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ABSTRACT

The origins, situation, and performance of about 100 college teachers who received their doctorates in geography from 1 of 30 major U.S. universities were investigated. Quantitative and narrative information was obtained from the teachers, colleagues from their departments, and students and through site visits. Three main topics were studied regarding the origins of the new teachers: (1) the extent and rated value of various types of prior developmental experiences as teachers (e.g., teaching experience, education courses, teaching preparation programs); (2) the relationship between these prior experiences and subsequent performance as teachers; and (3) the sorting process (i.e., who went where and why). The situation of the new teachers was examined in relation to the following variables: type of contract (tenure or nontenure track), work load, degree of identification with the institution, ability to find intellectual companionship with colleagues, and social similarity to students. Each of these variables was found to have an effect on both the performance and the professional satisfaction of the new teachers. In regard to new professors' performance, attention was directed to educational goals; teaching prototypes; teaching methods; and evaluations of their teaching by students and colleagues, and by themselves. Consideration is given to the new teachers' reactions to their first year's experiences, their other academic accomplishments, and their plans for the following year. Recommendations are offered for graduate departments, graduate students, departments receiving new faculty members, and beginning college teachers. (Author/SW)

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A Study of 100 Beginning College Teachers

by

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

In the United States today there are over 12 million students enrolled in approximately 3,000 accredited institutions of higher education. The greatest single factor affecting the quality of the education which those students receive is the quality of the 800,000 faculty members staffing those institutions.

Each year several thousand people begin their careers as college teachers. Some of these careers will be long, some short; some will be happy, some not; some will be very productive, others will not be.

As in many professions, the way college teachers begin their careers is very important, and that is the subject of this study. Information has been collected on approximately 100 beginning college teachers at the time when they were making that critical transition from being graduate students to being full-time faculty members. The study is focused primarily on their role as college teachers but information has been collected about their other academic activities as well.

An attempt has been made to raise and answer a number of important questions about beginning college teachers. What is their educational background? What preparation have they had for college teaching? What happens to them once they start their academic careers? What is the quality of their teaching? What effect does the context of their professional activity have on their performance? On their satisfaction? How satisfied are they with their first year in the academic profession? What recommendations would they make for graduate students and graduate schools? For other new college teachers? For institutions employing new faculty members?

The answers to these questions are significant because they affect many aspects of higher education: the content of graduate education, the criteria and process used to select new faculty members, the nature of initial teaching assignments, the context

and support provided by the institution, and possibly even the nature and philosophy of faculty development programs.

Literature For and About Beginning College Teachers

There has been almost no primary research on what actually happens to new college teachers during their first year. There has been a series of statements expressing a nationwide concern for the quantity and quality of new college teachers (Gray, 1930; Blegen and Cooper, 1950; Axelrod, 1959; Berelson, 1960; McGrath, 1961). These all made projections for the number of new teachers needed, and tried to set guidelines for the proper preparation of new faculty members in higher education which was then in a state of continuous expansion. During the 1960's and 1970's, attention was given to the use of teaching assistantships, not just as a means of staffing additional course sections, but as a means of developing the teaching capabilities of graduate students headed for academic careers (Dunkel, 1958; Clark, 1963; Nowlis, Clark and Rock 1968; Monson, 1969; Koen and Ericksen, 1967; Dean, 1970; Wahlquist, 1970; Salyard, 1973; Pattison and Fink, 1975). These were descriptions and evaluations of both institution-based and discipline-based efforts that were intended to enhance the teaching skills of both teaching assistants and these same people later as beginning college teachers.

Over the years there have also been numerous descriptions of good teaching, written for the inspiration of new teachers as well as more experienced ones. Two of the better known examples are College Teaching: Its Practice and Its Potential (Justman and Mais, 1956) and The Importance of Teaching: A Memo to the New College Teacher (Rothwell et al., 1968). Of course, there is the classic guide that has served generations of both teaching assistants and new college teachers, Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher (McKeachie, orig. 1951; 7th ed., 1978).

Caplow and McGee made a major study of the process by which new academics are hired, The Academic Marketplace (1958). But, as they noted, their study was not about "the people who had been hired and fired--the 'commodities' in the labor market." Rather, their subjects were the department chairmen because they are the principle people "in the vacancy-and-replacement process acting as agents of the institution."

Recently some commentators on higher education have written hypothetical accounts of what it is like to be a new college teacher (Mandell, 1977; Kline, 1977). Both of these narratives read more like tragedies than heroic epics. In one account the subject ends up with an erratic drinking problem and a fragmented social life; in the other a well-intentioned new teacher is side-tracked by the need to do research in order to earn tenure.

Despite the existence of this modest body of literature for and about beginning college teachers, there is almost no empirical research on the teachers themselves. In 1960 Harlan McCall and others at Michigan State University conducted a survey of 1500 first and third year faculty members in several colleges in the North Central Association (McCall et al., 1961). They used a four-page questionnaire that asked about perceived instructional problems as well as some basic demographic questions. During the 1950's, the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education sponsored eighteen internship programs for new college teachers at various colleges around the country. In 1960, John Diekhoff made a report on those programs (Diekhoff, 1960). Although this report offered several valuable insights on the operation of such programs, it contained essentially no information about the background, situation or performance of the new teachers.

Origin of the Present Study

This research grew out of a nation-wide project in one discipline that had been established to give instructional training to graduate students who intended to enter the academic profession. The Project on Teaching and Learning in Graduate Geography (TLGG) was a consortium of programs in sixteen Ph.D.-granting departments of geography in the United States. The directors of these programs offered seminars on college teaching, supervised various types of practicums, and in some cases organized either retreats or orientation programs that were about college teaching.

In time the question naturally arose as to whether these activities were in fact accomplishing what they were intended to, namely, allowing these graduate students to develop the ideas and skills necessary for teaching more effectively than they would have otherwise. As associate director of the national project, I proposed a study that would compare the teaching of (a) new teachers who had participated in the preparatory program and (b) new teachers from the same discipline who had not.

No sooner had this study been funded by the National Science Foundation than I (and others) realized that this was a chance to learn much more than whether the TLGG programs had been effective or not. It was a chance to learn about the whole process of starting a career in the academic profession. Hence the scope and the purpose of the study was enlarged.

The Structure of the Study

By this time a commitment had been made to study 100 beginning college teachers during their first year on the faculty. Because the discipline of geography is relatively small, the study was extended over two academic years (1976-77 and 1977-78) in order to include 50 beginning college teachers with the necessary characteristics each year.

Selecting the Study Population

To obtain 100 study participants, I contacted 30 Ph.D.-granting departments of geography, half of which had participated in the TLGG project. The TLGG departments varied in their prestige but were by and large among the better known departments in the country. Departments that had prestige ratings similar to the TLGG departments were selected as a source of teachers who had not gone through this kind of preparatory training.

These 30 departments gave me the names of 266 people graduating from their department, 117 (44%) of whom were eligible for inclusion in the study (see Table 1). People were declared ineligible if they (a) did not succeed in obtaining an academic appointment that year, (b) had already been teaching for sometime, or (c) went into non-academic work. Of those eligible, 105 agreed to participate and 97 completed the study.

Types of Information Collected

This research essentially took information from a "slice of time" which was one year long and used it to study many kinds of relationships. Therefore many kinds of information were needed.

The six categories of information used in this study are shown in Figure 1 and listed below with examples of questions soliciting that kind of information:

Situations (descriptions of)

How many courses have you been assigned this year?

How large is the financial support for courses in this department?

Intentions

What types of learning activities do you intend to use this year?

What changes in your professional activity do you plan to make next year?

Table 1

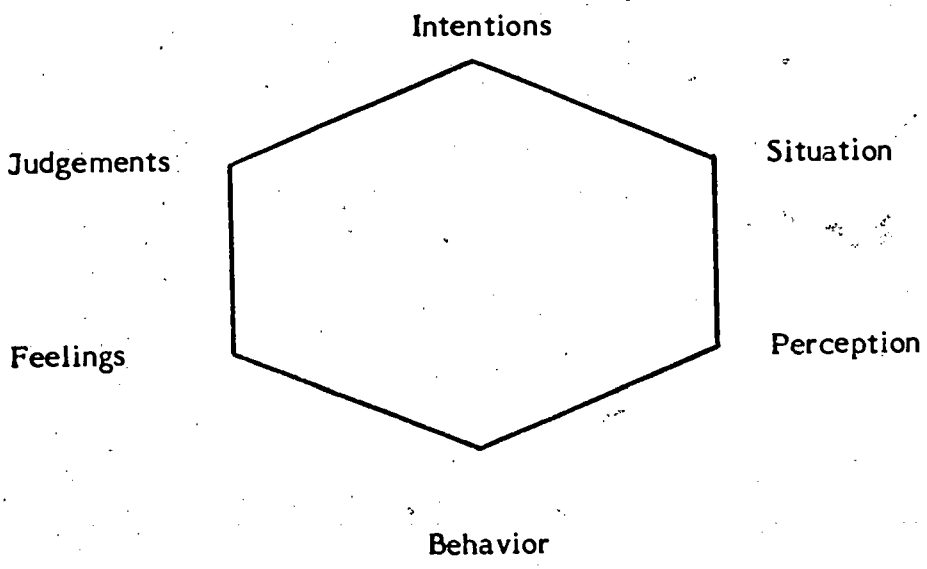
Number and Percentage of Teachers in Study

No. of Names Suggested by 30 Graduate Departments	266
No. Unable to contact (% of Suggested names)	31 (12%)
No. Who were Ineligible* (% of Suggested names)	119 (45%)
No. Who were Eligible (% of Suggested names)	117 (44%)
No. Who Agreed to Participate (% of Eligible)	105 (90%)
No. Who Completed the Study (% of Eligible)	97 (83%)

*A person was declared to be ineligible for the study if they: (a) did not succeed in obtaining an academic appointment that year, (b) had already been teaching for some time, or (c) went into non-academic work.

Figure 1

Types of Information Used in The Study



Perception

What type of teacher do you see yourself as, i.e., as following the principles-prototype, the instructor-centered prototype, the student-as-mind prototype, or the student-as-person prototype?

Do you perceive students at your college or university to be different at all from students in other institutions? Is so, in what way?

Behavior

Did you evaluate your teaching in any formal or quasi-formal manner during the past half-year?

Did the teacher promote teacher-student discussion? (for the students)

Feelings

To what degree have your experiences as a teacher this year produced "psychic satisfaction" for you?

What kinds of support from your colleagues would you have liked more of?

Judgments

Was your performance as a lecturer, discussion leader, . . . better, about the same, or worse than you had expected?

How would you compare the participant's performance as a college teacher to that of other beginning college teachers you have known? (for colleagues)

Sources of Information.

Information was obtained from four different sources: the beginning teachers themselves, their students, three of their colleagues, and the research director. The information received from each source was as follows:

1. Participating Teachers

   - Each person filled out four different questionnaires. One of these pertained to background information and was filled out before the

academic year began. The other three were completed near the beginning, middle, and end of the academic year respectively.

2. Their Students

   - All teachers were asked to have students in at least one of their courses complete a course evaluation instrument. Several (46) had evaluations in two or more sections, or courses.

3. Their Colleagues

   - One questionnaire was sent near the end of the academic year to the chairman and two other colleagues in the department of each participant.

4. Research Director

   - As the director of this research project, I made on-site visits to the campuses of thirty of the participants to interview them and to visit at least one of their classes.

General Assessment of the Research Data

To the best of my knowledge, this is the most comprehensive study of beginning college teachers to date. Although the number of subjects is not tremendously large, it is the only study that has collected direct, person-specific information about the background, performance, and situation of even a moderate number of new teachers with information from four different sources.

But, even though the study does not have much precedent, the research data does have some limits and these need to be noted at the outset.

Number of Disciplines Included. The most significant fact about the research sample is that the subjects all came from one discipline. This is both a disadvantage

and an asset. In one sense, it would have been good if the study could have included a large number of subjects from all disciplines, or at least all major ones. But this would have made the study much more expensive and would have created problems of making comparisons between disciplines.

The fact that the subjects were all from one discipline reduced the cost, simplified the sampling procedure, and made comparisons possible within the complete sample. There is also advantage in the fact that this particular discipline is a multi-faceted one, i.e., part of it is similar to the natural sciences, part to the social sciences, and part to the humanities (Broeck, 1965, p.3). This means that this discipline probably shares the same teaching problems found in other disciplines. This in turn means the results be generalized with more confidence than would have been possible in perhaps any other single discipline.

The other aspect of this issue, though, is that the majority of the questions raised and the relationships studied, would not appear to be primarily dependent on the nature of the discipline involved. The ability, for example, of each faculty member to assess the needs and capabilities of students, to garner the support and confidence of their colleagues, to organize meaningful learning activities, are in all likelihood more dependent on the general nature and structure of higher education than on the peculiar characteristics of a given discipline. Hence, the author feels confident in believing that the results of this sample can, with but few qualifications, be safely generalized to the situation and experiences of most begining college teachers in American higher education today.

Focus of the Study. Although questions were asked about the full range of academic activities (teaching, research, advising, etc.), the majority of questions were concerned with the teaching role. This is not meant to denigrate the other functions

of college teachers. They are all important. It is just that the author of this study was primarily concerned from the beginning with college teaching. An understanding of the other academic activities will simply have to wait on other studies.

Period of Time Covered by Study. The fact that the study covered the first year of teaching was both an asset and a limitation. That it covered a whole year made it much more informative than a study of a single course or even a semester. That it was only one year rather than three to five years means that it cannot be taken as a study of the entire developmental period in academic careers. Nonetheless the one year studied was sufficient to reveal relationships not previously identified in other research literature.

Sample Size. This study included participants from 30 of the 52 Ph.D.-granting departments of geography in the United States. These thirty departments are all among the more prestigious graduate departments in this country. Having narrowed the number of participating departments down to the more prestigious ones of this discipline, I then contacted all eligible doctoral students who were graduating from these departments during the two years of the study, and asked them to participate in the study. Almost all of those contacted (83%) did agree to participate and did complete the study. Hence it is a nearly comprehensive sample from selected departments.

The Response Rate. Once the eligible participants had been identified, several types of information were sought from various sources, as described above. Except for the site visits by the research director, all information was collected by questionnnaires. Table 2 shows the different questionnaires used in the study and the

Table 2

Response Rate for Questionnaires

Questionnaire	From	No. Sought	No. Received	Response
Background	Participant	97	97	100%
Beginning-of-year	"	97	97	100%
Mid-year	"	97	96	99%
End-of-year	"	97	96	99%
Colleague No. 1 (Chr)	Colleague	97	93	96%
Colleague No. 2	"	97	96	99%
Colleague No. 3	"	97	77	79%
Course Evaluation	Students	97	95	98%
	Total:	776	747	96%

response rate for each one. As can be seen there, out of the total number of questionnaires sought (776), 96% (747) were received. This means that there was essentially a complete file of information for every participant in the study. The only exception was that for a few (21%), there were questionnaires from only two colleagues rather than three.

Amount and Form of Information. The study generated a large quantity of data and included both quantitative and qualitative data, often on the same question. There were eight questionnaires collected for the file of each participant; seven of these were approximately ten pages long. (The eighth was the course evaluation.) The quantifiable information yielded nearly 1000 variables that were analyzed with a computer. The written comments from the questionnaires and the information from the site visits (classroom observations and interviews) were collated for separate analysis.

Course Evaluation Instrument

A critical aspect of this study was the instrument used to evaluate the courses taught by the participants. It was essential to obtain good information here if one was attempting to understand what was happening to the participants as teachers.

To do this, it was necessary for all participants to use the same method of evaluation, even though they were located in different institutions; hence the possibility of using their own institutional system of evaluation was ruled out. It also seemed preferable to use an instrument that had been carefully developed and refined if possible, rather than one designed only for this study.

As a result the decision was made to use the IDEA (Instructional Development and Effectiveness Assessment) System that was developed at Kansas State University

by Donald Hoyt. It has several attractive features. First, its central concern is with the question of whether or not the students learned what the professor was trying to teach. This is its biggest advantage over other commercially available course evaluation instruments. Second, it has norms for comparison that are large and nation-wide. Third, its norms and comparisons take into account class size and student motivation level. Fourth, it has an unusual diagnostic component that could be helpful to the participants.

A decision also had to be made on which course or courses should be evaluated. To evaluate every course taught by every participant would have made the analysis very complex and unwieldy. Rather, it was decided that each participant would use the IDEA instrument in at least one course, and that that course ought to be the largest course. The reason for this was simply that, if a choice had to be made, the largest course was where the teacher was affecting the most students.

However, as a check on the use of this instrument with this particular group of teachers, it was decided to ask some of the teachers to use it more than once to see if the results varied significantly. Forty-six of the participants did use it additional times, either with multiple sections of the same course, with different courses, or with the same course at different times. A separate analysis was made of these scores, the results of which are described in Chapter Four.

Multiple Perspectives. One of the best features of this study was the availability of multiple perspectives on several questions. It was not necessary, for example, to just use student evaluation scores to measure teaching effectiveness. It was possible to ask how each teacher was perceived by the students, by his or her colleagues, and by the teacher him/herself, and then to make comparisons.

With this introduction, the reader will hopefully be in a position to understand the information and analysis that follows, and to appreciate its value and limitations.

The rest of the chapters in this report are organized around certain themes. Below is a list of these themes and the questions asked about each of them.

"Getting There"

Who are the beginning college teachers?

Where did they come from?

Where did they go?

How were they selected by their new departments?

What experiences did they have to prepare them for college teaching?

What effect did these prior experiences have on their subsequent performance and satisfaction?

Their Situation

What kind of teaching contracts and work load did they have?

How well did they relate to their new institutional home?

To their colleagues?

To their students?

What effect did these relationships have on their teaching performance and satisfaction?

Performance

What were they trying to accomplish as teachers?

What teaching methods and strategies did they use?

How well did they do?

How did they feel about their first year's experience as a college teacher?

