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ABSTRACT

This study applied a path model, developed from factors associated with instructional development success in the United States, to a similar instructional development environment in Australia. These factors included institutional commitment, faculty rewards, instructional design staff expertise, campus audiovisual production services, program evaluation, and faculty interest in innovation. A 3-part questionnaire was administered to project directors: Part I identified the general nature of the project and the person responding; Part II consisted of a 50-item measure of perceived success factors in instructional development; and Part III provided for self-ratings of project success. The most important findings have been the completely different factor structures. Where respondents in the United States saw the issues as provision of support services, organizational support with good administrative systems, faculty incentives, and financial resources, the Australian respondents saw the major issues as provision of support and administrative services, status of the project internally and externally, positive and clear innovative climate, and expertise and skills of the faculty to carry out the project. (RAO)

The Politics of Instructional Innovation in Higher Education: A cross cultural analysis.

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Abstract

The Politics of Instructional Innovation in Higher Education: A Cross Cultural Analysis.

Higher education administrators have supported improvements in teaching by creating special funds to support selected projects. These projects have not been universally successful: some projects have folded after the initial funding ceased, while others never really started. This study was an attempt to test the strength of path models for successful instructional development projects in two different cultures and academic structures. In a series of Australian projects, administrators, instructional developers and project directors were asked to complete the same instrument that had been used in the United States of America. The most important findings have been the completely different factor structures. Where the United States respondents saw the issues as provision of support services, organisational support with good administrative systems, faculty incentives (motivation), and financial resources, the Australian respondents saw the major issues as provision of support and administrative services, status of the project internally and externally (including some similarity to faculty incentives above), positive and clear innovative climate and expertise and skills of the member of faculty to carry out the project.

"Most of the innovation that occurs could best be described as fiddling. Cummulative assessment is brought in here, open book examining there, a game or two somewhere else, TV, CAI or carrels. These are healthy signs of dissatisfaction and uncertainty, but they tend to relieve the initiators of the need to face the fundamental re-appraisal of objectives, course design, assessment and outcome that experience suggests is both required and possible". (Wilson, 1973).

Innovation and change are fundamental to the process of instructional development, and in recent years administrators in higher education have supported curriculum improvements by funding selected projects. However, these projects have not been universally successful: some projects have folded after the inital funding ceased; some when the project director left for a new position; and some ran into organizational and administrative problems that prevented them from ever starting.

In a review of research on curriculum and instruction, Fullan and Pomfret (1977) established that the major emphases have been on the adoption decision before a change is implemented and monitoring the results of change. Recently, more research has focussed on the process of implementation. Loucks (1978) and Hall (1977) have described their efforts to categorize the level of use of an innovation and thereby predicting future stages of development. Lawrason and Hedberg (1978) have presented a path model to predict instructional development success on the basis of institutional committment and personal expertise of the academic staff. This change in focus provides the instructional development specialist with an ordered array of factors that can be used to successfully manage instructional innovations.

In commenting upon his experience at two universities, Gropper (1977) advises the instructional designer to be sensitive to the bias, fears and misunderstanding on the part of the academic staff and administration unfamiliar with instructional design and change. The current modes of teaching and decision-making are firmly entrenched within th organisational structure. Innovation if it is to occur, must be achieved subtlely and gradually. Support for the project must therefore come from those helping to achieve the change. If the project is supported by the central instructional design, production and evaluation staff, then this will help

the initial development of the project considerably, even if funds are not available to support major expenses. In fact, support staff, resources and rewards can be used to ensure the continuation of good projects. Gropper observed that a central facility with the specific expertise in instructional design, evaluation and production should be available centrally for the support of academic staff, and that the administration, academic boards and promotion committees should reward the effective teaching and curriculum design of academic staff participating in instructional design projects. While some administrations rewarded curriculum re-design efforts, by far the majority of projects surveyed in one study (Lawrason, 1977) did not have any central instructional development support.

Without support, what then acts as incentives for instructional development? Spitzer (1977) asked academic staff in sixty institutions throughout the United States why they undertook instructional development projects. Spitzer found the indirect organizational incentives (administration committment, competent instructional development staff, etc.,) were the most clearly developed and recognizable success factors. Direct incentives (payments, release time, etc.,), recognition (letters of appreciation, titles, etc.,) and personal satisfaction (achievement, striving for excellence, etc.,) were of lesser importance and demonstrated less consistency in responses appearing to be specific to the individual or the motivation. The evidence of success of most projects as Spitzer pointed out was based upon intuitive rather than research evidence.

