The obtained z-score of -2.4830 indicates a significant difference between the attitudes of faculty members and those of academic administrators toward this practice. Both groups, especially academic administrators, believed that the practice of this strategy could be more helpful than visiting classrooms to improve instruction.

Practice 34. Department heads arrange orientation programs for new faculty members to enhance their instructional improvement.

The mean scores of 2.898 and 3.275 for the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators were significantly different. Academic administrators indicated a more positive attitude that an orientation program could help a new university professor to enhance his or her acquaintance with the system.

Practice 5. Department heads evaluate faculty members' teaching effectiveness and provide constructive criticism where indicated.

The different mean scores of 2.634 and 3.000 pertaining to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators resulted in a z-score equal to -2.1749 which was significant at the .05 level. Faculty members rated the

practice lower than academic administrators because, as several of them stated, department heads are not necessarily better teachers and able to evaluate another university professor's teaching effectiveness.

Practice 23. Department heads assign senior faculty members to observe their peers' classroom instruction and evaluate their performance.

The obtained z-score of -1.9778 indicates a significant difference between the mean scores of 1.693 and 1.953 related to the ratings of faculty members and academic administrators. Even though academic administrators reacted more positively than the faculty members toward this practice, both groups believed that evaluation of faculty members' teaching performance by senior faculty members could be the least helpful way to improve instruction.

Practice 36. Department heads require faculty members to set goals and objectives for each academic year and examine these objectives against the institution's long range goals or mission statement.

The attitudes of faculty members with a mean score of 2.478 toward the practice of this strategy were significantly different from those of academic administrators with a mean score of 2.927. The obtained z-score was equal to -2.3141 which resulted in a level of significance of 0.0207. According to the reactions of the two groups, setting goals and objectives for each academic year could be helpful for

improvement of instruction. Yet academic administrators indicated a much more positive attitude toward this practice than did faculty members.

Practice 6. A periodic seminar or workshop on problems of college teaching will be offered by a "master" teacher.

Faculty members and academic administrators with mean scores of 2.599 and 3.049 indicated significantly different attitudes toward this practice. The obtained z-score was -2.1038 which exceeded the required level for being significant. While faculty members did not value highly any of the practices which involved a second person's help in improving their teaching performance, both groups did agree that seminars offered by a master teacher might be a helpful technique to improve instruction.

The researcher found that the strategies most commonly used by faculty members and academic administrators for improvement of instruction were freedom of thought and expression, anonymous evaluation of faculty members by students, and input from students about teaching and course content. On the contrary, utilization of micro-teaching, complying with the institution's grading policy, and visiting other similar institutions were among the least used practices for improvement of instruction.

According to the ratings of the faculty members and academic administrators the following seventeen practices were found to be the most valuable strategies for improving instruction.

1. Freedom of thought and expression within the area of a faculty member's field is guaranteed.

2. Leaves of absence with salary are provided for scholarly work and research.

3. Department heads and deans will reward superior teaching with promotion, public recognition and salary increments.

4. Department heads establish positive relationships with faculty members and try to solve the existing problems (pro-active) rather than negotiating in an adversary bargaining situation (reactive).

5. Faculty members are provided adequate clerical assistance in the preparation of class materials and in the performance of routine jobs.

6. Department heads see that classes are not too crowded and set optimal size for each class.

7. Faculty members through committees or other mechanisms participate in the determination and implementation of policy in such matters as salary, tenure, and promotion.

8. Department heads encourage faculty members without terminal degrees to pursue advanced degrees or to take additional university courses.

9. Department heads will encourage faculty members to join learned societies and will provide travel funds for attendance at selected professional meetings. The attendees will make reports of such meetings to their colleagues.

10. The teaching load is adjusted to facilitate a faculty member's participation in institutional activities other than teaching.

11. Department heads provide faculty members with multi-sensory aids such as film strips, slides, movies, television, audio-tapes, and opaque and overhead projectors in order to enhance instructional improvement.

12. Efforts to minimize time on committees and in clerical or semi-administrative duties should be made in order to maximize time for class preparation.

13. The institution provides funds for publication of faculty research.

14. Department heads urge faculty members to prepare course syllabi for courses they teach and make them available to students.

15. Faculty members are motivated to do summer travel, to join summer field study groups and to accept exchange professorships.

16. Instructors will be encouraged to seek input from students about teaching methods, course content and expectations.

17. All faculty members participate in the selection of new faculty members.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were based on the findings of this study.

1. Faculty members tend to ignore the help of a "master" teacher, department head, or a senior faculty member for instructional improvement purposes. It could be concluded that university professors because of their positions do not see the need of receiving assistance from a superior teacher as a valid means of improving their teaching.