Plans for the future

What were their plans for the future?

What effect did their first year experiences have on their plans?

Recommendations

As a result of this study, what recommendations can be made for:

- graduate departments?
- graduate students?
- beginning college teachers?
- departments and institutions employing new teachers?

Chapter 2

"GETTING THERE"

The people who participated in this study had had a variety of personal and professional experiences prior to and during graduate school that affected their development as teachers. This in turn affected their experiences during their first year as full-time professional academics.

Information about their general characteristics and preparatory experiences will be given in the first half of this chapter. Following that will be (a) an analysis of the relationship between these prior developmental experiences and the participants' teaching during the first year, and (b) a description of the "sorting" process, i.e., the selection procedures that determined who went where.

General Characteristics of the Study Population

Two characteristics of general interest in the study population are age and sex. As can be seen in Table 3, most of the people in this study were men, and most were in a fairly narrow age range: 26 to 35.

It is difficult to assess the representativeness of these characteristics because of the lack of nation-wide information on beginning college teachers per se. The sex breakdown is about equal to that for all academic geographers, but this discipline is more male dominated than some other disciplines.

The study by McCall et al. (1961) is the only other one with data showing an age breakdown for beginning college teachers. But this was done in 1961 and only included faculty members in smaller institutions, those with enrollments of 3,000 or less. Hence, the fact that his study population showed a greater age distribution probably reflects the character of faculty recruitment at that time and in those institutions. At that time, for example, only a third of the new faculty members had a Ph.D. In the

Table 3

Age and Sex of Study Population

Compared with Other Faculty Groups

Sex	Study Population	All Academic Geographers*	Beginning College Teachers (1961)**	All Full Time Faculty (1977)***	
				All Ranks	Asst. Prof.
Female	12%	9%	26%	25%	32%
Male	88%	91%	74%	75	68

Age	Study Population	Beginning College Teachers (1961)**
21-25	4%	14%
26-30	46	32
31-35	43	20
36 & over	6	31
mean age	30.6	33.5
median age	30.5	31.4
std. dev.	4	8.7
range	24-47	21-60+

*This is a breakdown by sex of members of the Association of American Geographers who held appointments in colleges and universities in 1978. "AAG Membership Profiles." AAG Newsletter, Feb. 1979, Vol. 14, No. 2, p. 11.

**This data is based on questionnaires from 1119 beginning college teachers in 1961 in institutions with an enrollment of 3,000 or less. The data on ages have been interpolated to fit the categories in this table. (McCall et al., 1961)

***Source: A Fact Book on Higher Education: Institution, Faculty and Staff, Student, 1977. (American Council on Education)

current study, the subjects all either had their doctorate (68% by the end of the study) or were ABD and working on their dissertation (32%). This partially reflects the method by which these people were chosen for inclusion in this study, but also reflects the importance currently attached to the doctoral degree in all institutions of higher education except two-year colleges.

Another important characteristic is the nature of the specialties chosen in graduate school. Geography is a multi-faceted discipline that allows its adherents to study nearly anything in a particular way. Hence their choice of specialties will reflect the nature of their preferences. Table 4 shows the percentage of participants who chose different types of specialties.

The largest single category--urban planning, land use planning, and spatial analysis--is a recent but fast growing and dynamic specialty within the discipline. It became very strong during the late sixties and early seventies, the time when these people were undergraduates.

Many of the other specialties, e.g., human geography, physical geography, and economic geography, have a longer tradition in the discipline and still attract practitioners. However, some other traditional specialities such as regional geography apparently are not succeeding in attracting graduate students in large numbers.

One other important characteristic was the nature of their formal education. Table 5 contains a summary of the information collected on this topic. Some of the more significant observations from this table include the following:

- Very few (7%) received an associate of arts degree before continuing their higher educational career,
- Most had already selected geography or a related subject as a major during their undergraduate years.
- Most were undergraduates during the tumultuous late sixties and graduate students during the quieter seventies.

Table 4

Specializations of Study Population Within Geography

Urban/Land Use/Planning	23%
Human/Social/Cultural	22
Physical	21
Environmental Studies	8
Economic Geography	7
Research Methods	7
Historical Geography	4
Spatial Analysis	3
Regional Geography	2
Geography as A Discipline	1

Table 5

Formal Education of Study Population

	Degree Level: AA	BA/BS	MA/MS	PhD
1. Percentage Receiving this Degree	7%	100%	100%	100%
2. Major				
Geography	1%	63%	91%	96%
Geography related (Soc. Sci., Hist., Geol.)	-	17	6	4
Other (Engl., Bus., Educ.)	6	12	3	0
3. Year Graduated				
Median year	1964	1969	1972	1977
4. Institutional Source of Support				
State	6%	74%	83%	78%
Private	1	23	14	22
Denominational	0	2	3	0
5. Size of Institution (Enrollment)				
Median	20,000	14,500	23,000	30,000
Range	12-22,000	2-50,000	3-59,000	3-59,000
6. Number who received this degree in another country	0	16	7	0

- Most attended state-supported institutions throughout their higher educational careers, as do most American students (78%).

- They attended increasingly larger institutions as they pursued advanced degrees.

- One out of six received their BA/BS degree in a foreign country and came to the United States to do graduate work. (It should also be noted that 6 of the 16 non-U.S. nationals in this study returned to their home countries to teach.) Nearly all of these came from countries that are present or former members of the Commonwealth.

Prior Development as Teachers

During the interviews with some of the participants, I asked how they had come to enter the profession of college teaching and what contributed to their "development as teachers." One of the surprises I encountered, as a person familiar with the language and ethos of the phrase "development as a teacher," was that this phrase was meaningless to a number of these people. That was when I discovered that some of them, even after they had already started teaching, did not see their performance as something that resulted from a developmental process. For them, teaching was something you did, and did well or poorly, depending on your God-given talent and how much time you put in on it.

Others saw the matter quite differently. For them, their teaching performance at any given time reflected their stage of development at that time. Development consisted of an ever increasing understanding of the subject matter, of themselves as knowers and teachers, of the students, and of the processes of teaching and learning.

Since it is clear that I share this latter view and its associated values, I tried to explain the terms and get answers from the participants about the questions that follow from this view. When did you decide to become a college teacher? When did you decide to teach this subject? What people have been influential in your decision, and in shaping your view of good teaching? How much and what kinds of prior teaching experience have you had? How much and what kind of formal training have

you had, if any, for college teaching? How significant was that experience and training in your development as a teacher? Their responses to these questions are summarized below.

The Decision to Become a College Teacher

The participants varied greatly in terms of when and how they decided to become a college teacher. During the interviews, several remembered deciding while in high school or even grade school that they wanted to teach. For them, it was only a question of what subject(s) and what level. Others did not come to this decision until they were in college or even in graduate school. This latter group discovered an attraction for the subject matter first and then decided to teach it rather than work with it in some other role.

As one might expect, many mentioned particular teachers who had been especially important to them. The participants seemed to want to do for others what these teachers had done for them, whether that was making a subject come alive or demonstrating the potential of an individual mind or whatever. What I had not anticipated was the frequency with which these people mentioned the significance (a) of parents who were teachers or (b) of teaching in situations other than in schools. Unfortunately the role of parents was only described serendipitously in the interviews and I did not notice it early enough to gather information on it systematically through the questionnaires. The participants did have a chance to comment on non-school teaching experiences though, and 41 (nearly half) identified some such experience. This ranged from such things as teaching sailing during the summer to fulfilling one of the many teaching roles in Mormon society. Many of the comments suggested that somehow, during these other teaching occasions, these people saw themselves as doing something, doing it well, and liking it. This attracted them to the role of teaching and eventually to the profession of teaching.

Developmental Opportunities Prior to Graduate School

Formal Teaching Experience. A large portion of the participants (47%) had had some kind of formal teaching experience before they entered graduate school, either in grade school (4%), high school (24%), and/or college (33%) before they entered graduate school (see Table 6). (The individual figures sum to more than 47% because some participants had taught at more than one level.) These figures are similar to those found in a survey of college teachers done in Minnesota by Ruth Eckert in the early 1970's. She found that 23% of the faculty at the University of Minnesota had had public school teaching experience and that 37% of the faculty in the four year colleges had been elementary or secondary school teachers (Eckert and Williams, 1972). When asked how significant these experiences were to their development as teachers, the respondents rated them quite high, 2.98 on a 0-4 scale.

Education Courses. A large portion (35%) had also taken one or more education courses. Over half of these had had four or more such courses (see Table 6). However the majority had low opinions of these courses; the average rated significance of education courses was 1.21.

> "Most were awful. They almost caused me not to be a teacher."
>
> "I started taking an education course and found I wasn't learning doodly squat so I quit."

The handful of positive comments tended to refer to student teaching experiences rather than to actual coursework.

> "(The education courses were) not particularly significant except student teaching. That was important in confronting the realities of the classroom situation, and applying materials of other courses."

Developmental Opportunities During Graduate School

Experience as a TA. The most highly rated background experience in terms of

Table 6

Prior Teaching Experience and Education Courses: Amount and Rated Significance

Teaching Experience: Prior to Graduate School	Percentage of Respondents	Rated Significance Scale: 0 (low) to 4 (high)
1. Elementary school 4% = 1 year	4%	
2. Secondary school 15% = 1 year 9% = 2-7 years	24%	2.98
3. College/university 18% = 1-2 years 15% = 3-8 years	33%	
Education Courses: Prior to Graduate School 15% = 1-4 courses 20% = 5 or more courses	35%	1.21
During Graduate School		
1. Teaching assistantship 11% = 1-2 times 17% = 3-4 times 62% = 5 or more times	90%	3.17
Full responsibility for a course = 56% Partial responsibility for a course = 34%		
2. Education courses	8%	1.38
3. Teaching outside the department 15% = 1-2 times 7% = 3-4 times 15% = 5 or more times	37%	2.94

becoming a teacher was being a teaching assistant (TA). Again the frequency of the assistantship experience was high. Eighty-seven participants (90%) said they had been a TA during graduate school, and of these, 54 (56%) said they had had full responsibility for a class (see Table 6).

The comments indicated the respondents were by and large appreciative of the chance to actually teach:

> "Experience is the best teacher, one learns what works and what doesn't work."
>
> "At (my graduate school) advanced graduate students (i.e. Ph.D. students) are given almost total responsibility for teaching introductory courses in physical and cultural geography. An invaluable experience since most Ph.D.'s in the discipline end up in academe as teachers."

But there were also several major reservations about whether the opportunity had been all that it might have been.

> "A TA at (my graduate school) was rarely given increased responsibility with seniority. Hence the job became rather dull after the first year or so."
>
> "I did the same course too many times."
>
> "No conscious effort by faculty to teach graduate TA's different methods of teaching. Thus it was a learn by yourself situation."
>
> "Found the lack of freedom to use my own texts and, in labs, my own approach, to be frustrating.
>
> "Very useful for seminar-type teaching, but gave insufficient experience in lecturing."

The general desire seems to be for a gradual increase in responsibility, with help along the way but with freedom and autonomy too, especially at the end.

Outside Teaching. Another large number, 36, said they had done some teaching outside the department while in graduate school. This was usually in extension programs, another department on campus, evening school, or in a nearby, smaller college.

This experience was also rated high in its contribution to their development as teachers; the average rating was 2.94 on a scale of 0-4 (see Table 6). This may have been valuable because it was a high gain, low risk situation. Besides being helpful financially, it gave them experience with the full responsibilities of teaching: syllabus preparation, choosing reading material, preparing all classes, giving lectures, leading dicussions, writing tests, and assigning grades. It was also a low-risk situation because their performance would by and large be unknown to their graduate advisers who evaluated them and wrote letters of reference.

It may also be that it was helpful because it put them in institutions and departments with a different social-ethical system, i.e., one in which primary value was put on teaching and students rather than on research and the discipline. This then might have been helpful for people who eventually went to teaching-oriented departments.

Special Teaching Preparation Programs

During graduate school several of the participants (30%) had taken part in a program sponsored by their department to help graduate students develop their teaching capability. Each of these programs (known as the TLGG programs and described in Chapter One of this report) had their own set of activities but usually included four or more of the specific activities listed in Table 7.

Since this was an experimental program organized by a national disciplinary association (the Association of American Geographers), the reaction of the participants to these programs is of special interest.

Table 7

Teaching Preparation Activities:

Amount and Rated Significance

Participation in a TLGG Program

Available
Participated - 30%
Did not participate - 12%
Not available - 58%

Specific Teaching Preparation Activity	Percentage of Respondents	Rated Significance Scale: 0 (low) - 4 (high)
1. Teaching a course	90%	3.17
2. Mini-teaching 17% - 1-2 times 20% - 3-4 times 49% - 5 or more times	86%	2.24
3. Developing course materials 31% = 1-2 times 20% = 3-4 times 37% = 5 or more times	88%	2.88
4. Having one's teaching diagnosed by an observer 23% = 1-2 times 13% = 3-4 times 15% = 5 or more times	51%	1.72
5. Observing oneself teach via audio/videotape	15%	2.00
6. Observing others teach	41%	2.05
7. Readings and lectures on teaching	60%	1.73
8. Discussions on teaching and learning 49% - with graduate students 33% - with graduate students and faculty 13% - with faculty 78% = informal discussions 14% = formal discussions	93%	2.16

When asked: " In general, how would you rate the significance of these activities in your own development and performance this year as a teacher?", the response was:

6 - strong positive effect

10 - moderate positive effect

14 - not much effect one way or the other

0 - negative effect

The general reaction can be described as either mildly positive or neutral. A close analysis of the participants' comments, both in the questionnnaires and in the interviews, gives some of the reasons for the mildness of the response and suggests that the main benefit from participating in the programs may not come until after the first year of teaching.

First, some of the negative reaction seemed to be the result of an interaction effect with certain individuals, i.e. it was not something inherent in the nature of the programs. Some participants were quite outspoken in their reaction, viz.

> "(I participated in) a seminar on teaching (a TLGG seminar) for one-quarter. It was a total waste of time."

However, there were others from the same graduate department who participated in the same programs who felt quite positive abut their experience. Hence it would be a mistake to conclude that the programs were bad; it would be more accurate to conclude that they were not helpful for all participants.

Second, the participants offered a number of reasons for the lack of impact. The following quotes illustrate the more significant criticisms.

> "I already had 6 years of teaching experience when I entered graduate school. These activities didn't teach me anything I didn't already know." (Many of the detractors of the programs had had prior teaching experience.)

> "The discussions we had on "how to ...." did not lead to anything beyond what one would come to with a little common sense and sensitivity." (No significant new insights.)

> "(The director of the program) did not challenge my basic ideas; he only reinforced what I already knew and believed in."
>
> "(Most of the analyses of our teaching) was in terms of superficials -- mannerisms, style, etc." (Shallow analyses.)

Third, those participants who did find participation helpful frequently referred to a more developed consciousness and awareness of options and factors.

> "The TLGG program increased my overall interest in improving my teaching skills, i.e., my ability to give lectures, lead labs, and write good exams. And it increased my interest in teaching per se."
>
> "The discussions forced me to verbalize my approach to teaching and my reasons for doing what I do. As a result, I am now more conscious and deliberate in thinking about what I do as a teacher."
>
> "The thing I enjoyed about the program was that I was not the only one trying to learn about teaching; there was a group of people, all of whom were trying things and talking about it. This made it very exciting."

There seemed to be special value in the experience of working with a single professor on a given course for a whole semester or a year, before being given full responsibility for a course as a TA. There were not many people with this opportunity, but the ones who did have it all found it very worthwhile.

> "(During the several quarters I worked with this professor) I received advice and part-time classroom experience. From the examples I saw I realized the need for organized preparedness, enthusiasm, diversity of delivery (use of slides, films, maps, etc.) and respect in the classroom deriving from the above and from genuine interest in students."

Fourth, one respondent made an important observation explaining why he thought his participation in the TLGG program was not affecting his teaching much this year but would in the future.

> "The program made me aware of different teaching options and made me think about them. The problem is that this year, between teaching several new courses and finishing my dissertation, I simply don't have the time to work up or try these other options. Hence I think the real payoff will come in another year or two down the line."

To conclude this section, one would have to say that several people did not find the TLGG program helpful. For some, the reason lay in perceived shortcomings in the program. For others, it was in the nature of the participants, e.g., prior teaching

experience. On the other hand, several did find the program helpful, and there is reason to believe the new ideas about teaching that were acquired might be more productive once the frenzy of the first year of teaching had quieted down.

An Analysis of Individual Activities

All teaching preparation programs use a variety of specific activities to help people develop their capabilities as teachers. Each of the activities used in one or more of the TLGG programs and its general function is shown in Figure 2.

Since these activities are used by many pre-service and in-service programs, the reactions of the participants to each of the activities individually should be of interest.

The number of people in this study who engaged in these activities was larger than the number of TLGG participants. In some graduate departments, professors and graduate students decided to do one or more of these activities even though they were not part of a formal TLGG program. The reactions of everyone who engaged in a particular activity are shown in Table 7. The separate reactions of the TLGG participants and the non-TLGG participants are shown in Table 8.

Teaching a Course. For most people this happened because they were a TA. As noted earlier, teaching as a TA was widespread and highly valued.

Mini-Teaching. This refers to one-time teaching efforts where a graduate student is asked to fill-in for a faculty member or to give a seminar/lecture on his or her area of expertise.

The respondents in general found this helpful, especially if they had no prior teaching or presentational experience. Then it became an occasion for building confidence in one's ability to speak in front of and/or work with groups of students.

Figure 2

Basic Teaching Preparation Activities and Their General Function*

Activity	Function
1. Teaching a course	Provides experience
2. Mini-teaching	
3. Developing plans and materials for a course	
4. Having one's teaching diagnosed by an observer	Provides feedback
5. Observing oneself teach	
6. Observing others teach	Provides models
7. Readings and lectures about teaching and learning	Develops one's conceptualization of the act of teaching
8. Discussions about teaching and learning	

*Taken from: Fink, 1976-77.