Lawrason and Hedberg (1977) identified the interrelations among key instruction design factors. From the instructional design literature they assembled a series of factors that were considered to contribute to project success. These factors, institutional commitment, faculty rewards, instructional design staff expertise, campus AV production services, program evaluation and faculty interest in innovation, were ranked by academic staff, administrators and instructional designers. While administrative commitment to instructional development, primarily through financial support, was extremely important, respondents tended to group factors according to highly individualized concerns, and the factors perceived as contributing to success were related to the respondent's world view, and not to the respondent's academic or administrative rank. The groups of respondents so formed were characterized by their views on: administrative commitment, instructional development policies on curriculum change, and personal satisfaction from undertaking the project. In this study the respondents

were asked to reply 'in general' and no attempt was made to relate instructional development success to specific projects.

In a later study, (Lawrason and Hedberg, 1978) respondents were asked to examine a particular instructional design project and comment on its success or failure and the factors that contributed to this outcome. The earlier factors were refined and further sub-divided to produce an instrument that examined four major areas in fifty items; the provision of instructional design and production support services, enthusiasism of the academic staff for change, provision of resources such as money and equipment, the organisational climate that would hinder or facilitate innovations and changes, and items related to student interest and behaviour. One third of the respondents indicated that their project was initiated by a member of the college administration and this fact alone was instrumental in achieving a successful outcome. Under these conditions administrative commitment was active and vigorous. Unfortunately no clear distinction was made between directive and participative generation of the project, thus the role played by the administrator is not always clear. Four measures of project success were collected: an overall estimation of project success, the likelihood of the project continuing if funding ceases, the likelihood of the project continuing if the project director leaves the institution and the effect of the project on student enrollments. Lawrason and Hedberg (1978) found that the likelihood of the project continuing if funding ceased or the director left, were predicted by the institutional and instructional design factors surrounding the project. The other two dependent measures were not predicted by the same factors. The overall estimation of project success was never negative, whereas the two likelihood-of-continuation measures appeared to be less positive and had a greater variance. This may be due to an inherent limitation of this type of study, the respondent was often the project director and initiator which might indicate a degree of ego-involvement with the outcome.

The path models determined for the Lawrason and Hedberg study (figure 1) included both independent variables based on the nature of the project/repondent, and composite intervening variables derived from a cluster analysis of the fifty item questionnaire.

Insert figure 1
about here

The path models were based upon a sample twenty-six instructional development projects undertaken in six universities and colleges throughout the Delaware Valley, Pennsylvania.

Purpose of the current study

This study sought to apply the path models of figure 1 to a similar instructional development environment using a sample drawn from Australian Higher Education Institutions. As with the Lawrason and Hedberg (1978) study, this comparative study is based upon the experience of academic staff who have tried to redesign a course and the factors they felt were important to the success or failure of their instructional project.

Some parallels might be drawn between the two sets of samples.

1. Both samples were predominately undertaking projects to develop their own course of approximately semester length.
2. Most respondents categorized themselves as Departmental Chairman or Tenured Academic Staff. (It is possible that the lower frequency of Untenured Staff responses is due to their changing positions).
3. The most common roles played by respondents were as project director and instructional designer.

The respondents were administrators, project directors, academic staff and educational support staff at two higher education institutions in Victoria, Australia, and six higher-education institutions in the Northeastern United States. After each project had been identified through educational research officers and through previous studies, the project director was called on the telephone and asked if he or she and co-workers would reply to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was structured into three sections: Part 1 identified the general nature of the project and the person responding,

1 The title and objective of the project;
2 The size of the project (PSIZE);
3 The academic rank of the respondent (RANK);
4 The part played by the respondent in the project team (PART);
5 The rank of the person who initiated the project (PINIT).