2. Both faculty members and academic administrators were highly supportive of freedom of thought for faculty members in their fields of study. Based on the existence of such evidence it is concluded that freedom of thought and expression could be a major factor in the process of instructional improvement.

3. The techniques which were seen to be helpful to department heads who wished to see improvement in instruction were implementation of a democratic leadership by department heads: the inclusion of faculty members in

decisions relating to them such as tenure, promotion, and salary increases, and the creation of a healthy departmental atmosphere including the establishment of a sound relationship with faculty members.

4. Based on the findings of this study, it could also be concluded that professional development of faculty members and provision of teaching materials and other aids are among the most helpful ways for the improvement of instruction.

5. It was also concluded that evaluating the outcomes of instruction, behavioral objectives, conferences with students and alumni, institutional self study, and maintaining a committee in the institution could be the least important ways for instructional improvement.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based upon the findings and conclusions of this study.

1. A study must be designed to search for the practices and programs which tend to worsen instruction rather than those which do improve it.

2. Institutions of Higher Education should require department heads to participate in programs designed for the improvement of instruction.

3. Future studies conducted for the improvement of instruction should also include comprehensive programs for the improvement of instruction.

4. Future studies conducted for the improvement of instruction should take into account factors such as type and size of the class, types of the colleges or the school and the budgets designated for instructional purposes.

5. A program is recommended which could help department heads to improve the process of instruction in their departments or divisions. The selection of practices for the proposed program was based on the level of the importance and the percentages of use indicated by participants of this study for each practice. The practices toward which faculty members and academic administrators indicated significantly different attitudes were not included in this program. The proposed program should include (1) freedom of thought and expression, (2) participation of faculty members in decisions about such matters as salary, tenure, and promotion, (3) good relations with faculty members, (4) encouraging faculty members to obtain advanced degrees, (5) provision of clerical assistance for faculty members, (6) provision of leaves of absence with salary for scholarly work, (7) rewarding superior teaching, (8) encouraging faculty members to seek input from students about teaching methods, (9) anonymous student evaluations of faculty members, (10) implication of institution's grading policy,

(11) prevention of over-crowded classes, (12) participation of faculty members in learned societies, (13) provision of multi-sensory aids for teaching purposes, (14) preparation of course syllabi, (15) motivating faculty members to do summer travel, and (16) involving faculty members in curriculum work.

Implications

The process of instruction and the dilemma of its improvement has been a continuous concern of educators. Traditional practices along with currently designed comprehensive methods have undoubtedly contributed to a better teaching and learning environment. Nonetheless, the cooperation of faculty members and academic administrators has been necessary to enhance further improvement. Faculty members need to be acquainted with the new methods and techniques of teaching while academic administrators need to be able to assist them by supervising the instructional process and providing the necessary facilities for the teaching purposes.

The implementation of instructional supervisory skills could be a solution to the problem. Academic administrators need to employ their supervisory skills and be trained if such skills do not exist. At the same time, faculty members, even though they resent the idea of being supervised, probably because they are teaching at a university level,

should adapt themselves to learn the proper teaching methods and utilize them in their classes. Certainly finding the time and money are barriers to such developments. However, both faculty members and academic administrators must be granted sabbatical leaves, released time, and rewards, and financial support in order to expand their versatility and usefulness to the institution.

Faculty members' updated knowledge of their teaching field is the most important factor for a sound instructional system. Obviously improved methods of teaching cannot be replaced with the current knowledge of the instructor in his or her field. However, a combination of both are the two important factors for better instruction. Institutions of higher learning need to specify a larger portion of funds to faculty development purposes. Academic administrators and faculty members are very supportive of traditional ways to professional development of faculty members. These opportunities must exist along with provision of necessary materials for teaching purposes to improve instruction.

Both academic administrators and faculty members, in order to be successful in their efforts to improve instruction, need to consider students as a third party involved in the whole process. Students as the direct receivers of the materials that are instructed should be contacted formally and informally, and their points of view should be

solicited. Their inputs about the course content and the way that content is instructed could be used as one of the top priority information sources about the teaching performance and class organization of every faculty member. Department chairpersons could use this information along with their personal observations and by using their supervisory skills and experiences provide faculty members who are in need of assistance with the necessary guidelines and inspirations in the hope for a better instructional environment.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

VALIDATION LETTER

I am a doctoral student at North Texas State University and am in the process of writing my dissertation, "Attitudes of Academic Administrators and Faculty Members Towards the Role of Department or Division Chairpersons in the Improvement of Instruction at North Texas State University and Texas Woman's University." You have been selected as one of the seven judges to review the attached perceptionnaire and make the necessary corrections and suggestions. The questions of this perceptionnaire are partially borrowed from Theodore Eskew who has written a dissertation on "The Academic Dean and His Role in the Improvement of Instruction." It is very important that you validate this instrument again and especially determine if the practices under each area are clearly expressed and are properly categorized.