Table 8

Comparison of TLGG Participants and Non-Participants on:

Rated Significance of Teaching Preparation Activities and Amount of feedback received

Activity	Average Rated Significance by:† Non-Participants	Participants
1. Mini-teaching	2.22	2.27
2. Developing course materials	2.93	2.79
3. Having one's teaching diagnosed by an observer	1.45	2.17**
4. Observing oneself teach	2.00	2.00
5. Observing others teach	2.00	2.14
6. Readings and lectures	1.50	1.96*
7. Discussions	2.10	2.26
Amount of Feedback Received		
1. On mini-teaching	1.55	1.68
2. On course materials developed	1.12	1.39

†Scale = 0 (low) to 4 (high)

In a one-way analysis of variance, the difference in the means is significant at a probability level of:

* = 0.10
** = 0.01

However, the questionnnaire comments reflected an awareness that this was no substitute for fuller teaching responsibilities. There was also an awareness that, to really be an opportunity to develop as a teacher, this had to be followed by substantive, critical comments by an observer.

> "The feedback by the regular teacher and students was very ego-supportive but lacked specific comments on teaching methods. Comments were limited to 'Gee that was really good' sort of thing."

The TLGG participants reported a slightly greater amount of feedback on these efforts than did non-participants (see Table 8).

Developing Plans and Materials for a Course. This was done either for a course they were teaching or in which they were a TA, or as a project in a seminar on teaching. This had the highest rated significance of any activity other than teaching with full responsibility (see Table 7).

> "For me, this is the most difficult and important part of teaching--deciding what to cover and how to go about covering it."

> "Having the opportunity to develop such coursework not only developed my confidence but greatly changed my attitude toward teaching. It made me think about and at times changed my view about what does and does not constitute a good education."

Again, there was a felt need for substantive feedback on the quality of this activity and regrets when it was not forthcoming. And again, the TLGG participants received somewhat more feedback (see Table 8).

Having One's Teaching Diagnosed by an Outside Observer. This only happened for about half of the respondents. Most of the people for whom it happened felt it was either valuable or potentially so. The downgrading of its rated significance was the result of shortcomings in the comments made afterwards by the observer.

> "I think that observing is crucial (so I give the idea of doing so a '4-high'); I checked '2-moderate value' since the comments I received were on the order of 'that was fine' or 'I really enjoyed that.' While such comments are flattering, they are not of significance in improving your teaching."

> "The individual who observed me was a faculty member who didn't realize I had taught previously. He was simply supportive and complimentary; little of substance was gained from the discussion."

"My advisor mentioned to the class that I would soon be teaching in college and asked the class to critique my lecture by writing comments on 3x5 cards that were distributed to the class--very helpful feedback."

Observing Oneself Teach. Today, with the help of audio-tapes and/or video-tapes, one can hear and/or see oneself as a class does. This is an activity that in principle would seem to have high potential value; but, as reported by the respondents in this study, is not widely used (only 15%) and only moderately rated when used (see Table 7). The comments of the participants suggest the conditions necessary for successful use of this activity.

"The key is to be aware of yourself--sometimes taping may force you into that. But the taping I did came at a time when I was very conscious of what I did as a teacher and was not very useful."

"I am opposed to videotapes. They may be a shattering experience for the person involved."

In my opinion, the last two comments overlook the potential value of audio/-videotaping, but they do identify two of the constraints on effective use of such taping. The first respondent puts her finger on the major point: the key is to be aware of yourself. If a graduate student is not aware of themselves, if there is something they are doing that is distracting or preventing them from being effective, and if the experience is not overly threatening to the individual, then audio/videotaping can be effective. Otherwise it can be a waste of time, or worse, ego-damaging.

Observing Others Teach. Since these people had been students in the classroom for many years, they had obviously witnessed many different teachers. But there is a difference between listening to a teacher in order to learn about a subject, and carefully watching a teacher in order to learn about teaching. It was the latter case that was asked about in the questionnaire. So defined, only 41% said they had visited someone else's class to learn about teaching. The average rated significance was moderate: 2.05 on a scale of 0 (low) to 4 (high).

The main problem people had with this activity was the realization of how hard it is, for example, to give a good lecture after watching an excellent lecturer lecture. There is an interaction between personality and teaching technique that makes it difficult to adopt or even adapt particular techniques successfully.

> "Several were highly inspirational, but I was not able to copy in spite of trying."
>
> "Techniques can be borrowed; personality cannot."

Generally the chance to observe an unusual or outstanding teacher was enhanced if there was a chance to talk with that person afterwards about why they did what did and their sense of what made them effective (realizing that not all effective teachers have a well developed sense of why they are succeeding).

But despite the aforementioned limitation, most of the respondents felt this activity had had an effect on them in one way or another.

> "I try to model the best characteristics I have observed and avoid the worst."
>
> "I didn't learn so much from the observations themselves as from the realization that teaching--that of others and hence my own--could be ojectively analyzed."
>
> "I find myself using the effectiveness of several former instructors as a measure of my own performance."

Readings and Lectures. Ultimately, to develop as a teacher, one has to do more than teach or watch others teach. One has to encounter new ideas, and one way of doing this is to read or hear someone talk about teaching.

Sixty percent said they had done some reading or heard some lectures on teaching, but this was not one of the higher rated activities (see Table 7). The comments revealed a great deal of variation in the type of reading or lectures that

people found worthwhile. Some of the people found stimulating ideas in articles about teaching specific kinds of courses, presumably because the readers were teaching or intended to teach these courses. Others found value in more general discussions of teaching. Many different titles of articles or books were mentioned, but, interestingly the two books that were given "honorable mentions" by more than one person were: Freedom to Learn by Carl Rogers (1969) and Teaching as a Subversive Activity by Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner (1969). These are well-known books that were written about the time these people were in or entering graduate school. Both books persuasively articulate the rationale and methods for a non-traditional, student-oriented approach to teaching.

There were fewer mentions of successful lectures on teaching. Somehow lectures seemed to be less effective than readings, discussions or work sessions as a means of conveying new ideas and information. (It was not clear whether any of the participants caught the significance of this fact for their own teaching.)

> "In the course on the college teaching of geography, there were a few good lectures on grading and designing tests, but overall the guest speakers (approximately 5) were of little value or help."

Although it technically belongs in the next item on discussion, several TLGG participants mentioned here that they had attended one of the TLGG national conferences and found it exhilarating.

> "The TLGG meeting in Ann Arbor was a most useful contact with ideas about teaching. I wish I had had the opportunity to attend the other meetings."

> "I really valued the chance to attend those conferences. I felt they were part of a big event. The value was in seeing many minds, mature minds, work on education problems."

Discussions on Teaching and Learning. All of the TLGG seminars had discussions on teaching and learning, but these people had many other opportunities to discuss this

topic simply by virtue of being part of the academic social community. Hence, although nearly everyone said they had discussed educational problems during graduate school, the vast majority said these were informal discussions and most were with other graduate students rather than with faculty members (see Table 7). The numerical ratings were moderately significant, (2.16 on a scale from 0 to 4) but the written comments were more exuberant.

> "Fantastically important!" (made by a person who had been involved in a small group of graduate students and faculty trying to develop a new course).
>
> "My discussions were mostly with other graduate students, although often with faculty. Very helpful in discussing common problems, alternatives methods, etc."

There was a negative reaction whenever the discussions were perceived to be "bull sessions," "bitch sessions," or as being of the "teachers' room" variety.

> "About 1/3 of such discussions tended to be 'bitch sessions,' getting frustrations off your chest; 2/3 were a sharing of ideas, methods, philosophies, etc."
>
> "We often compared notes on how deficient many of the undergraduates were as students. Actually it was rather defensive chatter, but it was cheaper than complaining to a psychiatrist."

In a word, both formal and informal types of discussions had their values and limitations.

To summarize this section on prior developmental experiences (i.e., those that occurred before the first teaching position), I would make two general statements. First, a significant portion (47%) had had some form of teaching experience prior to entering graduate school. This affected not only their subsequent teaching but their reaction to events during graduate school as well. Second, many of the respondents engaged in one or another kind of activity that helped them develop as teachers. Many of these were part of or outgrowths of being a TA. Others were part of a formal or quasi-formal teaching preparation program. All forms of actual teaching experience,

whether as a teacher with full responsibility or only partial responsibility, were regarded as having high developmental value. The evaluation of ancillary activities--being observed, visiting others' classes, readings, discussions, etc.-- was more mixed. The reactions of the respondents to these activities seemed to depend primarily on whether the activity was able to develop ideas and insights that were both new and significant.

The Effect of Prior Developmental Experiences on the First Year

The data that is available in this study make it possible to ask whether these prior developmental experiences had an effect on the participants' first year as college teachers. Because all data was person-specific, it can be determined whether the participants with a particular kind of prior experience were systematically different during that first year than those without that experience.

The following two sections use breakdown statistics to examine the effect of events prior to graduate school and activities during graduate school on (a) the participants' sense of readiness for college teaching, (b) the quality of their teaching as measured by three different evaluators, and (c) the satisfaction they received from their first year of teaching.

Events Prior to Graduate School

Table 9 shows a breakdown of subsequent effects by the amount of education courses, precollegiate teaching experience, college-level teaching experience, and other (non-academic) teaching experience. All of these seemed to have a positive effect, some more than others. The education courses and the precollegiate teaching experience had an especially strong effect on the participants' sense of readiness and on their self-assessment. It is interesting to note the strong relationship between the

Table 9

Breakdown of Readiness, Performance and Satisfaction

by Amount of Prior Teaching Experience and Education Courses

Experiences Prior to Graduate School	Scale:	Self-Assessed Readiness (10-33)	Performance, as Assessed by: Self (0-4)	Colleagues (0-4)	Students (1-100)	Satisfaction With First Year (1-5)	(N)
1. Education courses							
0		23***	2.8***	2.8	30	3.7	(59)
1-4 courses		24	2.9	2.8	38	4.1	(18)
5 or more		26	3.4	3.0	41	4.1	(20)
2. Pre-collegiate Teaching							
0		23***	2.9**	2.9*	32	3.9	(71)
1-2 years		25	3.2	2.7	38	3.8	(22)
3 years or more		26	3.0	3.6	48	4.3	(4)
3. College-Level Teaching							
0		23*	2.9	2.9	33	3.8	(66)
1-2 years		24	3.0	3.0	49	4.1	(17)
3 years or more		25	3.0	2.7	23	4.0	(14)
4. Other (non-academic) Teaching?							
No		23**	2.9**	2.8*	31**	3.8	(77)
Yes		25	3.2	3.1	44	4.0	(20)
During Graduate School							
1. TA Experiences							
none		22**	2.8	2.6	25	3.3	(10)
TA: partial responsibility		23	2.9	2.9	38	4.0	(33)
TA: full responsibility		24	3.0	2.9	33	3.9	(54)

(continued on next page)

Table 9 (cont.)

Experiences During Graduate School	Scale:	Self-Assessed Readiness (10-33)	Performance, as Assessed by: Self (0-4)	Colleagues (0-4)	Students (1-100)	Satisfaction With First Year (1-5)	(N)
2. Teaching Outside Department							
0		23*	2.9	2.8	28***	3.8	(59)
1-2 times		23	2.9	3.2	32	4.1	(15)
3-4 times		23	3.0	2.6	61	3.8	(6)
5 times or more		26	3.3	2.9	48	4.2	(15)
3. Teaching Preparation Program							
Not Available		23	3.1***	2.9	37	3.9	(55)
Not Participated		25	3.2	2.6	29	3.6	(12)
Not Valued		24	2.6	2.7	28	3.9	(14)
Participated and Valued		23	2.7	3.2	33	3.9	(16)

In a one-way analysis of variance, the difference among the means are significant at a probability level of:

* = 0.10
** = 0.05
*** = 0.01

amount of non-academic teaching experience and the participants' sense of readiness and performance. It may be that these people had personalities that enjoyed and gained confidence in their teaching role outside schools, and this helped them subsequently in the classroom.

Events During Graduate School

Table 9 also shows the effect of activities that occurred during graduate school. Being a teaching assistant, even with full responsibility for a course, seemed to help, but not as much as one might have expected. Having an opportunity to teach a course outside the department (presumably in a nearby college) had a strong effect on the three factors shown, especially on performance as rated by student evaluations.

There is one unusual effect related to participation in the TLGG program. Although the relationships are not linear, the people who did participate in these programs and valued them did comparatively well on performance (as rated by colleagues and by students) and found a reasonable amount of satisfaction in their first year. But they had a lower sense of readiness and their self-evaluations were also significantly lower. One conclusion that could be drawn from this is that participation in these programs affected their awareness of the demands and possibilities of good teaching, more than it affected their ability to implement these possibilities -- at least in the first year.

Specific Teaching Preparation Activities

It is also possible to examine the relationships between the individual teaching preparation activities and the participants' sense of readiness, their performance, and their satisfaction. These are shown in the breakdown statistics in Table 10.

Table 10

Breakdown of Readiness, Performance, and Satisfaction

by Extent of Teaching Preparation Activities

Teaching Preparation Activities	Scale:	Self-Assessed Readiness (11-33)	Performance, as Assessed by: Self (0-4)	Colleagues (0-4)	Students (1-100)	Satisfaction With First Year (1-5)	(N)
1. Mini-teaching (One-time teaching efforts)							
0 times		25	2.9	3.0	32	3.8	(14)
1-2 times		23	2.8	2.7	35	3.8	(16)
3-4 times		23	3.0	3.1	31	4.1	(19)
5 times or more		23	3.0	2.8	36	3.8	(46)
2. Developing course materials							
0 times		22	2.8	2.8**	33***	3.5	(12)
1-2 times		23	3.0	2.5	30	4.0	(29)
3-4 times		25	3.1	3.1	52	4.3	(19)
5 times or more		24	2.9	3.0	28	3.8	(34)
3. Having one's teaching diagnosed by an observer							
0 times		23	3.0	2.8	31	3.7	(46)
1-2 times		23	3.0	2.7	38	4.0	(21)
3-4 times		24	3.0	3.1	39	3.8	(11)
5 times or more		24	2.9	3.2	35	4.2	(14)
4. Observing oneself teach via audio/videotape							
0 times 23		23	2.9	2.8	35	3.8**	(79)
1-2 times		25	3.0	3.2	30	4.5	(13)
3-4 times		25	4.0	3.5	51	5.0	(1)

(continued on next page)

Table 10 (cont.)

Teaching Preparation Activities	Scale:	Self-Assessed Readiness (11-33)	Performance, as Assessed by: Self (0-4)	Colleagues (0-4)	Students (1-100)	Satisfaction With First Year (1-5)	(N)
5. Observing others teach							
0 times		23	2.9	2.8	29*	3.7	(53)
1-2 times		23	3.0	2.9	37	4.1	(13)
3-4 times		23	3.3	2.9	31	4.0	(7)
5 times or more		25	2.9	3.0	45	4.2	(17)
6. Readings and lectures on teaching							
None		23	3.1	2.8*	39	4.0	(39)
Few		23	2.9	2.8	32	3.5	(27)
Some		24	3.1	3.1	23	4.0	(8)
Several		24	2.8	2.7	27	4.1	(10)
Many		25	2.8	3.5	35	4.1	(10)
7. Discussions on teaching and learning							
None		22	3.1	2.8	21	3.8	(7)
1-2 times		24	2.5	2.8	39	4.6	(6)
3-10 times		24	3.0	2.9	37	3.9	(40)
2 times/semester		22	2.9	2.4	27	2.9	(7)
2 times/month		23	2.9	3.1	33	4.1	(15)
1 time/month		25	3.0	2.9	36	4.1	(18)

In a one-way analysis of variance, the differences among the means are significant at a probability level of:

* = 0.10
** = 0.05
*** = 0.01

Nearly all of the relationships here are positive, but not all are large and many are not linear.

Participants who had a chance to observe themselves (on videotape or audiotape) did subsequently find more satisfaction in their teaching. It may be that the chance to face the often "harsh" reality of seeing oneself on videotape and thereby learning to accept, analyze, and evaluate that reality, prepared them psychologically for their first year on the job.

People who observed others teach for the purpose of learning about teaching had good performance ratings from their students and their colleagues. This is presumably related also to an enhanced ability to analyze and evaluate the teaching act. This suggests they were able to transfer this learning to their own teaching.

Some (but not all) of the people who developed materials for a course during graduate school (e.g., syllabi, lecture notes, exams) did better later on. This may have depended on whether the courses they subsequently taught were similar to the courses for which they developed the materials.

The effect of one-time teaching efforts (e.g., guest lectures), readings and lectures, and discussions on teaching and learning was mixed. The latter two factors included activities in both formal and informal situations; it is not clear which of these might be more effective in improving one's teaching.

Prestige of Graduate School

One question which some people have is whether graduates of highly-rated graduate departments are more generally talented people, and hence do a better job of both teaching and research, or not. Given the fact that there have been at least two published reports ranking departments of geography nationally, it is possible to give a partial answer to this question.

One of the national rankings was the Roose-Andersen survey that was published in 1970. This survey asked practitioners to rank doctoral departments in order of status. Hence it is really a measure of prestige. Another ranking was done by the Department of Geography at Syracuse University (Sopher and Duncan, 1975). Assuming that a "better" department would never hire graduate students from a "lesser" department, they examined the placement of graduate students in their first appointment, and came up with a rank ordering of departments. The correlation between these two ratings is high, +0.84. The thirty graduate departments where the participants in this study did their graduate work can be grouped into thirds: the first ten, the second ten, and the third ten — according to each of the two surveys. The average teaching performance, as measured by three criteria, of the graduates of these three groups of departments can then be compared. The results of this comparison are shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Do Graduates of Prestigious Departments Teach Better?