Part II of the survey consisted of a 50-item questionnaire (Appendix A) which measured the perceived importance of a wide range of factors contributing to the outcome of an instructional development project. Respondents were asked to rate each of the 50 items on a scale of 1(low priority) to 7 (high priority). The initial path models had been established with the United States data (Lawrason and Hedberg,1978) and the composite intervening variables derived from the 50 items were:

1 The importance of the relationship between the support staff and the project members (SUPPORT);
2 The financial incentives or intrinsic motivators available to faculty project members (FACINCEN);
3 The financial resources provided by the administration for the funding of the project (RESOURCE); and
4 The importance of organizational facilitation, i.e. the interpersonal relationships between the administration and project members (ORGFAC).

Part III of the survey required respondents first to rate the overall success of their project on the basis of four specific criteria. The final two responses requested subjects to verbally describe the "major factor which facilitated success" and the "major factor which limited the success" of the project. The four specific criteria by which respondents rated the success of their projects were considered as the dependent variables in the study.

They were:

1. A global rating of the overall success of the project (SUCC);
2. The likelihood of project continuation after funds ceased (FUND);
3. The likelihood of project continuation after the original director left (DIR); and
4. The effect of the project upon student enrollments (STUD).

Scores for the composite factor variables (SUPPORT, FACINCEN, RESOURCE, and ORFAC) were used in a standardized form in a regression analysis to determine path co-efficients. On the basis of the Lawrason and Hedberg (1978) study the hypothesized relationships are illustrated in Figure 1. The Australian data was analysized by reference to these previously established path models and then a factor analysis of the intervening variables was attempted to confirm the factor pattern determined from the U.S. data.

Results

The previous study was based upon 38 respondents representing 26 instructional development projects in United States institutions. In this Australian comparison 27 respondents represent 22 projects. While some difficulty was experienced in identifying projects, an 82% response rate was achieved in the two Australian Institutions.

The nature of the surveyed instructional projects was characterized by the size of the project, the respondent's academic rank, the part the respondent played and the rank of the person who initiated the project. (Table 1). No differences were noted in these categories with the exception of the person who initiated the project. Significantly more academic staff initiated instructional projects in the Australian sample, and correspondingly more administrators (deans, departmental chairpersons) initiated projects in the U.S. sample. This may be due to differences in tenure percentages with more tenured staff in the Australian Institutions, or more fluid departmental administrative structure of the American Colleges.

Insert table 1
about here

Comparisions between the two groups were made on the 50-item questionnaire on project success factors. Using simple *t* tests for differences between means, 11 items had *t* values exceeding the probability of .05.

The respondents in the Australian sample considered the following aspects more important to project success than their U.S. colleagues:

11 Provision of administrative rewards (release time, money) for academic staff engaged in instructional projects.

16 Academic staff felt need to change existing course design and teaching strategies.

17 Commitment by academic staff to implement and evaluate the project as designed.

20 Good personal relations between the members of the academic staff.

22 Priority given by support services to full scale funded institutional projects.

26 Efficiency of support services.

27 Positive and supportive attitudes of support service personnel.

28 Good personal relations between academic staff and support staff on the project.

45 Necessity to improve instruction for a specific disadvantaged student population.

46 Large number of students to benefit from the project.

Some observations should be made about these results. The emphasis on academic staff (Q's 11,16,17,20) is likely to be due to the differences in the person who initiated the project. More academic staff were responsible for project initiation in Australian and this would increase the importance of responses directed at academic staff behaviours. The Australian projects required greater media support than the U.S. projects. This would seem to be appropriately relected in items 22,26,27,and 28. One might explain the high rating of the two student benefit items in that the importance of the project to student learning either in terms of quality or quantity has often been used as a criteria for project funding in Australia. Reading the project descriptions requested of each respondent in the questionnaire, it appeared that Australian projects were more closely related to basic instructional problems, while the U.S. projects appeared more to be derived from the respondents research interests. However, the item relating to the importance of the project in generating research findings was not rated differently by the two groups; both rated it low (3.3)

compared to other items. Only one item was considered more important by U.S. respondents than Australian respondents, namely

36 Self-support (budget) of project after initial development.

The Australian projects were undertakings that most often had institutional commitment to carry the project into regular funding. This was not always apparent in the U.S. projects.

Factor confirmation

The Australian responses to the 50-items were compared to the factor structure previously determined for the U.S. data (Lawrason and Hedberg, 1978). A similar factor structure was not supported. The only similarity in structures was the continued grouping of items 26,27 and 28, which describe the efficiency of and relationships with the support services. When attempting to confirm the path models of Figure 1 with the previously established factors, no significant paths were found that included the intervening variables: FACINCEN, ORGFAC, SUPPORT, RESOURCE.