The purpose of this study is to find out if there are differences between the attitudes of academic administrators and faculty members in the following areas for the improvement of instruction:

a. Guidance and supervision of instruction,
b. Methods and materials of teaching,
c. Participating faculty members in administrative decision-making practices,
d. Evaluating the outcomes of instruction,
e. Evaluation of teachers' performance,
f. Professional development for faculty members.

Please make any additions, deletions, modifications or suggestions on the questionnaire at the point the change is to be made. Please be as specific as possible.

Thank you for your cooperation in this study.

Sincerely,

Akbar Dalili
Doctoral Candidate
308 Bradley #11
Denton, Texas 76201

Director of the Study,

Dr. Bob W. Miller
Professor and Director of
Community College Programs,
North Texas State University
Denton, Texas 76203

APPENDIX B

STUDY PARTICIPANT LETTER

Dear

I am a doctoral student at North Texas State University and am in the process of writing my dissertation, "The Attitudes of Academic Administrators and Faculty Members Towards the Role of Department/Division Chairpersons in the Improvement of Instruction." It is hoped that the information gained through this study will assist department and division chairpersons in their endeavors for improving instruction in their respective departments. You are one of the respondents selected through random procedures to participate in this study.

Enclosed you will find a questionnaire designed for the purposes of this study. Following the instructions, please show your honest opinion about the methods and strategies stated in this instrument for the improvement of instruction.

Thank you for your cooperation in this study.

Sincerely,
Akbar Dalili

Akbar Dalili
Doctoral Candidate
308 Bradley #11
Denton, Texas 76201

Director of the Study,
Bob W. Miller

Dr. Bob W. Miller
Professor and Director of
Community College Programs,
North Texas State University
Denton, Texas 76203

APPENDIX C

FOLLOW-UP LETTER

Dear

Several weeks ago I sent you a perceptionnaire, "The Attitudes of Academic Administrators and Faculty Members Towards the Role of Department/Division Chairpersons in the Improvement of Instruction." I have not received a sufficient number of returns at this point to continue the study. If you have not returned the perceptionnaire, I would appreciate your taking a few minutes to respond.

If you have already returned the perceptionnaire, thank you and please disregard this letter. If you have not returned it, won't you please take a few minutes from your busy schedule to assist me?

Sincerely,

Akbar Dalili
308 Bradley #11
Denton, Texas 76201

Director of the Study,

Dr. Bob W. Miller
Professor and Director of
Community College Programs,
North Texas State University
Denton, Texas 76203

APPENDIX D

Instructions for Respondents

Please make a circle around number "4" if you think the practice is an excellent method of improvement of the instruction.

Please make a circle around number "3" if you think that the practice is a very good method of improvement of the instruction.

Please make a circle around number "2" if you think that the practice is a usual (average) method of the improvement of the instruction.

Please make a circle around number "1" if you think that the practice is a poor method of the improvement of the instruction.

Please write a plus (+) if the activity is being practiced in your department.

Please write a minus (-) if the activity is not being practiced in your department.

PLEASE ADD ANY METHODS AND STRATEGIES NOT MENTIONED IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE THAT MIGHT HELP DEPARTMENT AND DIVISION CHAIRPERSONS TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION.

4 - Excellent
3 - Very Good
2 - Usual (average)
1 - Poor
(+) Practiced
(-) Not Practiced

4 3 2 1 ( ) 1. Department heads visit classes to observe instruction and have follow-up conferences with faculty members to discuss methods and techniques used.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 2. Department heads see that staff members are provided with copies of the faculty handbook containing information about the availability of instructional aids, suggested types of examinations and methods of instruction.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 3. All faculty members participate in the selection of new faculty members.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 4. Provision is made for defining behavioral or specific objectives in terms of outcomes which can be measured objectively.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 5. Department heads evaluate faculty members' teaching effectiveness and provide constructive criticism where indicated.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 6. A periodic seminar or workshop on problems of college teaching will be offered by a "master" teacher.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 7. The department head or other designated member of the administration assists teachers in developing more proficiency in teaching methods and techniques.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 8. Faculty members are provided adequate clerical assistance in the preparation of class materials and in the performance of routine jobs.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 9. Department heads and deans will reward superior teaching with promotion, public recognition and salary increments.