Prestige of Graduate School as Measured by:	Teaching Performance as Measured by: Self Assessment (0-5)	Colleague Assessment (0-4)	Student Assessment (1-100)
Roose-Andersen			
1st-10	2.9	2.7	32
2nd-10	2.9	3.0	36
3rd-10	3.1	2.9	35
Syracuse Survey			
1st-10	2.9	2.8	33
2nd-10	2.9	2.8	31
3rd-10	3.0	3.0	41

Although the differences are not great, the graduates of the most prestigious departments did not teach quite as well, as a group, as the graduates of lesser-ranked

departments. There was a slight negative correlation (-0.15 and -0.14 for the two rankings respectively) between the prestige of one's graduate department and subsequent teaching performance.

The "Sorting" Process: Who Went Where

The frequency of these and other ranking surveys indicate the high level of prestige consciousness in the academic community (Cartter, 1966; Roose and Andersen, 1969; Sopher and Duncan, 1975). Every institution and department knows (or wants to know) where it fits in the world, national, or regional hierarchy.

One well-known scholar on higher education, Logan Wilson, has stated that this hierarchy has a direct influence on the placement of Ph.D. students. (Wilson, 1942, p. 42). This has sometimes been called the "trickle-down" theory of Ph.D. placement. It says, in essence, that the graduate students who enter academic work will find positions in institutions somewhat lower on the hierarchy than the institution where they did their graduate work.

Caplow and McGee, writing in 1958, referred to Wilson's comments, but felt a revision was necessary to describe what was beginning to happen at that time when higher education was entering a period of tremendous enrollment and hence in the number of faculty positions:

> "What is happening today is that major universities are holding more of their graduates at their own level, trading them with one another and employing them at home rather than supplying them to the minor leagues which, in turn, supply them to the bush leagues." (p. 212)

The data from the present study allows one to seek answers to several questions along this line. Did the people in this study follow the "trickle-down" pattern of placement? Did the pattern seem to be affected by the fact that at the time of this study, enrollment growth in higher education was leveling off and actually declining in

some years? What were the characteristics of the institutions to which these participants went, in terms other than prestige? Information on each of these questions will be presented below.

As mentioned earlier, the people in this study did their graduate work in well known departments and institutions. These included the following universities:

Berkeley	Iowa	Oklahoma
Chicago	Johns Hopkins	Oregon
Cincinnati	Kansas	Oregon State
Clark	Louisiana State	Pennsylvania State
Colorado	Maryland	Rutgers
Florida	Michigan	Syracuse
Georgia	Michigan State	Texas
Hawaii	Minnesota	UCLA
Illinois	Northwestern	Wisconsin
Indiana	Ohio State	

Most of the geography departments in these universities were given national rankings in the 1969 survey by Roose and Andersen. Hence by knowing where the people in this study did their graduate work and where they accepted academic appointments, one can see to what degree the people in this study fit the "sorting" patterns described above.

Table 12 shows this information.* Of the 87 people who accepted appointments in the United States, 1 went to a department ranked higher than the one they came from, 22 (25%) went to a department of similar rank, and 64 (74%) went to a department or institution that ranked lower on this particular hierarchy.

Thus, Caplow and McGee's observation in the late 1950's that major universities were trading graduates is still true, but not to a very large degree. However, these

*Since the Roose-Andersen survey only included institutions in the United States, the tabulation in Table 12 separates out the the people who went to colleges and universities outside the United States.

Table 12

Institutional Movement of New College Teachers

= Participants who went to a higher ranked department
= Participants who went to a similarly ranked department
= Participants who went to a lower ranked department

rank of department awarding Ph.D. / department and institution of first academic appointment	Top 15 Departments	Departments Ranked 16-26	Unranked graduate departments	Institution with some grad. program	4-year Institution	2-year Institution	Institutions outside U.S.	TOTAL
1-7	2	5	10	3	3	0	2	25
8-15	6	4	10	4	2	1	4	31
16-26	1	6	8	10	1	0	3	29
unranked	0	0	8	2	1	0	1	12
TOTAL	9	15	36	19	7	1	10	97

graduate students did not accept appointments with equal frequency in all types of institutions. Very few went to departments in 2-year and 4-year institutions. Rather, the pattern seemed to be that people move down the hierarchy but not very far down. Over half of the study population (55%) did their doctoral work in one of the top 15 departments, and 80% went to departments and institutions that were lower ranked but which still had some graduate programs.

When one examines the characteristics of the departments and institutions where the new teachers accepted their first appointments -- in terms other than prestige, the dominant type is large state-supported, graduate institutions in the Midwest and the South (see Table 13). This is similar to the pattern for all academic geographics and for other full-time faculty in the United States, except for the high concentration in graduate departments and institutions as noted above.

There was also a significant amount of geographic movement involved in the first academic appointment. Those in the East went west and those in the West went east. Figure 3 is a map of their movements, from graduate school to their first institution. Of the 87 who stayed in the United States, 72 crossed a state boundary and 50 crossed a regional boundary (using the regions identified for educational purposes by the National Center for Education statistics). This fact not only has financial significance, but it is a factor in the social and cultural adjustment these people had to make. The significance of these social and cultural differences will be described in the next chapter.

The Selection Process: How candidates are chosen

The process by which candidates for academic positions are chosen is not a well understood process. When a particular person finishes graduate school and applies to a particular department, by what criteria and on the basis of what information is a decision made to offer the position to that person or not?

Table 13

"Where They Went"

Institutional Source of Support	Study Population		All Geographers	All (Full-time) Faculty
State	87%		74%	73% - Public
Local	1		6	
Private/Denominational	12		20	27 - Private
Degrees Given By Institution				
Many Graduate Degrees	66%		30%	38%
Some Graduate Degrees	24	33%	53	41
BA/BS	9			
AA	1		16	20
Size of Institition (Enrollment)				
Less than 999	4%		5%	8%
1,000 - 4,999	11		21	27
5,000 - 9,999	18		24	21
10,000 - 9,999	24		24	21
20,000 +	44		25	23
Degrees given by Department				
Graduate				
Ph.D.	40%	62%		-
MA/MS	22		38%	
BA/BS Major	29		27	-
Less than BA/BS Major	8		34	-
Size of Department (No. of Faculty Members)				
Less than 2	0%		14%	-
2 - 5	15		29	-
6 - 10	30		27	-
11 - 20	48		25	-
21 +	7		4	-
Region				
Northeast	14%		22%	26%
Midwest	32		31	25
Southwest/south central	31		23	30
Mountain	3		6	5
Pacific	9		18	14
Foreign	10		-	-

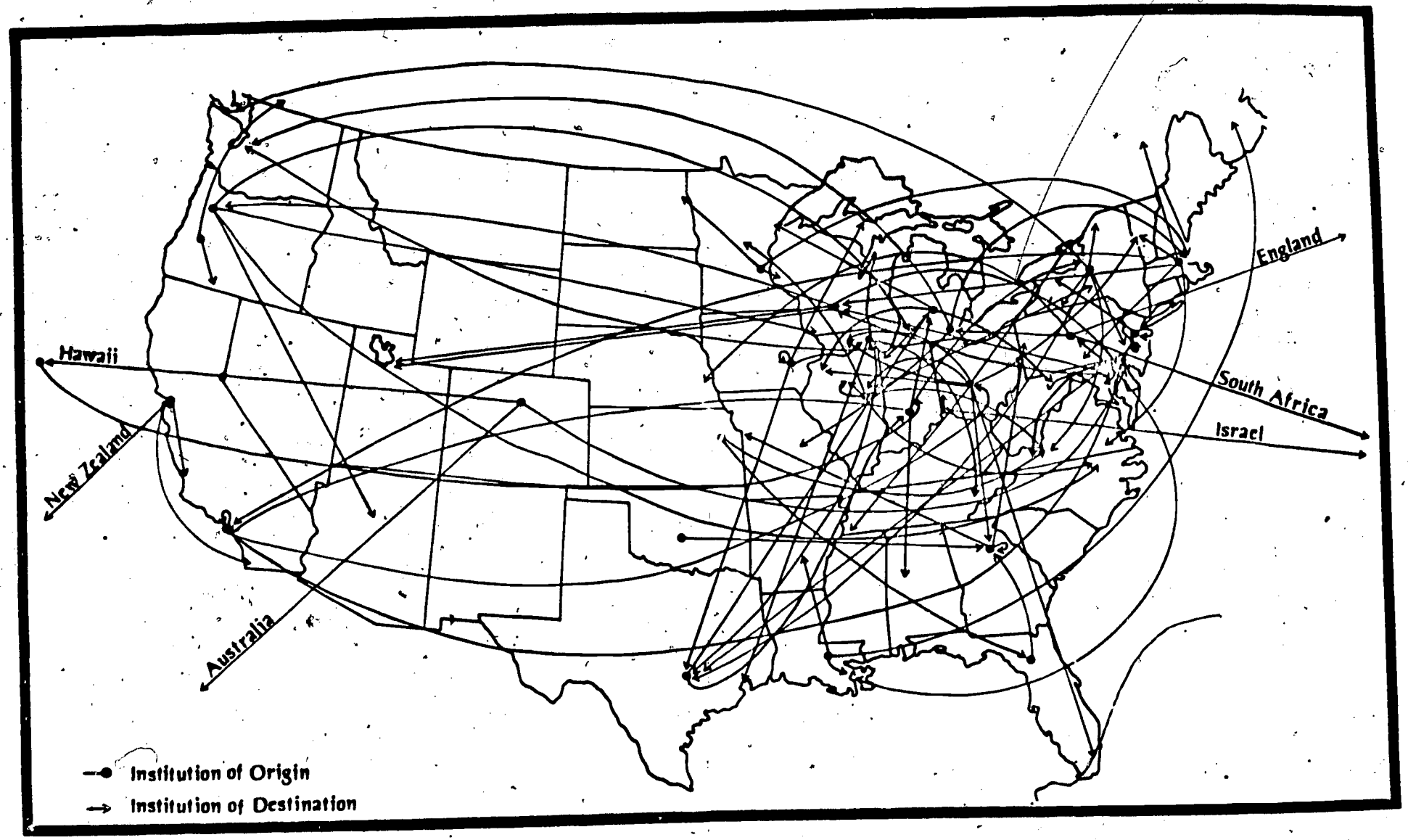


Figure 3 - Movement of 97 doctoral students from graduate institutions to their first academic appointment

Teaching, research, and service are the conventional criteria. But a number of questions have been raised about these criteria. How important are they, relative to one another? Do different kinds of institutions put different values or weights on these items? Are they really the important criteria, or do other criteria in fact play a more important role?

The chairman and two other colleagues in the new home departments of the beginning college teachers were asked these and related questions. Their responses offer some expected answers as well as a few surprises.

The chairman and the two colleagues were each asked the relative importance they themselves (i.e., not the rest of the department) put on teaching, research, and service when reviewing applicants for the position now held by the beginning teacher in their department. Table 14 shows the average relative weight (i.e., the number of points out of 100) these people put on these criteria.

When a vertical comparison of the data in Table 14 is made, the results are as would be expected. More value is placed on teaching ability in the smaller, 2-year and 4-year institutions than in the large, graduate oriented institutions, and vice versa for research. But a horizontal comparison of the figures yields some surprises. Teaching was given more weight than research in all categories of departments and institutions, even in the large, graduate-oriented ones.

What is one to make of this data? It flies in the face of all images and impressions people have of faculty appointments in graduate-oriented departments and institutions.

One explanation might be that the respondents say one thing on a questionnaire but make decisions otherwise. However, I did a similar survey on this question in a separate research project (Fink and Morgan, 1976) and tried to test this explanation by presenting respondents with five hypothetical candidates who varied in their teaching

Table 14

Relative Importance of Teaching, Research and Service in New Academic Appointments

Type of Institution or Department: / Source of Support	Teaching	Research	Service	N
Local	77*	3	20	1
State	50	32	17	78
Denominational	61	20	19	5
Private	52	32	16	6
Type of Institution (Level of Program)				
2 year	77	3	20	1
4 year	60	22	18	9
Some Graduate Degrees	55	23	21	21
Major University	49	36	15	59
Type of Institution (Enrollment)				
Small (<5,000)	63	17	19	17
Medium (5-13,000)	47	31	22	19
Large (13-26,000)	49	33	17	33
Extra Large (26-34,000)	46	34	14	6
"Jumbo" (over 34,000)	46	41	13	16
Type Department (Level of Program)				
Less than BA/BS major	62	19	19	8
BA/BS	56	23	20	27
MA/MS	47	37	20	20
Ph.D.	47	40	13	34
Size of Department (No. of Faculty)				
Small (1-5)	61	20	18	13
Medium (6-10)	52	30	18	27
Large (11-15)	45	37	19	26
Extra Large (16-20)	49	34	17	18
"Jumbo" (21 and over)	53	32	12	7

*Each figure represents the average rating given to that factor by the chairperson and two other colleagues in institutions or departments as indicated. Each set of figures sum to 100 horizontally. In some cases they do not total 100 exactly because of rounding.

and research qualifications. The results of that were consistent with the present data, namely: the candidate who has good potential in both teaching and research is strongly preferred over the person who is an even better researcher but poorer teacher. (Ibid., pp. 295-296).

An alternative explanation might be that in fact, teaching qualifications are more important in first obtaining an appointment, but that research and publication are more important in acquiring tenure, promotions, and pay raises. Jacques Barzun, in the foreword of another study on this topic, The Academic Marketplace, has written of "the radical ambiguity of a profession in which one is hired for one purpose, expected to carry out another, and prized for achieving a third: teaching, research, and prestige are independant variables, besides being incommensurable per se." (Caplow and McGee, 1958, p. xi).

However, another factor that turned up in this study sheds some light on this question: whether a new teacher has a tenure-track or non-tenure track position. In this study, 55% of the new teachers were given non-tenure track appointments. This figure changed from 40% in the first year of the study to 65% in the second year.

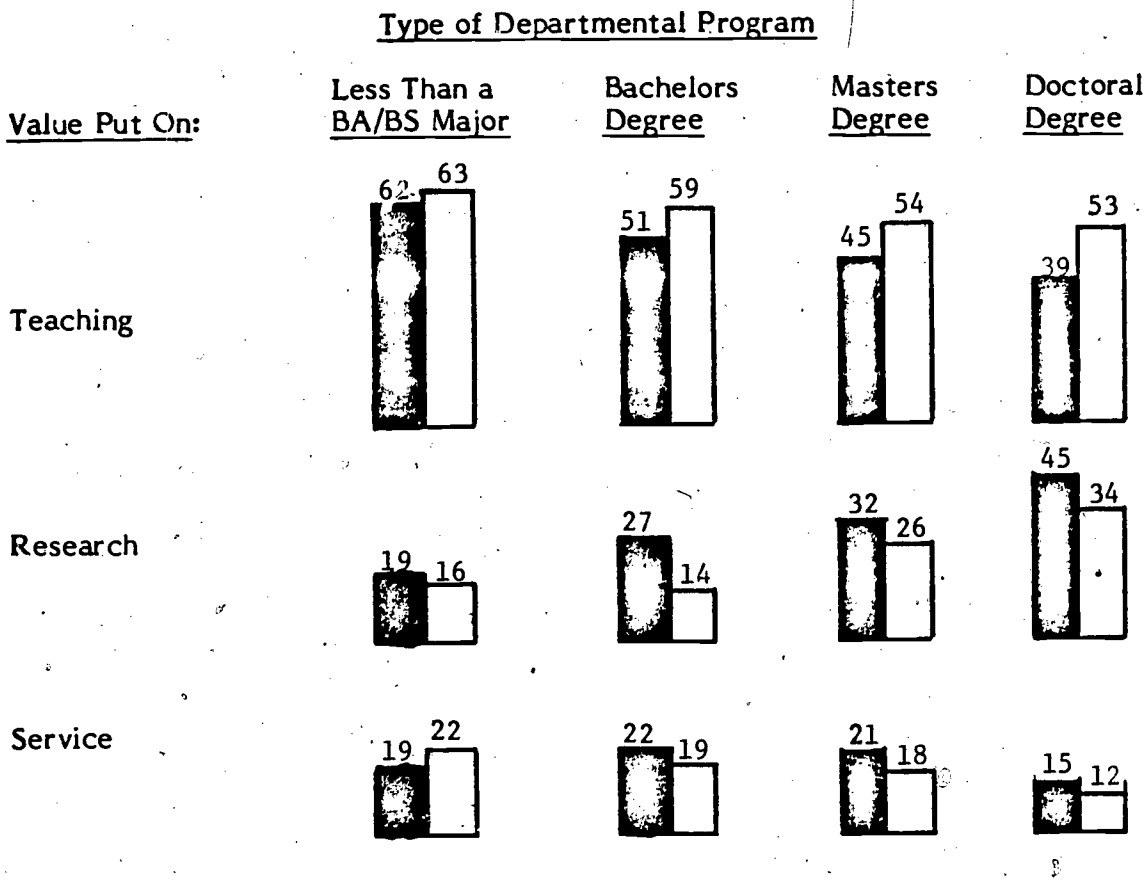
It is plausible to think that departments which are hiring someone on a non-tenure track basis would put more value on teaching (and less on the potential for research) than in cases where a tenure track position was involved. Data showing the effect of this factor on appointment criteria is given in Table 15. The type appointment does not appear to affect the criteria in departments with lower level programs, but does have a significant effect in departments with graduate programs. This seems to explain what is happening in Ph.D. granting departments: in tenure track positions, research is more important; in non-tenure track positions, teaching is more important.

Table 15

A Comparison of the Criteria for Tenure-Track and Non-Tenure Track Appointments

■ = Tenure Track Appointments

□ = Non-Tenure Track Appointments



But what about criteria other than the three standard ones? The chairman and colleagues were also asked whether one or more of the following six items was important in making their choice: (listed in the order of the number of times they were checked).

% Marking "Yes"	Characteristic of Applicant
73%	Has needed subject specialization
60	Is congenial, personal compatability
33	Is creative and innovative
28	Is compatible with goals of institution
26	Has capacity to teach a wide range of courses
5	Is female or member of a minority group

This suggests that it is very important to have the needed specialization and to be able to get along with people. It is somewhat less important but still helpful to be creative and innovative, etc.