In light of this result a factor analysis was undertaken to investigate the structure underlying the Australian responses to the instrument. This produced a solution of four factors which were characterized:

1 The importance of communication and support links between project director, administration and support staff personnel (ORGSUP).

2 The status of the project and the director within and outside the institution (STATUS),

3 The climate or human relationships surrounding the academic staff working on the project, and their ability to be self sufficient (CLIMAT)

4 The instruction design expertise of the project director and the clarity of project goals (EXPERT)

The composition of these intervening variables was confirmed by a cluster analysis using the Veldman H-group program. (Table 2). The simple correlations between the variables used in the final path analysis is given in Table 3.

Insert tables 2& 3
about here

Overall project success

Responses by subjects to the questions about overall sucess of their projects (SUCC, FUND, DIR and STUD) did not differ significantly between the two groups.

Insert table 4
about here

From the direction of the differences in means it would appear that US projects are more dependent on the director for continuation of the project. However they appear to generate more student enrolments than their Australian counterparts.

In writing comments about their projects most Australian directors emphasized the grass roots nature of instructional innovation. While many worked as part of teams, the projects were often self-styled with loosely defined structures. By far the most important factor that helped the project was co-operation from the respondent's colleagues, this was mentioned by two thirds of the respondents. The remaining factors were: funding, positive student reaction, assistance of support staff, clear objectives and time. More serious was the list of limitating factors. One third claimed there was a lack of departmental support and commitment, and that funds were insufficient. Other limitations were delays, not enough people or not enough time. Two projects were hindered by the poor leadership and lack of expertise of the director.

Discussion

Of the projects in this study over half (16) of the respondents were working on single course or small projects. This contrasts markedly with the U.S. sample where the majority of respondents (31) were working on projects larger than a single course. This pattern would seem to reflect different attitudes to instructional development in the two countries. The Australian respondents were primarily working on their own projects, while U.S. respondents often worked on projects initiated by another person.

Many projects generated large amounts of media-based individual study materials. In both samples, the academic staff often undertook the development without an instructional development specialist to assist them. Support personnel were usually in a service role, providing graphics, recording a tape, or consulting on problem areas only. This exclusion of trained instructional development specialists had resulted in some wasteful failures and where specialists were available the lack of good client relationships appeared to alienate the innovative academic staff. An instructional designer could help these projects but only if he or she can gain acceptance as a team member and achieve harmonious relations with the academic staff.

It is interesting to note that only one respondent in the two groups reported a lack of success. The respondent, a chairman of a department, cited the failure of the administration to inform the project director of the degree of funding for the project. The delay, which ran to three years, does seem excessive.

Lawrason and Hedberg (1978) found that of the dependent measures - continuation of funding ceases (FUND) and continuation if the director leaves (DIR) were more important predictors of the successful project. The overall likelihood of a project continuing if funds ceased was .76 for the U.S. sample and .78 for the Australian sample. On the other hand, the likelihood of a project continuing if the director left was .64 for the U.S. sample and .76 for the Australian sample. (The likelihoods ranging from 0-unlikely to 1-certainty). In both sample these two dependent measures were important in the path models and appeared to provide better estimates of the 'real' outcome of a project Although the difference in likelihoods of continuance if the director left was not statistically significant, there is an indication that the U.S. projects are more heavily dependent on their project director for a successful outcome.

Comparision of path models

As previsouly discussed the Australian sample did not conform to the same factor structure nor did it confirm the previously determined path models (Figure 1). The only overlap between the factor structures is the consistent grouping of support services. The remaining factors in the Australian sample emphasize human relations skills, expertise or competence and the standing of the project and director. The factors determined on the basis of the U.S. data emphasized faculty incentives, project resources and administrative commitment, all more external concerns than the more hesitant ego-involved items that were grouped by the Australian sample.

A path model based on the assumption that the four indenpent variables (RANK, PART, PSIZE, PINIT) would predict the four intervening variables (ORGSUP, STATUS, CLIMAT, EXPERT) which in turn would predict the four dependent variables (SUCC, FUND, DIR STUD) produced only limted paths (Figure 2). Unlike the U.S. sample, the overall rating of project success contributed as a major intervening variable in the study. Some similarities are reassuring, such as the importance of the academic rank of the respondent in predicting likelihood of project continuation if the director left. However, the direct RANK to FUND path was not significant in the Australian sample. The path model of Figure 2, does concur with Spitzer (1977) when it emphasises that the climate surrounding the project is an important link in the prediction of project success.