4	3	2	1	( )	10. Instructors will be encouraged to seek input from students about teaching methods, course content and expectations.
4	3	2	1	( )	11. Faculty members will adopt a self-evaluation instrument with which to analyze their own feelings about their teaching effectiveness.
4	3	2	1	( )	12. Department heads will encourage faculty members to visit other similar institutions to study institutional organization and curriculum and to observe outstanding teachers.
4	3	2	1	( )	13. Department heads encourage faculty members to visit each others' classes, especially those taught by experienced teachers, not to criticize but to learn and share.
4	3	2	1	( )	14. Librarians furnish prepared bibliographies, lists of references and other aids for instruction.
4	3	2	1	( )	15. The institution provides funds for publication of faculty research.
4	3	2	1	( )	16. Informal conferences or surveys are conducted with alumni to receive suggestions concerning the teaching effectiveness of staff.
4	3	2	1	( )	17. Provision is made for anonymous evaluation of each instructor by the students for the use of the teacher in improving his/her performance.
4	3	2	1	( )	18. Regular seminars are held in which small voluntary groups of faculty members meet to exchange ideas and consider new research findings relative to the improvement of instructional practices.
4	3	2	1	( )	19. Department heads urge faculty members to prepare course syllabi for courses they teach and make them available to students.

4	3	2	1	( )	20. Books, magazines, pamphlets, and other materials on the improvement of instruction are placed in a convenient place for faculty use.
4	3	2	1	( )	21. Freedom of thought and expression within the area of a faculty member's field is guaranteed.
4	3	2	1	( )	22. Each instructor shall try to comply with institution's grading policy.
4	3	2	1	( )	23. Department heads assign senior faculty members to observe their peers' classroom instruction and evaluate their performance.
4	3	2	1	( )	24. Faculty members are motivated to do summer travel, to join summer field study groups and to accept exchange professorships.
4	3	2	1	( )	25. Department heads visit the classes of new faculty members in the first weeks of the semester to avoid undesirable habits and improve procedures of teaching.
4	3	2	1	( )	26. Bulletins containing summaries of educational research and helpful hints on improving teaching are circulated regularly among the faculty.
4	3	2	1	( )	27. Faculty members through committees or other mechanisms participate in the determination and implementation of policy in such matters as salary, tenure, and promotion.
4	3	2	1	( )	28. An institutional self-study is made to evaluate the quality of teaching.
4	3	2	1	( )	29. Leaves of absence with salary are provided for scholarly work and research.
4	3	2	1	( )	30. Department heads point out the strengths and weaknesses of the faculty and make suggestions through microteaching (teaching via videotape).

4 3 2 1 ( ) 31. Efforts to minimize faculty time on committees and in clerical or semi-administrative duties should be made in order to maximize time for class preparation.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 32. The institution maintains a committee to stimulate and assist with research studies aimed at determining the relative effectiveness of alternative instructional modes.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 33. Department heads will encourage faculty members to join learned societies and will provide travel funds for attendance at selected professional meetings. The attendees will make reports of such meetings to their colleagues.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 34. Department heads arrange orientation programs for new faculty members to enhance their instructional improvement.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 35. The teaching load is adjusted to facilitate a faculty member's participation in institutional activities other than teaching.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 36. Department heads require faculty members to set goals and objectives for each academic year and examine these objectives against the institution's long range goals or mission statement.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 37. Department heads confer with students, privately or in groups, over the effectiveness of instruction, seeking their suggestions for improvement.

4 3 2 1 ( ) 38. Individual and group conferences on the improvement of instruction are held by outside experts at periodic intervals.

4	3	2	1	( )	39. Faculty members as well as academic administrators get involved in curriculum work in order to increase their motivation and their feeling of mutual interests.
4	3	2	1	( )	40. Department heads see that classes are not too crowded and set an optimal size for each class.
4	3	2	1	( )	41. Department heads encourage faculty members to participate in team teaching and become acquainted with the methods and techniques used by other colleagues.
4	3	2	1	( )	42. Department heads establish positive relationships with faculty members and try to solve the existing problems (proactive) rather than negotiating in an adversary bargaining situation (reactive).
4	3	2	1	( )	43. Department heads encourage faculty members without terminal degrees to pursue advanced degrees or to take additional university course work.
4	3	2	1	( )	44. Department heads encourage faculty members to do research in instructional methods and see that time as well as equipment, materials and facilities are provided for this purpose.
4	3	2	1	( )	45. Department heads provide faculty members with multi-sensory aids such as film-strips, slides, movies, television, audio-tapes, opaque and overhead projectors in order to enhance instructional improvement.

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