The chairman and colleagues added a number of interesting comments to their answers. Several mentioned the fact that the candidates were still available at a late date as being important. Other comments included:

-"(The person was) raised in our area and is therefore less likely to leave after one year."

-"ABD's come cheaper."

The final question about the selection process is what information the colleagues have to help them decide who best fits their criteria. The colleagues in this study were asked to indicate whether each of eight types of information about the participants' teaching qualifications was available to them, and if so, whether it was useful. The results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Information Considered Valuable in Making Academic Appointments

Types of Information "Candidate has:"	Proportion of Colleagues for Whom the Information was: Available and Useful	Available, but not Useful	Not available
1. Experience as a teaching assistant.	76%	8%	16%
2. Letter of recommendation from faculty member with expertise in geography and education.	44	5	51
3. Given a visiting lecture.	50	2	48
4. Completed a teaching practicum with feedback.	25	3	72
5. Had seminar on teaching of geography in higher education.	12	8	80
6. Written essay on their philosophy of teaching.	9	2	89
7. Course evaluations of their teaching.	9	3	88
8. Videotape of themselves teaching.	0	0	100

Knowledge that the candidate had been a teaching assistant was the single most available and useful type of information. This may have been related to the fact that nearly half of the candidates had not given a visiting lecture in the department before being appointed.

The added comments to this question contained a large number of references to letters of recommendation from a person especially trusted by the reviewers. Such letters were not collected and analyzed as part of this study. But such letters were analyzed in a study by Lionel S. Lewis and reported on in Scaling the Ivory Towers (1975). After reviewing over 3,000 letters of recommendation, he noted that:

> "Information regarding teaching is often qualified with something on the order of 'I have no firsthand information, but I would guess from what I have seen (or heard) that . . . .' Qualities most frequently mentioned are those that help to ensure good performance: fluency and enthusiasm. Attributes related to carrying out the task effectively--degree of organization and preparation, thoroughness and conscientiousness--are also emphasized . . . . Seldom specified are interest in and dedication to the teaching enterprise in general." (pp. 51-52).

Lewis' observation plus the data in this study suggest that the people making such decisions do not have much first hand information (e.g., videotape, course evaluations, essays on teaching) and, rather than collect their own information and make their own evaluations, rely on the judgment of other people (i.e., the writers of letters of recommendation) who in turn, if Lewis is right, do not have much first hand information. This is not a very reassuring view of how judgments are made about the teaching qualifications of the people who staff our colleges and universities.

CHAPTER 3

THEIR SITUATION

Once these people were offered a position and they agreed to accept it, the basic decision had been made. A critical stage of their academic career was about to begin. They had just received (or would soon receive) the highest degree available in the American educational system. They had been examined (albeit hurriedly in some cases) and had been offered a position of major responsibility in an institution of higher learning. After weighing their options (which, for many, were few at this particular time), they had accepted those responsibilities for extending knowledge in their discipline and for teaching others.

In this chapter, we will review what they found and what happened when they arrived in their new organizational homes. The review will begin with a look at the type of contract they had and their work load. Then it will describe, in turn, the relationships these newcomers had with their institution, their department, and their students. Each of these, it turns out, profoundly affected the professional (and sometimes personal) lives of these new college teachers.

Type of Contract and Work Load

Type of Contract

While visiting the new teachers during the course of this first year, I gradually learned that several of them were in non-tenure track positions and that, frequently, things were not going well for these people. As a result I decided to insert questions in one of the questionnaires on the type of contract each participant had. The results are shown below.

Type contract	For those beginning in: 1976	1977	Average for both years
Tenure track	54%	37%	45%
Non-tenure track	46	63	55

Not only did non-tenure track positions constitute over half of all new positions during this two-year period, they increased to nearly two-thirds of all new positions during the second year of the study. Some of the non-tenure track positions were one-year long; others were for two years. Some held the possibility of conversion to tenure track status; others did not.

Although I was not able to ascertain many details about the contract, I did ask the departmental chairman in each case the following questions about the people in non-tenure track positions.

Questions:	Percent of Chairmen Responding "yes":
1. Is there a possibility of retaining the new teachers?	72%
2. If so, which of the following factors will be most important in the decision to retain or not? (check one or two choices)	
--General performance of the new teacher	64%
--Teaching ability of the new teacher	56
--Status of university budget next year	23
--Increased departmental enrollment	11

It is not clear what the reason for the prevalence of non-tenure track positions is. It could be caused by deans' only granting funds for temporary positions, by late hiring, or by departments deciding to use this as a means of checking on a new person's performance before offering them a longer-term position. The chairmen's responses lend support to the latter possibility.

The data from the study indicates that people with a non-tenure track position were evaluated slightly lower by both colleagues and students, found less intellectual companionship with their colleagues, and found less satisfaction in their first year as a teacher.

Type Contract	Colleague Evaluation (0-4)	Students' Evaluation (1-100)	Found Intellectual Companionship? (1=no; 3=yes)	Found Satisfaction? (1=no; 5=yes)
Tenure track	3.3	35	2.2	4.0
Non-tenure track	3.1	33	2.1	3.8

Status of Dissertation

Once they had signed the contract, though, the job and its associated work load began to take shape. One of the first factors determining this was whether or not the dissertation had been finished. A mid-year and end-of-year check revealed the following:

Status of Dissertation

34% - Completed before started teaching
34% - Completed during first year
32% - Not finished by end of first year

The interviews with the study participants indicated that having to work on the dissertation while teaching several courses for the first time was very difficult, time-consuming, and probably affected the quality of both activities.

People who had to work on their dissertation during the year and finished it, had lower mid-year self evaluations, lower evaluations by their chairmen, and found less satisfaction in their first year. Surprisingly, their student evaluations were somewhat higher:

Dissertation Status	Mid-Year Self Evaluation (0-2)	Chair's Evaluation (0-4)	Students' Evaluation (1-100)	Found Satisfaction? (1=no; 5=yes)
Finished beforehand	0.79	2.9	30	3.9
Finished during year	0.62	2.7	39	3.7
Not finished	0.97	3.1	33	4.0

Teaching Load

The appropriate teaching load for college and university faculties is a controversial subject. Critics argue that college professors should teach more, while the faculty members themselves usually respond that they are already teaching more than they should in order to do a good job. Several authors have described typical teaching loads (Kolstoe, 1975; Yuker, 1974; Lewis, 1975; Udolf, 1976). But only one author made any distinction among types of institution. (Mandell, 1977, p. 105. It was not clear from the text or from the references what Mandell's source of information was). Mendell reported the average teaching load, i.e., classroom contact hours, as follows: prestige schools, 6 hrs/wk; "second level" schools, 9 hrs/wk; "four year schools with research aspirations", 12 hrs/wk; and two year schools, 15 hrs/wk.

A further argument has also frequently been made but seldom followed, that beginning college teachers should have lighter teaching loads during their first year. McCall, in his survey of new college teachers, said new faculty thought that lighter teaching loads would be very helpful, but only 36% of their institutions had a policy of giving them lighter loads (1961, Table 19).

How did the people in this study fare in terms of teaching load? As Table 17 shows, there were major differences in their average teaching load, depending on the type of institution they were in. Those in the major universities averaged about 7 hours in the classroom per week while the one person in a two-year institution had 12 hours per week. This is close to the average teaching load that Mandell reported for all faculty, although his typology of institutions was not exactly the same as that used here.

When the study participants were asked how their teaching loads compared to those of their colleages, about half said their load was about the same while nearly 40% said it was heavier (see Table 17). Only 14% thought they had a lighter taching load. When this is broken down by type of institution, some strong differences show up. The only ones with lighter teaching loads were in major universities. People in the other institutions all thought they had similar (18 out of 30) or heavier (12 out of 30) teaching loads. It would seem imprudent to give new teachers larger than normal teaching loads, especially since most courses will be "new" courses for these people and therefore involve additional preparation time.

Table 17 also shows the percentage of new teachers in each type of institution who had different numbers of preparations. There is no concensus on the maximum number of different subject matters a new college tacher ought to be given to teach. But, given the fact that many (two-thirds in this study) are finishing their dissertation, that many are new to the task of teaching, that most are not yet efficient in terms of finding and organizing lecture, lab, and discussion material, and that it takes an experienced teacher a significant amount of time to effectively prepare and teach a new course, I would think that new teachers ought not be given more than one course to prepare and teach in the first term and no more than two new subjects in the second term. This would mean they would develop and teach a total of three separate new

TABLE 17

Teaching Load of Beginning College Teachers by Type of Institution

(No. of Participants)	Type of Institution	Average No. of Classroom Hours Per Week: 1st Term	2nd Term
(63)	Major University	6.7	7.0
(23)	Some Graduate Depts.	9.0	8.6
(9)	4-year Institutions	8.7	8.3
(1)	2-year Institutions	12.0	12.0

How did your teaching load compare with that of the more experienced faculty members?"

(N)	Type of Institution	Heavier	Same	Lighter
(56)	Major university	38%	41%	22%
(21)	Some Graduate Depts.	43	57	0
(8)	4-Year Institutions	38	63	0
(1)	2-Year Institutions	0	100	0
	OVERALL	39%	48%	14%

Total No. of Preparations During First Year

Type of Institution	1	2	3	4	5	6-8
Major University	3%	10%	32%	33%	14%	6%
Some Graduate Depts.	4	4	35	35	9	13
4-year Institutions	-	-	33	-	44	22
2-year Institutions	-	-	-	-	-	100
OVERALL	3%	7%	32%	30%	15%	11%

courses in the first year, a sizable assignment even for an experienced teacher. Yet over 50% of the new college teachers in every category of institution had four or more separate courses to prepare and teach in their first year; for many this was in addition to finishing their dissertation. One of the clearer relationships that showed up in this study was that between the course evaluations and the number of preparations the teacher had during that academic term. The difference between those with only one preparation and those with four separate preparations was equal to one standard deviation for the whole population.

No. of Concurrent Preparations During Term	Student Evaluation (1-100)
1	44
2	32
3	29
4	22

Class size was something that did not seem to be a major problem, nor did it vary much by type of institution (see Table 18). Approximately one-fourth of all classes were small (1-14 students), one-third were medium-sized (15-34 students) and one third were large (35-99 students). Only a few people had classes larger than 100 students (the largest was 960).

Interviews with the study participants indicated that some were teaching courses that they were not particularly interested in or well-prepared in. As a result, all participants were asked to indicate their level of interest and familiarity with each subject they were teaching. A summary tally (Table 19) indicates this was a significant problem only for a small portion of the participants (8-12%). Most were at least somewhat interested in and/or somewhat familiar with the subjects they were teaching.

Table 18

Average Class Size

(No. of Participants)	Type of Institution	Percentage of all classes which were: Small (1-14 students)	Medium (15-34)	Large (35-99)	X-large (100 +)
(63)	Major University	24%	38%	31%	7%
(23)	Some Graduate Depts.	28	35	33	4
(9)	4-year Institution	23	40	33	4
(1)	2-year Institution	17	33	50	-

(No. of Participants)	Size of Institution	Small	Medium	Large	X-large
(28)	X-large (25,000 +)	25%	40%	30%	5%
(25)	Large (15-24,999)	20	38	35	7
(29)	Medium (5-14,999)	31	34	27	7
(14)	Small (less than 5,000)	22	33	42	3
(96)	Total	24	35	31	6

Table 19

Instructor Interest in and Familiarity with Course Subject matter

Type of Institution	Level of Interest in Subject: Not at all	Only Vaguely	Somewhat	Very
Major University	1%	5%	24%	70%
Some Graduate Depts.	-	11	20	69
4-year Institution	5	7	30	58
2-year Institution	-	-	-	100
OVERALL	1%	7%	23%	69%

	Level of Familiarity with Subject: Not at All	Only Vaguely	Somewhat	Very
Major University	2%	7%	31%	60%
Some Graduate Depts.	-	15	38	47
4-year Institution	5	16	33	46
2-year Institution	-	-	33	67
OVERALL	2%	10%	33%	55%

When asked if there were any constraints placed on their teaching by their department or institutions, the most frequently mentioned problem was the requirement of using a particular textbook. Twenty-five percent of all participants encountered this problem, half of whom felt this forced them into using a text they did not prefer. This appeared to be a temporary problem except in those cases where the book was authored by another member of the department.

Despite the fact that over half of the faculty members studied were in non-tenure track positions, most spent considerable time in common academic duties such as advising students, supervising directed readings, writing proposals, and serving on committees or as consultants, in addition to finishing their dissertation and teaching several courses.

The figures given above suggest that these new teachers were overloaded, not because of class size or lack of subject matter familiarity in most cases, but because of the excessive number of classes and subject matter preparations. When the study participants were asked about this, they too felt they were overloaded (76%) (see Table 20). In responding to this, some gave priority to their teaching and sacrificed other things (dissertations, research, committees, personal and social life, etc.), others did the reverse. When asked what contributed most to their overload, the biggest factor, in their opinion, was the excessive size of their teaching load. Their comments are reflective of their feelings.

-"Dissertation not worked on in fall term."

-"Somewhat overloaded. My response: division of time such that best job in each area of responsibility not achieved."

-"I have been totally overloaded of my own volition in order to accelerate work on my dissertation.

Table 20

Felt Overload: Reason and Response

24% - Not overloaded.

42% - Somewhat overloaded.
Response: Gave first priority to teaching and less than adequate time to other duties.

15% - Somewhat overloaded.
Response: Gave less than adequate time to teaching to attend to other duties.

12% - Somewhat overloaded.
(other response.)

8% - Totally overloaded.

"Which of the following contributed most to your sense of overload?" (check any three)

Percent who checked:

Teaching load - 76%

Getting settled in a new community - 44

Research - 40

Student advising - 35

Committee work - 20

Other - 33

Relationship with the Institution

The activities of the new teacher all took place within the context of an institution and many sets of inter-personal relationships with colleagues and students. The first of these contextual elements, the character of the institution, had a major effect on the quality of the new teachers' experiences.

Perceived Characteristics

When asked at the beginning of their first year whether they thought their new institution was different or unusual from other institutions of higher education, nearly half (41%) of the study participants said they thought it was. Their descriptions are a keen reminder of the variety of institutions that exist.

- urban commuter college
- politically conservative
- broad liberal arts curriculum
- emphasis on technical curriculum
- emphasis on applied curriculum
- small, old, wealthy, traditional
- lots of freedom to innovate
- Catholic
- no traditional departments, only interdisciplinary programs
- high caliber students
- students with restricted backgrounds
- proximity to Washington, D.C.
- black college
- Christian, two year college
- excellent facilities
- several budget limitations
- urban, inner city, associated with medical complex
- new institution with younger faculty
- more hierarchical, authoritarian
- "as 'the' state university, it must be all things to all people."

The participants were then asked whether they thought these special characateristics affected them as teachers. Nearly a third (29%) said yes, but they were not all sure how it would affect them. Their comments included the following:

- must be adaptive (commuter institutions)
- will use my freedom (freedom to innovate)
- affects students and the feedback I give them (wealthy, traditional)
- will require more preparation time (interdisciplinary)
- cannot assume anything (Black)
- will be working within a predetermined curriculum (students with restricted background)
- Little chance for innovation (traditional)
- will require more preparation (high caliber students)
- keep classes informal (new institution, young faculty)
- may need to get by without convenient materials (severe budget limitations).

Identification with the Institution

It was through the site visit interviews that I first became aware of an important factor that I eventually called "identification with the institution."

Around October of the first year of the study I started the first round of site visits. When I asked one of my common opening questions, "How are things going?", one interviewee gave me a long look and then proceeded to tell me he was just then coming out of the depths of depression from his first few months at this institution. When I inquired further, he related his story of being a casual, frolicking student as an undergraduate but then really catching fire as a graduate student in a prestigious, small graduate school. He loved the feeling of free, vigorous research and inquiry. Then he came to teach in this small, church-run undergraduate institution. Even though the school did not really put any constraints on him, he found the whole atmosphere of the school very different from that which he had come to enjoy in graduate school.

As a result, I made a note to myself of the major "insight" here: when the new school is different from the graduate institution, dissonance is likely to occur. Then I

went on to my next interview where I encountered a person who had been at a very well-known graduate department in a large, state-supported university. This person was now at a small, private liberal arts college. Anticipating that this person must be having adjustment problems, I asked, "Are you having any problems here?" His response threw me off when he said: "No, I love it here."

Inquiring further, I discovered that this person had made it through graduate school satisfactorily, but had never felt at home there, not like he had at the place where he had been an undergraduate -- a small, private, liberal arts college!

This time I made a note that first one has to find out which institution a person has identified with, and then determine whether this present institution is similar to or different from that one.

As a result of this experience I put a series of questions about institutional identification in the mid-year questionnaire. I also asked the study participants whether they thought this factor affected their satisfaction and/or their performance, and if so, whether the effect was positive or negative. The results are shown in Tables 21 and 22.

Over half of the people did identify with the institution where they did their doctoral work, most of the others with the place where they did their undergraduate work. One out of seven did not identify with one institution more than any other.

The participants' satisfaction during their first year was clearly affected by the degree of similarity between their present institution and the one they had identified with as a student. Over 80% thought it had affected their satisfaction, and the direction of the effect was the way one would expect: the more the institutions were different, the more the perceived effect was negative.

Table 21

Identification with Institution:

Pattern and Effect on Satisfaction

Institution Identified with as a Student:

BA/BS - 12%
MA/MS - 7%
Ph.D. - 54%

Combination (usually the same institution):
BA/MA - 2%
BA/Ph.D. - 2%
BA/MA/Ph.D. 7%

None more than any other - 14%

Perceived Effect on Satisfaction

"Institution identified with and present institution are:

Perceived Degree of Effect:	Very Different	More Different Than Similar	More Similar Than Different	Very Similar	TOTAL
Great	21 (6 = +, 15 = -)	2 (1 = +, 1 = -)	4 (3 = +, 1 = -)	0	27
Some	15 (0 = +, 14 = -)	16 (5 = +, 7 = -)	9 (3 = +, 6 = -)	7 (3 = +, 2 = -)	47
None	3	5	8	1	17
TOTAL	39 (6 = +, 19 = -)	23 (6 = +, 8 = -)	21 (6 = +, 7 = -)	8 (6 = +, 29 = -)	91 (21 = +, 36 = -)

N.B. "+" and "-" indicate the number of participants who thought this factor had a positive of negative effect on this satisfaction.