A number of other interesting relationships were indicated by the Australian data (although not included in the final path model): the correlation between organizational support (ORGSUP) and the STATUS of the project; and the joint prediction of instruction development expertise (EXPERT) by the part the respondent played in the project (PART) and the size of the project (PSIZE). This last path pointed out the rather damning relationship - the more important the part the respondent plays in the project and the larger its size, the less important instructional design expertise or competence is rated. Maybe it's simply a fact that large projects suceed in spite of the lack of expertise of the innovative academic staff.

Conclusion

In considering the most essential factor influencing the success or failure of projects, it is interesting to note that respondents place prime attention on the interest, co-operation and skills in the academic staff team members. It is evident that faculty engaged in development projects place the burden

of successful implementation upon themselves and their academic colleagues. Over half of those responding in both samples to the question 'major factors contributing to success' mention the initiative or skills of the project director or other academic colleagues. Far fewer list administrative support, support services or even funds.

The comparisions made in this study should raise a note of caution to any researcher extrapolating the findings of one successful innovation to predict outcomes in a different educational system. Even though, close cultural parallels exist in the two samples chosen for this study, differences have been noted in the degree of control over the environment of the project. Australian respondents were more concerned with academic staff behaviour while U.S. respondents were more concerned with institutional reward systems and the provision of resources. The results of this study might be considered a first approximation to the many factors in the institutional environment that affect instructional development. The importance of good interpersonal relations at all levels, mutually defined goals, and the supportive rather than directive role of the development specialist are essential.

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Part II

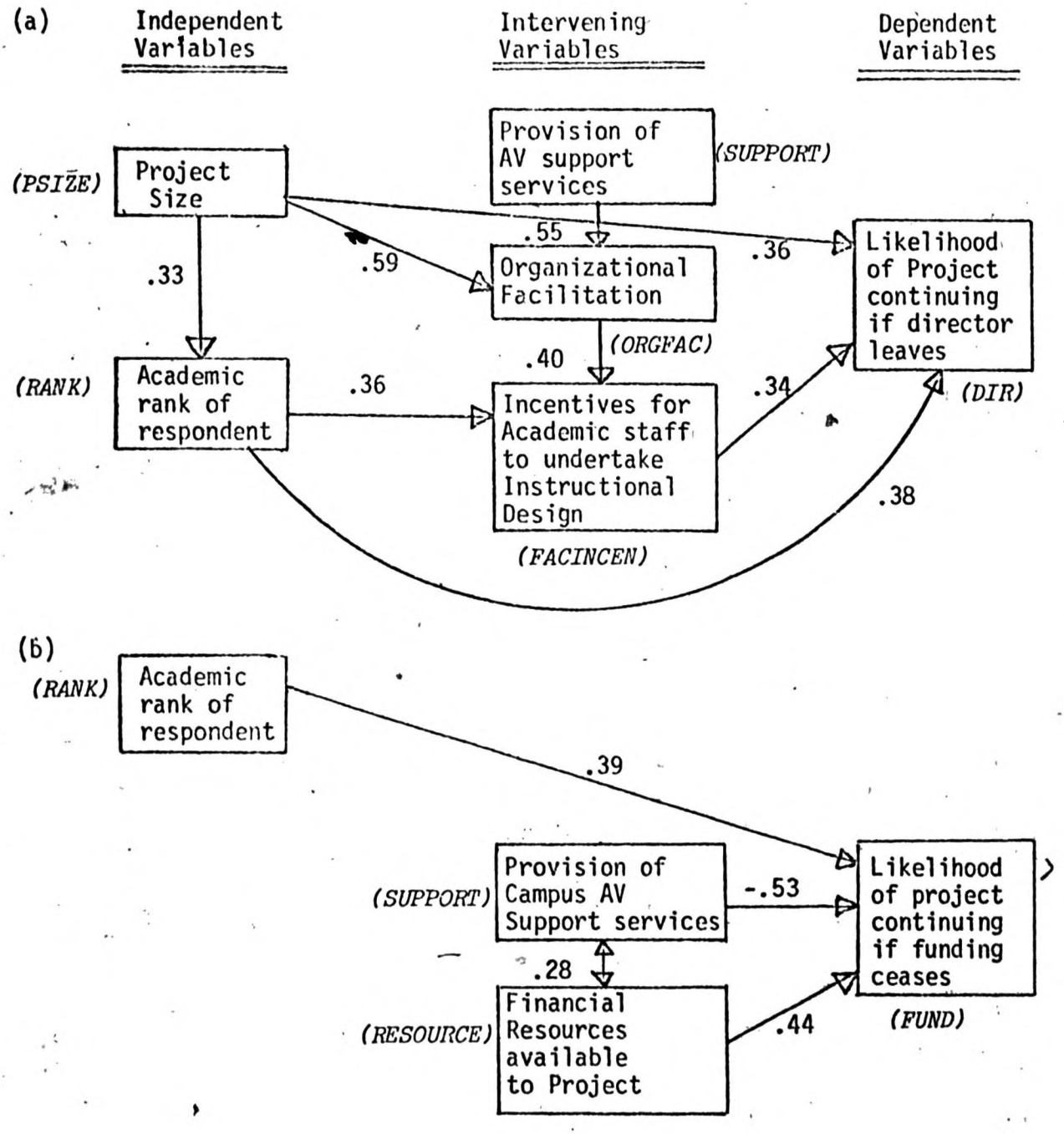
The following factors can contribute to the success of an educational development project within an institution. Please rate the importance of each factor as you believe it contributed to the success of the educational project you have identified. Circle the number that most closely represents the importance.

For example:

	Rapid provision of typed manuscripts	Unimportant	1	2	(3)	4	5	6	7 Important
1	Clearly defined organizational structure for decision making and implementation	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
2	Small numbers of people involved in the decision making associated with the project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
3	Lack of competitiveness and possessiveness within existing academic departments	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
4	Personal support of top administrators	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
5	Provision of instructional project 'start-up' funds from operating budgets	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
6	Continued budgetary support of administrators	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
7	Administration concern for student enrolments	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
8	Flexibility of administrators to integrate change into the administrative system	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
9	Positive leadership skills of administrators	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
10	Initiation of projects by administrators	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
11	Provision of administrative rewards (e.g. release time, money) for academic staff engaged in instructional projects	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
12	Direct communication between administration and academic staff	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
13	Large number of people involved in the decision making associated with the project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
14	Initiation of projects by individual members of the academic staff	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
15	Promotional considerations given to academic staff for work on projects	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
16	Academic staff felt need to change existing course design or teaching strategies	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
17	Commitment by academic staff to implement and evaluate project as designed	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
18	Student positive feedback to academic staff on course design or improvement	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
19	Openness and encouragement from department chairperson for instructional improvement	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
20	Good personal relations between members of academic staff	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
21	Experience of academic staff in course design, development and evaluation	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
22	Priority given by support services to full scale funded institutional projects	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important

23	Frequent communication between administration, academic staff, consultants, and support staff on progress of project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
24	Project planning actively involved input from academic staff, administration, instructional design consultants and other support services	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
25	High quality of materials produced for project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
26	Efficiency of support services	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
27	Positive and supportive attitudes of support service personnel	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
28	Good personal relations between academic staff and support staff on the project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
29	Availability of professional consultants to assist with educational principles related to the design and evaluation of projects	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
30	Diversity of technical support services, e.g. number of alternative media available, CAI, TV, audio, print, graphics, clerical, etc.	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
31	Responsible position of project director in relation to institutional hierarchy	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
32	Interpersonal skills of project director, e.g. accessibility, political acumen, team leadership, etc.	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
33	Clarity of project objectives	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
34	Initiation of projects by project director	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
35	Attractiveness of teaching/learning techniques to potential students	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
36	Self-support (budget) of project after initial development	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
37	Attractiveness of subject matter to potential students	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
38	Several academic staff members actively working on the development of the project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
39	One or two academic staff members actively working on the development of the project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
40	Potential of the project to generate educational research findings	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
41	A number of publications generated by the project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
42	Availability of funds for project from external funding agencies	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
43	Marketability of end product outside institution	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
44	Instructional design skills of project director	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
45	Necessity to improve instruction for a specific disadvantaged student population	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
46	Large number of students to benefit from project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
47	Project reflects response to current social needs	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
48	Formal evaluation of the instructional effectiveness of the project	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
49	Good personal relations between project director and administration	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important
50	Prestigious nature of the project throughout the institution	Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Important

Figure 1 Path Diagrams for Successful Instructional Projects (Lawrason & Hedberg, 1978)



1 The words in italics and in parentheses are shorthand forms used in the statistical program.

Figure 2 Path diagrams for successful instructional projects based upon an Australian sample.