Table 22

Identification with Institution:

Effect on Performance

Perceived Effect on Performance

"Institution identified with and present institution are:

Perceived Degree of Effect	Very Different	More Different Than Similar	More Similar Than Different	Very Similar	TOTAL
Great	9 (4 = +, 5 = -)	3 (1 = +, 2 = -)	3 (2 = +, 1 = -)	0	15
Some	4 (1 = +, 10 = -)	8 (2 = +, 2 = -)	4 (3 = +, 1 = -)	5 (2 = +, 2 = -)	31
None	16	12	14	3	45
TOTAL	39 (5 = +, 15 = -)	23 (3 = +, 4 = -)	21 (5 = +, 2 = -)	8 (2 = +, 2 = -)	91 (15 = +, 23 = -)

Three Indicators of Actual Teaching Performance

Average course evaluation score*	26	32	39	40
Average chairman assessment**	2.6	3.3	2.7	3.2
Average assessment of three colleagues**	2.7	3.0	2.9	3.1

*Scale: 1 (low) to 100 (high)
**Scale: 0 (low) to 4 (high)

When they were asked whether this same situation had affected their performance as teachers, the participants were less ready to say it had. Even so, over 50% thought it had. Again, the more the institutions were different, the more the perceived effect was negative.

The data in the study made it possible to check the participants' perceptions against other indicators of their performance. Table 22 shows the average course evaluation score for each of the four categories of participants, and similar figures for the assessment by chairmen and two other colleagues. In each case the participants whose present institution was very different from the one they identified with, scored significantly lower than those in institutions that were similar.

The following comments reflect some of the participants' perceptions and feelings.

> (Present institution very different) "Shorter terms and greater course load mean it is not realistic to set high standards for students. The result is that course material covered each term is much less, and depth and extent of knowledge is less . . . . Students (here) often feel that 'anything that won't get me a job' is worthless. Yet they have less of a 'professional' attitude toward their grasp of knowledge. . . more than at (institution identified with), the administration here seems to interfere or control teaching activities, i.e., format for syllabi, what courses can be offered in a department, etc."

> (Present institution very different) "Found attitude here (and in the field) toward recent Ph.D. graduates dehumanizing and too costly to continue to attract quality teachers to the field. Publication requirements here (and in the field) require emphasis on research (which I find easy) and not on teaching, which bothers me because I am unable to divorce myself from the career developments of students."

In a few cases the participants found the difference to be positive.

> (Present institution very different) "I like the small college atmosphere and the rural environment, it is a change and I feel a positive one. You frequently meet your own students around the campus here. (At my other institutions) it was a rare occasion when you encountered one of your own students."

The two final quotes below serve as preludes to the remaining topics of this chapter: institutional support for teaching, relationships with colleagues, and perceptions of students.

> (Present institution very different) "(Here) teaching aids and equipment are very old, outdated, limited in amount, and inadequate: frustrating. My colleagues would rather drive a bus than teach cultural geography, I'm sure."
>
> "I feel as though I went through graduate school to teach high school. I went to school where the students rioted and blew up buildings but they were never as rude as they are here. . . . If they can register they expect A's without further bother."

Institutional Support for Teaching and the New Teacher

Early in the year the participants were asked whether they thought the reward system of their institution encouraged high quality teaching or not. The reason for asking the question was to determine their perception of the perennial research-or-teaching dilemma. Their responses are listed in Table 23.

Some of the responses followed the pattern one might expect. A higher proportion of the people in small, undergraduate institutions thought quality teaching was rewarded, than did the people in larger, graduate-oriented universities.

However less than half of the new teachers (47%) thought their institutions clearly encouraged quality teaching. Many (nearly 20%) were unsure whether their institutions did or did not.

Their comments indicate that some of the institutional support for teaching was perceived as lip-service.

> "No real knowledge but although high quality teaching is praised, it seems to have little to do with tenure decisions."
>
> "It is of course encouraged but probably not rewarded."
>
> "Everyone gets the same percentage raise (if money is available). Promotion has nothing to do with pay. I'm not particularly uptight about promotion, tenure, etc. . . . Keep your nose clean and your ass out of hot water."

Table 23

"Does the Reward System of Your Institution Encourage High Quality Teaching?"

	Size of Institution	No	Don't Know	Yes	Yes & No
(14)	Small (<5,000 enrollment)	7%	21%	57%	14%
(29)	Medium (5-15,000)	27	17	52	3
(25)	Large (15-25,00)	40	16	40	4
(28)	X-large (25,000 +)	39	18	43	0
	Level of Institutions				
(1)	2-year	0%	100%	0%	0%
(9)	4-year	11	11	68	11
(23)	Some Graduate Dept.	35	13	44	9
(63)	Major University	33	19	46	1
	Institutional Source of Support				
(1)	Local	0%	100%	0%	0%
(83)	State	36	15	46	3
(5)	Private	0	20	80	0
(7)	Denominational	0	43	43	14
(96)	TOTAL	31%	18%	47%	4%

When I asked about the status of course evaluations, the responses were:

39% - required
36% - encouraged
8% - not used
17% - (used in some other way)

To get a sense of how other members of the new teachers' department viewed the situation, the questionnaire given the chairperson and the other two colleagues asked them to rate the influence of six situational factors that could affect the new teacher's teaching performance (see Table 24). By and large, the three colleagues felt these factors were either neutral or slightly positive in their influence.* There did not seem to be many consistent differences in the evaluations of these factors in different types of institutions (i.e., in institutions of different size, different level, and with different sources of support). The significant variation was that the colleagues in small, lower-level institutions thought the effect of the teaching load and other duties was more detrimental to quality teaching than did colleagues in larger, higher level institutions.

Finally the beginning teachers were asked whether the institution had provided any special support services. Most all mentioned some form of audio-visual center or support along this line. A few mentioned centers to facilitate the grading of exams in large classes. Only seven mentioned a more extensive faculty development program with workshops for teachers, video-tape facilities, etc. (one of these was in England).

The main problems indicated by the comments was lack of information about such support services and lack of time to use them.

> "I have asked about these things . . . but have not received any information yet."

---

*As a group, the chairmen consistently rated these factors more positively than did either of the other two colleagues. This could either mean their role pressured them into 'whitewashing' the situation somewhat, or that their broader experience as chairmen made them feel the situation was not as bad as their colleagues believed.

Table 24

Assessment of Situational Factors by Colleagues

Situational Factors	Average Rating by Colleagues*
1. Work load other than teaching (e.g., committees, research, advising, etc.)	3.22
2. Teaching load of new teacher (e.g., No. of courses and hours per week in the classrooms)	3.44
3. Physical characteristics of the classroom (e.g., size, lighting, acoustics, flexibility of seating)	3.54
4. Size of classes (presuming that smaller classes are easier to teach than large ones)	3.74
5. Facilities for the production or acquisition of audio-visual aids.	4.01
6. Financial support for courses (e.g., handouts, transparencies, films, etc.)	4.02

*Scale: 1 (low) - 5 (high)

"All exist—but I was only made aware of their existence this week."

"An A-V center of sorts exists, but I had to seek out the information on my own. . ."

"A great many (services) exist I believe, but with 3 courses as a new instructor I am too busy to make use of them."

Relationships With Colleagues

As indicated by a few of the comments quoted earlier in this chapter, some of the study participants had difficulty relating to their colleagues. For others, the relationship was quite positive. Before the study began, I suspected that this was a factor to be examined, but the extent of its importance was one of the major discoveries of the study.

In this section, I will describe (a) a factor I eventually called "intellectual companionship", (b) some of the ways in which colleagues did and did not support the new teachers, and (c) the reactions of the study participants to this.

Intellectual Companionship

On the first series of site visits, I interviewed a person who had joined the geography department a few months previously in a good sized university in a small town. When asked how things were going, he related the following story.

He had been given an office on a different floor from the rest of the faculty, in a room difficult to get into and out of without disturbing classes in session. Somehow the secretaries repeatedly "forgot" to inform him about faculty meetings until after they were over. His wife, waiting to see if the job was permanent or not, had not yet joined him. Yet after two months no one had invited him to dinner or any other social occasion. (In my opinion the person was quite pleasant socially). He had to invite himself to professional events related to his own area of expertise.

As a result, this person was feeling very isolated and alienated. He was disturbed about the situation, but did not know what to do about it.

After discovering others in similar situations, I asked all the participants in the mid-year questionnaire whether they had found "intellectual companionship among (their) colleagues, i.e., people with whom they could discuss ideas and professional concerns." The results are shown in Tables 25 and 26.

Approximately one-third said they had found such companionship. But two-thirds said they either had not or had found it only to a limited extent, and the majority of these (37 out of 64) thought it had a negative effect on their satisfaction.

Nearly 90% of the participants thought this had affected both their satisfaction and their performance during the first year, and in the way one would expect. That is, those who had found intellectual companionship thought it had had a positive effect, and those who did not find it thought it had had a negative effect.

These perceptions seem to be supported by other indicators of teaching performance. Those participants who found intellectual companionship had significantly higher course evaluation scores, and chairmen and colleague assessments, than did those who did not find such companionship (see Table 26).

The following series of comments describe the effect of finding or not finding companionship on the participants themselves,

from those who did find it:

> "The stimulation makes my work much more interesting. More interest and satisfaction makes it easier for me to perform."
>
> "I have begun to use educational games as a result of contact with a fellow-teacher. I borrow slides and other visual aids from another instructor my ideas are stimulated and (then) develop through discussion with colleagues."
>
> "Being able to 'talk' to others at a satisfactory intellectual level makes a place more pleasant. This also helps clarify one's own thoughts which makes it more easily presented to students."

Table 25

Intellectual Companionship:

Pattern and Perceived Effect on Satisfaction

Perceived Effect on Satisfaction

Perceived Degree of Effect	"Did you find intellectual companionship?" No	Only to a Limited Extent	Yes	Total
Great	6 (0 = +, 6 = -)	12 (3 = +, 9 = -)	19 (18 = +, 1 = -)	37
Some	9 (2 = +, 6 = -)	30 (10 = +, 16 = -)	9 (8 = +, 1 = -)	48
None	1	6	3	10
TOTAL	16 (2 = +, 12 = -)	48 (13 = +, 25 = -)	31 (26 = +, 2 = -)	95 (41 = +, 39 = -)

N.B. "+" and "-" indicate the number of participants who thought this factor had a positive or negative effect on their satisfaction.

Table 26

Intellectual Companionship:

Effect on Performance

Perceived Effect on Performance

Perceived Degree of Effect	"Did you find intellectual companionship?" No	Only to a Limited Extent	Yes	TOTAL
Great	2 (1 = +, 1 = -)	3 (2 = +, 1 = -)	6 (6 = +, 0 = -)	11
Some	9 (1 = +, 7 = -)	24 (11 = +, 10 = -)	19 (18 = +, 1 = -)	52
None	5	21	6	32
TOTAL	16 (2 = +, 8 = -)	48 (13 = +, 11 = -)	31 (24 = +, 1 = -)	95 (39 = +, 20 = -)

Three Indicators of Actual Teaching Peformance

Average course evaluation score*	26	29	40
Average assessment by chairman**	2.7	2.7	3.3
Average assessment of three colleagues**	2.6	2.7	3.2

*Scale: 1 (low) to 100 (high)
**Scale: 0 (low) to 4 (high)

from those who found it only to a limited extent:

> "I greatly miss the daily interaction which I enjoyed as a graduate student. I am gradually building contacts, many of which are outside my department, to remedy this situation."
>
> "Too darn little intellectual curiosity or excitement among the faculty in the department. I get more intellectual stimulus from the better students majoring in geography."

and from those who did not find it:

> "At times I feel in a vacuum--alone. Most of our faculty seem to be pessimistic about almost everything--it rubs off on to others (me). I probably spent 85% of the time last semester in a rather depressed and negative state of mind."
>
> "I feel socially and intellectually isolated. The lack of friends with whom I can discuss and develop ideas puts a damper on creativity. As a result, I have little interest in remaining in my present position over the long term."
>
> "There is not much enthusiasm in my department for engaging in research or discussing our work and ideas. I find this depressing."

General Support from Colleagues

One of the effects of having intellectual companionship, in addition to creating the desire to teach well, would presumably be that colleagues would help the new teacher in some way or another. At the end of the year, I asked the participants to indicate how much support they had received from their colleagues and of which types of support they wished there had been more. I also asked the colleagues to indicate how much support they thought they had given the new teacher.

Table 27 lists eight types of possible support, and compares the participants' perceptions of "support received" with their colleagues' perceptions of "support given". A large percentage of respondents said no one had taken time to discuss general teaching problems with them (50%), describe local educational resources (46%), or carefully explain the criteria by which their performance would be evaluated (46%). With essentially every type of support, the participants' thought they had received less than the colleagues thought they had given. Both groups seemed to agree that there

Table 27

Assessment of Colleague Support

Type Support	New Teachers' Ratings: of support received		Colleagues' Rating: of support given			
	Average	% Receiving "Little or None"	Average all colleagues	Chairs	Colleague 1	Colleague 2
1. Invited participant to colleagues' classes	0.31*	93%	0.54*	0.51*	0.50*	0.60*
2. Offered to visit participants' classes	0.55	86	0.77	1.01	0.75	0.49
3. Discussed general teaching problems	1.47	50	2.48	2.43	2.47	2.63
4. Explained local resources for teaching	1.71	46	2.44	2.61	2.43	2.21
5. Carefully explained criteria for performance evaluation	1.72	46	2.17	2.95	1.84	1.59
6. Discussed particular courses and teaching at this institution	1.88	36	2.68	2.60	2.61	2.89
7. Invited participant to professional events	2.09	30	2.22	2.45	2.21	2.13
8. Invited particpant to social events	2.34	29	2.36	2.43	2.29	2.60

*Scale: 0 (low) to 4 (high)

had been very little visiting of each other's classes, and there had been a moderate level of inclusion in professional and social events.

Table 28 shows the ratings of respondents who wished there had been more support of particular types, and their colleagues rating of "support given". More of each type of support would have been preferred by 23 to 30% of the respondents, except for invitations to professional events; that was apparently adequate for most people. A comparison of Table 27 and 28 suggests that the participants who wanted more support felt they had received less than the other new teachers did (the average rating of 'support received' was lower), and in most cases their colleagues agreed they had given less (their average rating of 'support given' was lower).

The comments of the participants about this problem reveal how valuable the help was when it was given, how difficult life was when it was not, and how some felt guilty themselves for not being more aggressive in asking for help.

> "Things here are just as I would like."
>
> "Very poor information on support-related material, services, etc."
>
> "Perhaps I am too optimistic about the level of help that can be given to a 'new' person but I was lost and lonely for quite some time (both socially and academically)."
>
> "This was as much my fault as anyone else's. I could have asked more questions."

One further investigation was made of the number of times the participants visited their colleagues to learn about teaching, and vice versa. Interviews with the participants indicated that observations of colleagues occurred in a number of different ways: by team teaching, auditing courses, sitting in on classes, and by invitation. The data in Table 29 indicates the degree to which classroom visiting took place, whether being observed made the new teachers uncomfortable or not, and whether they received suggestions significant enough to incorporate into their own teaching.

Table 28

Increased Support from Colleagues

Desired by New Teachers

Type of Support	New Teachers Desiring More Support from Their Colleagues: % Desiring More Support	Their Average Rating of "Support Received	Rating by their Colleagues of "Support Given": All Colleagues:	Chair	Colleague 1	Colleague 2
1. Explained local resources for teaching	32%	0.97*	2.12*	2.32	2.04	2.09
2. Discussed particular courses and teaching at this institution	30	1.41	2.72	2.76	2.56	2.96
3. Invited participant to colleagues' classroom	26	0.20	0.57	0.58	0.65	0.35
4. Discussed general teaching problems	26	1.04	2.28	2.39	2.22	2.22
5. Carefully explained criteria for performance evaluation	26	1.24	2.41	2.96	1.95	2.06
6. Offered to visit particpants' classes	25	0.29	0.63	0.65	0.76	0.33
7. Invited participant to social events	23	1.36	1.83	1.80	1.68	2.36
8. Invited participant to professional event	9	1.89	2.35	3.38	2.00	1.88

*Scale: 0 (low) to 4 (high)

Table 29

Classroom Observations

by New Teachers and Their Colleagues

I. Percentage of New Teachers who observed their colleagues' classes - 45%

a. Situations:

Team teaching	- 21
Auditing	- 14
Sitting in	- 23
By invitation	- 0

b. Percentage who said they saw something they:

- wanted to incorporate into their own teaching - 41% (18 of 44)

- wanted to avoid in their own teaching - 48% (20 of 44)

II. Percentage of New Teachers whose classes were observed by colleagues - 41%

a. Situation:

Team teaching	- 20
Auditing	- 7
Colleagues sitting in	- 10
Chair sitting in	- 11

b. Percentage who were uncomfortable being observed:

Not at all - 49%
Only somewhat - 46%
Greatly - 5%

c. Percentage who learned something from their colleagues' suggestions that they incorporated into their teaching - 53% (21 of 40).

Forty of the participants had a chance to observe others or to be observed, and the majority of these were the result of team teaching. Of those who were observed, the vast majority either said the experience did not make them uncomfortable (18 out of 40), or did so only somewhat (17 out of 40). Of these, 53% (21 of 40) found ideas significant enough to incorporate into their teaching.

The idea of using team-teaching situations to ease new teachers into a full teaching load could be a good idea. The results would depend on the open-mindedness, maturity, and intellectual qualities of both parties.

The following comments describe the kinds of things the participants learned when they were observed or when they observed others.

"Refrain from talking too fast."

"Techniques for generating discussion among small 'seminar' groups."

"Interacting with students more before class."

"The use of recent data and illustrations to lend credence to my arguments."

(Things to avoid, from observations of colleagues):

"Boring, unexciting lectures in a disorganized manner."

"Verbal attacks on a student's intelligence when the student gave a wrong answer."

"Don't try to 'wing' it; go to class with a definite objective in mind."

Relationships with Students

The relationship between a professor and his or her students is very complex but also very critical for the performance and satisfaction of both parties in an educational endeavor. The participants in this study frequently commented on the importance of their day-to-day interactions with students.

"It was highly rewarding to 'see the light bulbs go on', but so many of the students were just marking time and unwilling to be challenged."

"Teaching is a real emotional see-saw. When it goes well, I feel great; when it goes poorly I feel rotten."

"I was very disappointed in my effectiveness as a teacher--as recognized by my students."

These interactions vary, not only on a day-to-day basis, but from student-to-student, and evolve in different ways over a period of time. A survey study like this cannot measure all the intricacies of these interactions, but it can and did attempt to assess some of the underlying factors that provide a context for the interaction. These include (a) the participants' perception of important student characteristics and (b) the social similiarity between the participants and their students. The rest of this section will describe what was learned about these two factors.

Perceptions of Students

At the beginning of the year, the participants were asked whether they thought the students at their institution differed from most other college students in any way and, if so, whether this affected the way they planned to teach.

About half the participants (49%) did think their students were different. The following comments describe the traits they saw and their response as teachers.

"(Students are) somewhat conservative. (Response?) I will be more conscious of trying to raise controversial issues."

"Affluent! Generally intellectually motivated, sound academic background. (Response?) Use discussions to bring out issues, perspectives, work for student-student interaction as well as student-teacher interaction.

"Sheltered, wealthy with considerable experience in different cultures. (Response?) Students expect you to lay the truth on them through lectures. I refuse but it is a struggle."

"Most are fully employed outside school. (Response?) Reduce outside-of-class required work."

"Not as mature or conceptually sound as students at my graduate institution. (Response?) Will emphasize applied aspects of geography."

"They are black, come from poor educational (and home) environments -- poorly prepared in reading-writing-verbal skills. (Response?) Go back to the basics and cover material in a much slower, more explanatory fashion."

After hearing the students described in the participants' own terms, I then asked them to rate students on seven specific characteristics of readiness for college-level work. Prior experience with new college teachers had suggested that they sometimes overestimate student readiness initially. Later, in the mid-year questionnaire I asked whether the participants had changed their perceptions of students. Table 30 shows the results from both questionnaires.

The questions were posed such that the participants were asked whether these traits were basically true or not true of their students. They were also given the option of saying the trait did not affect their teaching (i.e., "not significant"). Over 80% of the participants at the beginning of the year thought these positively-stated descriptions were true or at least moderately true of their students. Very few thought they were not significant.

By mid-year a fourth to a half of the participants had changed their perception on six of the nine traits. A few of the changes were for the better but most were for the worst.

Table 30

New Teachers' Changing Perceptions of Students' Academic Capabilities

Students in this Institution:	Initial Perception: True	Mod. True	Not True	(Not Significant)	Mid-Year Perception: Worse	Same	Better
1. Have an adequate academic foundation for college work							
a. i.e., have a high level of substantive knowledge	19%	56%	22%	(3%)	38%	52%	10%
b. i.e., can read effectively	30	45	12	(14)	29	66	5
c. i.e., can write effectively	14	51	25	(11)	52	41	7
2. Readily accept their academic responsibilities (e.g., attend classes, do assigned readings, etc.)	52	36	5	(6)	24	64	13
3. Accept the importance of learning	38	48	7	(7)	13	76	12
4. Are motivated (i.e., eager to learn).	34	49	3	(2)	19	64	17
5. Understand what they should learn in a class without being told	21	53	21	(5)	35	59	6
6. Are capable of abstract, formal thinking	19	56	21	(4)	38	52	11
7. Can integrate what they learn in class into their personal and professional thinking	33	47	12	(8)	12	75	13

The biggest drops occurred in their perceptions of (a) students' writing abilities, (b) their abstract thinking abilities, (c) their substantive (background) knowledge, and (d) their ability to understand what they should learn in class without being told, i.e., knowing what to learn.

Again, my experience with new college teachers suggested this situation was often linked to a concern for academic standards. Hence I asked the following two-part question on the mid-year questionnaire and received the following responses:

> "Is there a significant difference between the prevailing academic standards for students at this institution and your own standards?"
>
> 70% - "yes"
> 30% - "no"
>
> "If so, what has been your response?"
>
> 1% - raised my standards.
> 51% - maintained my standards.
> 47% - lowered my standards.

Finally, I asked the participants to describe the experiences that led them to change their perceptions of students, and what effect this had on them as teachers. The following selection of responses (there were many) illustrate some of the emotion associated with these experiences and show that their perceptions were not all for the worse.

> "Students respond more enthusiastically and appreciatively to visual aids than I had expected, but their levels of competence in academic fundamentals (reading, writing) is declining. (Effect?) I work harder to motivate them and try to personalize the teaching-learning process (learning names, etc.). I use objective tests rather than essay ones because most of them can't communicate well in writing."
>
> "They can't write worth a damn. However they are very inquisitive. (Effect?) I stress the importance of coherent writing."
>
> "Poor test results, few questions asked in class, poor lab attendance, four instances of cheating on final. (Effect?) Diminishes my motivation to improve since apparently very few care."

Similarity to Students

The importance of this factor came to my attention on one of my early site visits. I visited a new teacher who was raised in a large city in one region of the country and had a particular religious background; he was teaching students who grew up in farms or in small towns in another region of the country and who had a different religious background. When I visited the teacher's class, I saw a major communication problem. Each party was giving out verbal and non-verbal messages that were either missed or mis-interpreted by the other party.

Subsequently I found evidence other participants also had difficulty in relating to students with significantly different social or cultural backgrounds. As a result, I asked a series of questions about similarity to students on the end-of-year questionnaire. Although there are many ways of being different or similar, the questionnaire included the following seven factors: economic status (income level), urban-rural background, regional origins, religious orientation, race, national origin, and age.

Table 31 shows the identification that the new teachers gave to themselves and to their students. Most of the new teachers described themselves as being white, protestant, middle-income Americans with varied age, regional, and urban-rural backgrounds. Their students followed the same general patterns except for age and a smaller percentage of agnostics.

The problems seemed to occur when teachers were in institutions with students different from themselves. This happened frequently. Table 32 shows the percentage of new teachers who differed from their students on each of the seven dimensions, and whether, in their opinion, this difference affected their effectiveness as teachers.

The greatest number of teachers were different from their students in terms of regional origins, urban-rural background, religion, and--as one might expect--age. Relatively few of the participants thought these social characteristics had a negative

Table 31

Social Characteristics of New Teachers and Their Students

	New Teachers	Students
1. Economic Background (Income Level)		
High	2%	2%
Middle	91	90
Low	7	8
2. Urban-Rural Background		
Urban	33%	30%
Suburban	39	49
Small Town	22	21
Rural	6	1
3. Regional Origin (in U.S.)		
New England	10%	2%
Middle Atlantic	25	25
Southeast	3	13
Midwest	30	30
S. Central	2	3
Mountain	1	3
Southwest	3	4
California	7	6
Northwest	4	4
4. Religious Orientation		
Protestant	46%	72%
Catholic	12	11
Jewish	13	5
Agnostic	21	4
Other	8	8
5. Race		
White	90%	95%
Black	4	4
Chicano	1	0
Oriental	3	3

Table 31 (cont.)

	New Teachers	Students
6. National Origin		
United States	81%	89%
Canada	4	5
Great Britain	6	1
Other	8	4
7. Age		
18-22 years	0%	86%
23-27	22	9
28-31	37	3
32-37	37	1
38 +	4	1

Table 32

Teacher-Student Similarity and Perceived Effect

Social Characteristic	Percent of Teachers Who Were: Different	Similar	Total Number Who Thought the Effect of This Factor on Their Teaching was: Negative	Neutral	Positive	(Uncertain)
1. Region of origin	62	38	24 (22 = D, 2 = S)	30	30 (16 = D, 14 = S)	13
2. Urban-Rural Background	62	38	14 (12 = D, 2 = S)	44	27 (12 = D, 14 = S)	12
3. Religious Orientation	60	40	7 (6 = D, 1 = S)	69	2 (2 = D, 0 = S)	19
4. Age	96	4	14 (14 = D, 0 = S)	45	19 (25 = D, 3 = S)	19
5. Economic Background	19	81	4 (3 = D, 1 = S)	52	24 (1 = D, 23 = S)	17
6. National Origin	12	88	3 (3 = D, 0 = 5)	67	15 (3 = D, 12 = 5)	12
7. Race	9	91	2 (1 = D, 1 = S)	66	13 (2 = D, 11 = S)	16

N.B. "D" and "S" indicate the number of participants who were "different from" or "similar to" their students.

influence on their teaching: 24 thought regional origins might, and 14 thought their urban-rural background and age might. Those who did were, for the most part, teachers who were different from their students on that particular characteristic. The age factor was more complex; the participants who thought it had a positive effect described themselves as being different from their students in age.

The perceptions of the new teachers can also be compared with the perceptions of the students, the chairmen, and other colleagues. Table 33 shows the average teaching evaluations given by the students, the chairmen, and three colleagues (the chairman plus two others) to teachers who were either similar to or different from their students. With each social characteristic except age, the teachers who were similar received equal or better evaluations than those who were different from their students.* The performance indictors are mixed for age differences, but with this characteristic one would expect the reverse effect, i.e., that people similar in age to their students might understand their students more easily but would have difficulty establishing "professional authority."

The next question is whether the effect of these social differences is cumulative. That is, does a teacher with fewer differences do better than a teacher with several differences? The answer is clearly yes. In Table 34 the participants are grouped according to the number of characteristics in which they are similar to their students. (Since the effect of the age factor would theoretically be the opposite of the other factors, it was excluded from the analysis here). Nearly all the teachers had some similarity to their students; only four people differed on all of the six characteristics

*The number of teachers who were different from their students in age, race, and national origin was eleven or less. Therefore these numbers cannot be given too much reliability until validated by additional data.

Table 33

Three Performance Indicators on Dimensions of Teacher-Student Similarity

Social Characteristic	Average Student Evaluation Score†	Average Chairman Assessment††	Avg. of Three Colleague Assessment††	(N)
1. Economic Background				
(Teachers and students were)				
Similar	33	2.9	2.9	(78)
Different	28	2.9	2.9	(17)
2. Urban-Rural Background				
Similar	35	3.0	2.9	(36)
Different	31	2.8	2.9	(59)
3. Region of Origin				
Similar	33	3.3***	3.1**	(36)
Different	32	2.7	2.7	(59)
4. Religious Orientation				
Similar	35	3.0	3.0	(39)
Different	30	2.8	2.8	(56)
5. Race				
Similar	34**	2.9	2.9**	(86)
Different	17	2.4	2.4	(9)
6. National Origin				
Similar	33	3.0***	2.9*	(84)
Different	26	2.1	2.5	(11)
7. Age				
Similar	30	3.3	3.5*	(4)
Different	32	2.9	2.8	(91)

†Scale: 1 (low) - 100 (high) (IDEA Evaluation Instrument)
††Scale: 0 (low) - 4 (high)

The difference between the means is significant at the following levels:
*p<0.10
**p<0.05
*** p<0.01

Table 34

Three Indicators of Teaching Effectiveness on a Scale of Increasing Teacher-Student Similarity

Number of Dimensions of Teacher-Student Similarity	Average Student Evaluation Score*	Average Chairman Assessment**	Average of three Colleague Assessment**	(N)
6. (Very similar)	46	3.5	3.3	(4)
5.	36	3.3	3.2	(21)
4.	33	3.0	2.9	(36)
3.	31	2.5	2.6	(21)
2.	24	2.4	2.5	(8)
1. (Very different)	18	3.0	2.9	(4)

*Scale: 1 (low) to 100 (high)
**Scale: 0 (low) to 4 (high)

N.B. The dimensions of teacher-student similarity did not include age as a factor.

included. The relationship to student evaluations is quite striking: the average evaluation becomes lower with each additional social difference. The chairman and colleague evaluations generally follow the same pattern.

Many of the study participants added comments that shed light on how the students social characteristics worked for them or against them. Others described other social differences which were often less tangible but equally significant.

> "Always hard to come from one region and acquire proficiency in the trends and attitudes of another. Age has been a bit of a problem in that I'm not much older than my students --and look it! Religion is not really a problem except that (the dominant church here) is very conservative on many conservation-related issues like resource exploitation and family planning."
>
> "I see myself as a product of the pre-TV/mass media/entertainment culture (where it was thought that) 'work may be hard.' The students are products of mass media/entertainment cultures (where it is thought that) 'all learning must be entertaining'."
>
> "I came from a wide ranging background and therefore find it easy to understand students and put them at ease in a formal educational framework."
>
> "The effete eastern snob in me may have occasionally rubbed some students the wrong way initially -- but this was usually smoothed over within a short time. The black-white thing was no real problem."
>
> "The national origin dimension worked both negatively (in terms of my understanding of the students) and positively (in terms of their willingness and desire to interact with me).

Summary

At the start of this chapter I said we would review what the beginning teacher found when they arrived in their new organizational homes. A lot has been learned, and much of it is not reassuring.

Before they even began their jobs, 55% were put into a position of uncertainty and tenuousness by being given only temporary, non-tenure track appointments. Two-thirds still had not finished their dissertations by the time they started teaching. This

added to the already heavy teaching load most of them were given. Of these, half managed to finish their dissertation during the first year after graduate school.

The teaching load varied significantly by type of institution. Those in major universities averaged only six classroom contact hours per week while those in four-year institutions and two-year institutions averaged 9 and 12 hours respectively. Forty percent thought (correctly or incorrectly) that their teaching load was heavier than that of their colleagues. Over half (56%) had courses that involved four or more different subject matter preparations during the first year. In light of this, it is understandable why new teachers seldom have time to think about and experiment with different teaching techniques, or undertake work on their own development as teachers. The data also indicates that the more different course preparations a teacher has, the lower are the course evaluations they receive from students during that term. The vast majority of participants in this study felt overloaded, and attributed this primarily to an excessive teaching load.

The institutions in which the new teachers worked also had a major effect on them. The participants were conscious of many distinctive characteristics, and made some effort to adjust to the different demands and challenges of each. But the majority found further that their new institutions were different from the ones they "identified with" as a student. When asked whether this affected their performance and the satisfaction they derived from their work, they thought it did. This view was supported by the course evaluation scores of students and by the assessments of their colleagues. Those who were in similar institutions were rated as more effective teachers than those in institutions different from the ones they identified with as students.

The fact that less than half were sure that the reward structure of their institutions encouraged high quality teaching also affected their relationship with their present institution.

A second type of relationship was with the participants' colleagues. One problem here was that the majority did not find much intellectual companionship, i.e., someone with whom they could share professional ideas and concerns. Again, they thought this adversely affected their satisfaction and performance. Course evaluations and colleague assessments supported this view. Those who found such companionship were rated by both students and colleagues as more effective teachers than were those who did not find it.

There also seemed to be a problem in the support given to the new teachers by their colleagues. The new teachers indicated a desire for more of several types of support. The ones who did receive it (e.g., the invitation to observe other teachers and/or to be observed), found it helpful.

Finally, some information was learned about the new teachers' important relationships with their students. Many study participants were surprised by their students' lack of academic readiness. Compounding this was the problem of the communication barriers between the new teachers and their students. The task of exciting students, humoring them, exhorting them, challenging them, disciplining them, and leading them intellectually requires a keen "sense" of how students think, feel, and react. This "sense" seemed to be reduced when the teachers had different social backgrounds than the students. Some were able to transcend these differences and quickly learned how to relate effectively to new student characteristics. In a few cases, teachers were able to transform their differences into advantages. But most teachers did not adapt quickly to this factor and, in general, the more differences a teacher had, the lower was their rated effectiveness.

Chapter 4

THEIR PERFORMANCE AS TEACHERS

Teaching was the primary activity of most of the study participants during this first year after graduate school. Although several spent much of their free time trying to finish their dissertation, the vast majority of most participants' time was spent preparing for and teaching their courses. This had both professional and personal meaning for them. As will be shown later in this chapter, their personal and professional satisfaction during the first year depended to a great extent on how they fared in the classroom.

The material in this chapter will present information pertinent to the following four questions.

1. What were the study participants trying to accomplish as teachers?
2. What teaching methods and strategies did they use?
3. How well did they do?
4. How did they feel about their experience as a college teacher?

The final section of the chapter will present information about the new teachers' professional accomplishments other than teaching.

What were They Trying to Accomplish?

Goals and Values

Behind every decision one makes as a teacher is a value, otherwise known as a purpose or a goal. This may be directed towards the students, e.g., to get them to learn as much as possible, or it may be directed toward oneself, e.g., to teach in such a way that it is enjoyable for the teacher, or in a way that minimizes the amount of preparation time. This last example is not a cynical one, but a realistic one, often

seen where new teachers had to prepare for several new courses and do many other things as well.

A teacher's satisfaction or disappointment will ultimately be determined more by what they want to happen, regardless of how circumstances may affect the way they actually teach. Hence it is important to examine their goals and values carefully.

During the site visits and interviews the participants frequently discussed their goals and values. Their comments covered the full range from very specific to very general.

To get a clearer sense of the educational goals and values of the participants, they were given the following task at the beginning of the study: "Complete the following sentence in your own words: 'The most important thing I can do for students is ....'"

Their responses varied in content and in articulateness. Five lines of thinking seemed to emerge from an analysis of their comments, as listed below with illustrating examples.