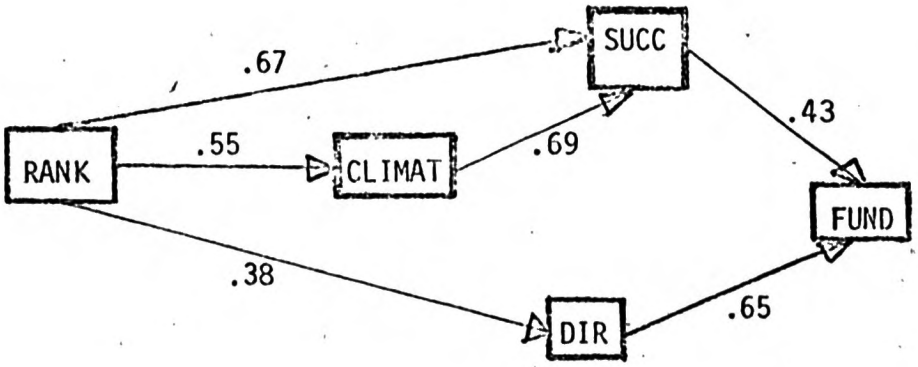


Table 1 .The Nature of the Projects

Variable	Category		U.S. Frequencies N= 38 *	Australian frequencies N= 27 *
PSIZE The size of the project	1	Smaller than a course	2	6
	2	One course	5	7
	3	More than one course	31	10
	4	General project related to teaching	0	3
RANK The academic rank of the respondent	1	Senior administrator	7	3
	2	Departmental Chair	4	4
	3	Tenured faculty	21	17
	4	Non-tneured faculty	5	2
	5	Support staff	1	1
PART Part respondent played in the project team	1	Project director	22	18
	2	Instructional designer	3	5
	3	General support	11	3
	4	Not a member	2	1
PINIT Rank of person who initiated the project	1	Administrator	22	3
	2	Faculty	15	21
	3	Support staff	1	2

* If the totals are less than 38 or 27 respectively, the remaining responses are missing.

Table 2 Composition of Factors contributing to instructional innovation success. (Based upon Australian Sample. N=27)

ORGSUP	Items 5, 12, 23, 26, 27, 28, 49
STATUS	Items 10, 15, 24, 30, 32, 39, 40, 41, 43, 50
CLIMAT	Items 3, 4, 19, 20, 35, 37, 42*
EXPERT	Items 17, 21, 33, 34, 44

*Item 42 is reverse scored.

Table 4 Comparison of Dependent Measures

Variable	Mean U.S. data (N= 38)	Mean Australian data (N= 27)	*t*-value	p
SUCC	5.8	5.4	-1.30	.19
FUND	5.3	5.5	0.34	.74
DIR	4.5	5.4	1.39	.17
STUD*	5.3	4.8	-1.31	.20

* This question was omited by many respondents - samples were 28 and 20 respectively for this question only

Table 3 Simple correlations between variables in the Australian sample

	PSIZE	RANK	PART	PINIT	ORGSUP	STATUS	CLIM	EXPERT	SUCC	FUND	DIR
RANK	.08										
PART	.25	-.10									
PINIT	.03	-.05	.07								
ORGSUP	.11	.07	-.24	-.01							
STATUS	.34	.27	-.27	.04	.40						
CLIM	-.05	-.54	.09	.11	.15	.07					
EXPERT	-.30	-.12	.31	-.02	.05	.17	.38				
SUCC	-.25	.29	.05	.04	.12	.26	.32	.37			
FUND	-.12	.13	.16	.06	-.21	-.07	-.10	.09	.42		
DIR	.02	-.38	.15	-.18	-.10	-.15	.00	-.02	.00	.65	
STUD	-.07	-.18	.13	-.14	.04	-.15	.29	.10	.28	-.17	.08