Promote General Intellectual Growth

"... provide the opportunity to develop analytic thinking."

"... help them to become 'intelligent skeptics.'"

"... provide them with the opportunity to grow as individuals."

Teach Mastery of the Subject Matter and/or the Discipline

"... instruct them in the fundamental principles and techniques of the particular subject under study."

"... give them the ability to analyze a situation from a geographic or spatial viewpoint."

"... help them become thinking and able geographers."

Develop Application Skills, for a Vocation or for Living

"... help them learn and apply what they have learned."

"... make them aware of a body of knowledge or a set of techniques that increases their information base and is useful to them in a practical sense (career orientation, etc.)"

"... help them ... to apply what it is they have learned to everyday life."

Engage or Develop Students' Feelings

"... enhance students' sensitivity to their surroundings. I want them to be turned on like I was turned on; I want to create 'gleams in their eyes.'"

"... convey the excitement that can be gotten from the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake."

"... teach and advise and stimulate students so that they can enjoy the learning of new ideas as an education and reward in itself."

Prepare Students for Further Learning

"If I can stimulate their interest and provide them with some basic guidelines for learning, they will take care of the matter of educating themselves in terms of a longer process than my one semester course."

"... facilitate an enjoyable learning experience that will place them in a position to learn more on their own at a later date."

"... instruct them in such a way that, upon completion of the courses, they are and will continue to be able to assess, analyze and interpret their environment."

These statements indicate fairly well the range of ideals to which new college teachers aspire. The teachers were often attracted to two or more of the goals listed above, as can be seen even in the quotes given. However, not all goals were mentioned an equal number of times.

When each participant's response was analyzed and coded for the type of goal(s) it made reference to, the following results were obtained.

No. of Times Mentioned

53- Promote general intellectual growth

36 - Teach mastery of subject matter and discipline

25 - Develop application skills

23 - Engage students' feelings

21 - Prepare students for further learning

What do these statements reflect? To begin with, they show high ideals. The majority of these people were not just trying to teach a specific course or subject matter, but genuinely wanted to achieve some greater good, some general intellectual growth or the groundwork for future learning. One fourth of the participants directed their statements to the intermediate goal of exciting students and engaging their feelings, although some of the teachers probably saw this as a valuable goal in and of itself. Many of the statements referring to application skills seemed to reflect the applied ethos of the institutions in which they were now teaching.

A second reflection of the participants' values was obtained when they were asked to rank order four actions in terms of their perceived importance to the teacher. Like the statements above generated by the participants themselves, these actions are all good. But the hypothesis was that a person could not pursue all four simultaneously with equal vigor. Therefore, in the questionnaire (as in life), one is forced to make choices between different good ends.

The choices made by the participants are shown in Table 35. The participants distributed their responses fairly evenly as a group. That is, there was no one of these activities that was generally preferred to the others.

One question that can be asked is, while these various goal statements and value preferences all appear to be good in terms of face value, is there any difference in the teaching performance of those who express one goal or value rather than another? Or are all equally capable of being translated into effective teaching? The answer is clearly yes, it is possible to teach effectively while working under the influence of any of these goals or values. The whole study population was divided into groups who made

Table 35

Relative Importance of Four Teaching Activities

Activity	Relative Rank Given by New Teachers: 1st	2nd	3rd	4th	$\bar{X}$
Help students find, within the course, something interesting and worthwhile to study.	34%	23%	25%	19%	2.29
Challenge students' preconceptions, biases, and/or ignorance.	30	28	20	22	2.34
Maintain high intellectual standards.	29	28	22	21	2.36
Develop and maintain good channels of communication.	25	24	25	27	2.54

different kinds of goal statements or who showed different value preferences. Each group was analyzed to see what proportion had high, medium, or low teaching evaluations, as measured by the IDEA instrument (see Table 36). All groups had close to 20% in the high group.

Another question that can be asked about these goals and values is whether they merely constitute lofty ideals for the new teachers, or did they actually affect what they did as teachers? It is not possible to give a full answer to this without having more information on the teacher-class and teacher-student interactions than was possible in a study like this. It is possible, though, to get some indication by looking at the selection of course objectives by the teachers which is required for the IDEA evaluation process. Do people who hold one goal or value select particular course objectives more frequently or less frequently than others? There were differences, although not always as significant as one might expect. Table 37 shows which course objectives were chosen more frequently or less frequently by each group. Generally these are consistent with what one would expect. For example, those who wanted to "promote general intellectual growth" and/or "challenge students' biases" indicated that "learning to apply course material to improve rational thinking, problem-solving and decision making" was an important course objectives more frequently than did the other teachers. Similarly "gaining factual knowledge" was less important as a course objective for teachers who wanted to develop students application skills and/or who wanted to help students find something interesting and worthwhile in the course to study.

However, another type of evidence suggests that the new teachers did have problems translating their ideals into related kinds of teaching activities. This comes from the course evaluation data on the frequency of different teaching methods used. On the IDEA student questionnaire, there are 20 teaching methods which are sorted

Table 36

Course Evaluation Results of Teachers with Different Goal Statements or Value Preferences

	Course Evaluation Results:		
Goal Statements	Low	Medium	High
Promote General Intellectual Growth	46%	31%	23%
Teach subject matter mastery	47	33	19
Develop application skills	54	33	12
Engage students' feelings	45	29	25
Prepare students for further learning	38	33	28
Value Prefences			
Help students find interesting material to study	46%	36%	18%
Challenge students' biases	50	27	23
Maintain high standards	45	33	21
Develop good communication	44	37	18
Total Study Population	48%	31%	21%

Table 37

Courses Objectives Selected by Teachers with Different Goals and Values

	IDEA Course Objectives Selected:	
Goal Statements	More Frequently	Less Frequently
Promote general intellectual growth	Thinking and problem solving Creative capacities	-
Teach subject matter mastery	-	Creative capacities**
Develop application skills	-	Factual knowledge* General liberal education
Engage students' feeling	Personal responsibility	Principles and theories* Effective communication*
Prepare students' for further learning	-	-
Value Preferences		
Help students find interesting material to study	Implications for self-understanding*	Factual knowledge
Challenge students' biases	Thinking and problem-solving**	-
Maintain high standards	Effective communication*	Implication for self-understanding
Develop good channels of communication	-	-

** = The difference between the means of the groups is significant at a level of $p \leq 0.01$.

* = The difference between the means of the groups is significant at a level of $p \leq 0.05$.

into four groups, those related to (a) involving students, (b) communicating content and purpose, (c) creating enthusiasm, and (d) preparing examinations. One might expect that teachers who put a high priority on "challenging students' biases", for example, would be rated higher in those objectives that "involve students in a course." Or that those who put a high priority on "helping students find something interesting and worthwhile in the course to study," would be rated higher on these activities related to "creating enthusiasm." But, for the most part, they did not do so. There were only two categories of goal statements that showed much higher ratings on these measures of teaching activities: those who said they wanted to "promote general intellectual growth" were rated significantly higher on "involving students in the course," and those who wanted to "prepare students for further learning" were rated significantly higher on "creating enthusiasm." Those who said they wanted to "engage students' feelings" were rated higher than the other teachers on all four scales, but not to a degree that was statistically significant.

Role of the Self-as-Teacher

Another way of determining what these teachers wanted to accomplish was to question them about their roles as teachers. Four different questions to identify their self-ideal as a teacher, the origin of this ideal, and their view of the relation of knowledge to this ideal.

The background questionnaire asked about the origin of their approach to teaching. The results show the heavy influence of prior teachers (see Table 38). Forty-one percent of the respondents said they were consciously modelling their teaching after (or away from) one or two of their own teachers whom they especially liked (or disliked). Only 18% said they were genuinely trying to create an independent approach to teaching.

Table 38

Role of Self in Teaching for New Teachers

Origin of Their Approach to Teaching	Percentage
Modelled primarily after 1 or 2 teachers	41%
"Eclectic," i.e., borrowed equally from many teachers	39
Independent, i.e., created without much modelling	18
(combination of the above)	3

Their Preferred Teaching Prototype (after J. Axelrod)	Choice: 1st	1st or 2nd
Principles-and-facts ("I teach what I know.")	52%	78%
Instructor-centered ("I teach what I am.")	20	44
Student-as-mind ("I train minds.")	22	56
Student-as-person ("I work with students as people.")	7	23

Role Fulfillment (after R. Mann)

Role	Desired	Perceived	Difference
Expert	3.65*	3.44*	-0.21
Formal authority	2.52	2.64	+0.12
Socializing agent	2.38	2.07	-0.31
Facilitator	3.10	2.52	-0.58
Ego Ideal	3.20	2.58	-0.62
Person	3.07	2.95	-0.12

*Scale: 1 (low) to 4 (high)

The next questionnaire asked about each person's teaching prototype, i.e., their vision of the teaching style they believed to be most effective, an image of the teacher at his/her best. The concept of teaching prototypes has been elaborated by Joseph Axelrod, and his four model prototypes were offered to the respondents for their reaction. (The University Professor as Artist, 1973).

The responses reveal a fairly orthodox approach to teaching (see Table 38). The majority said their view was closest to what Axelrod called the principles-and-facts prototype. This is probably where the new teachers feel most secure. When Axelrod described the evolution of a hypothetical professor's approach to teaching, he began with this prototype. This study suggests that that is the one most new teachers begin with. While some respondents selected an inquiry approach (= students-as-mind prototype), there was a tendency to shy away from the instructor-centered prototype. Presumably most did not feel confident enough as scholars or as teachers yet to teach "what they are" rather than "what they know."

Having seen that the majority took a fairly conservative approach to teaching, I then asked on the mid-year questionnaire about their attitudes towards certain teaching roles. Richard Mann and his colleagues have elaborated six different roles that a teacher can fulfill or avoid fulfilling in relation to students (The College Classroom: Conflict, Change and Learning, 1970). These roles, and their associated functions are:

Role	Function
Expert	Transmits the information, concepts, and perspectives of the field.
Formal Authority	Establishes rules, sets procedures and selects goals.
Socializing Agent	Introduces students to the values, assumptions, and life style of his/her profession; clarifies goals and career paths beyond the course.

Facilitator	Searches for ways to help students learn and grow within the students' own frame of reference; helps overcome obstacles to learning.
Ego Ideal	Conveys the excitement and value of intellectual inquiry in a given field of study.
Person	Presents her/himself as, and recognizes the students as, persons, thereby validating the full range of human needs and human experiences.

The respondents were asked to what degree they (a) wanted to fulfill each role and (b) thought they were perceived by students as fulfilling each role. Table 38 shows the desired level of role fulfillment, the perceived degree of role fulfillment, and the difference between the two for the study population as a whole.

The respondents showed the strongest attraction to the role of expert. which is consistent with their preference for the principles-and-facts prototype. Their general distaste for being the formal authority was also apparent. The second most desired role was that of socializing agent; this seems consistent with the comments many had made about identifying with the discipline of geography.

When their desired roles are compared with the way they thought students saw them, many did not think students saw them as fulfilling these roles as much as they wanted, except for the role of formal authority. Here they felt students put them in the role of task master more than they wanted.

Finally, in the last questionnaire I asked the respondents whether they thought that the kind of knowledge required for doing research was similar to or different from the kind of knowledge required for teaching. This is an issue that has been the source of continuing debate in higher education for some time.

Earl McGrath, former Commissioner of Education during the Eisenhower Administration, has long argued that research and teaching call for very different kinds of knowledge, skills, and competencies.

> "The research worker, concerned with the minute analysis of an ever-narrower area of reality, requires a knowledge of research techniques and skill in their use. The prospective teacher, on the other hand, though he should have an imaginative and vital mind and the capacity for critical analysis, must master wide ranges of subject matter, learn the habit of philosophic synthesis, and acquire certain pedagogical skills and professional attitudes." (1950, p. 34)

More recently Steven Cahn has offered a new version of this thesis. Arguing against the view that the "publish-or-perish" syndrome is responsible for poor undergraduate teaching, Cahn believes that publishing should help, not hinder, good teaching. The real problem, in his opinion, is a "failure to recognize the crucial principle that intellectual competence and pedogogic competence are two very different qualities." (Scholars Who Teach, 1978, p. ix).

When asked for their opinion, nearly two-thirds (63%) of the people in this study took the view that is dominant in the graduate school ethos, that the two kinds of knowledge are more similar than different (see Table 39). Again this seems consistent with the stances taken on the preceding questions.

Having reviewed the several ways in which these people reflected their educational values, I was prompted to ask whether participation in the teaching preparation programs seemed to have affected people's values. It seemed reasonable to believe that it might.

At first check, it appeared that a slightly greater percentage of the TLGG participants expressed less traditional values. But a closer inspection revealed major differences between two sub-groups of the program participants: those who valued the program experience and those who did not.

Table 40 shows the percentage of each of the three groups (non-participants, participants who did not value the experience, and participants who did value the experience) who mentioned certain goals or put a high priority or preference on certain options. There were some values, such as the "student-as-person" teaching

Table 39

Views of the Similarity of Knowledge Needed for Research and Teaching

Question: "In your opinion, is the kind of knowledge required to do research on a topic similar to or different from the kind of knowledge required to teach the same subject?"

Responses	Percentage
Very similar	19%
More similar than different	44
More different than similar	25
Very different	12

Table 40

Effects of Participation in a Teaching Prepration Program on Educational Values

Participants Who:		TLGG Participants:	
	Non-Participant	Not Valued	Valued
A. Made goal statements about:			
Mastery of subject matter	48%	29%	6%
General intellectual growth	48	64	75
Engaging students' feelings	30	7	25
Preparing students for further learning	19	36	25
Developing application skills	23	21	38
B. Preferred Values to:			
Maintain high intellectual standards	61%	50%	48%
Challenge students' biases	54	50	80
Develop good communication with students	47	50	53
Help students find interesting material	55	71	48
C. Valued the following teaching prototype:			
"Principles-and-facts"	81%	86%	60%
"Instructor-centered"	43	50	40
"Student-as-mind"	60	28	66
"Student-as-person	17	36	33
D. Desired the teaching role of:			
Expert	97%	92%	93%
Formal authority	56	62	38
Socializing agent	56	31	31
Facilitator	75	62	75
Ego ideal	77	69	94
Person	79	85	68
E. Believed that:			
Knowledge for teaching and for research are more different than similar	36%	15%	56%

prototype and the importance of "maintaining high intellectual standards", which the participants as a group rated higher than did the non-participants. But in most values, the major differences were between those who valued the TLGG experience and those who did not, rather than between participants and non-participants.

In most cases, the TLGG-"valuers" expressed values that were more liberal and less conventional than the "non-valuers" or the "non-participants." The TLGG-"valuers" were low on: (1) the "mastery of subject matter" as a stated goal, (2) the "principles-and-facts" prototype and (3) the formal authority role. They were high on: (1) general intellectual growth as a stated goal, (2) the "challenging students' biases" value preference, (3) the "student-as-mind "teaching prototype and (4) the ego-ideal role, (5) on seeing teaching and research knowledge as being different.

This clarifies the question of what happened in these programs. To some extent it can be said that participation affected the values of participants. But more importantly it seems that the programs (meaning the directors and/or the activities) incorporated certain educational values which some of the participants found acceptable. These people responded positively to the program and seemed to benefit from it. Other participants did not accept these values and did not value the program experience.

What Did they Do as Teachers?

The preceding section described what the new teachers wanted to accomplish as teachers. The next question was, what did they do to try to achieve those goals? In many ways, this was the most difficult and perhaps weakest part of this research project. The way one does such things as design a course, gather illustrative examples for a lecture, and develop class exercises, all have a profound effect on the quality of a course and yet these same processes are very hard to learn about by long-distance questionnaires. The only thing I could really do was ask some general questions about whether people intended to use certain teaching techniques, and see if there were any differences worth noting.

Use of Specific Teaching Techniques

At the beginning of the year the participants were asked what teaching techniques they intended to use. However, the comments from many respondents made it clear that the way they wanted to teach was not the way they had to teach. Several factors forced them out of their preferred mode of teaching.

> "Due to size of classes, lack of TA's, and lack of time, I'll be working mostly from a lecture format this year."
>
> "Often I would like to use an activity but it is not realistically feasible, ex. field trips and PSI (can't work this up in one quarter)."
>
> "I use slides and overhead transparencies almost everyday in one course or another. Unfortunately the classroom and personnel organization here (large state university) is less conducive to teaching methods than the community college where I taught formerly."

Given the constraints of time, class size, and facilities, what techniques, then, did they use? Essentially everybody used lectures and readings (see Table 41). Most used AV-aids and some form of class discussion. Several used library research projects. Only a few used other methods of teaching.

The main reason more of these people did not use a broader range of techniques was undoubtedly lack of time and, perhaps, familiarity with the other teaching techniques. Recalling the information from Chapter 3 (Table 17) that over 55% had four to eight separate, new course preparations during their first year, it is no wonder that most of them resorted to the lecture-and-readings approach which requires relatively less advance preparation and organization time.

Student-Student Interaction

The participants were also asked whether they intended to make provisions for student-student interaction as well as general class discussion. Most said they did intend to.

Although students were not asked specifically about the amount of student-student interaction, they were asked two questions about class discussions on the course evaluation and the responses tend to confirm the belief that, overall, those teachers who wanted more student participation got more.

Grading System

Much of the educational literature on grading emphasizes the value of criterion-referenced grading, as opposed to norm-referenced grading. The new teachers were asked which of these two methods they intended to use.

Table 41

Use of Various Teaching Techniques

	Percentage of Respondents who Used This Technique in:		
	3 or More Classes	Only 1-2 Classes	0 Classes
Lectures	78%	22%	0%
Readings (text, lib. mat'ls)	77	22	1
Audio-visual aids	66	24	10
Discussions of particular readings	53	37	10
General class discussions	48	39	13
Library research project	25	48	27
Field Trips	12	37	51
Laboratory work	13	36	51
Field-based research project	11	47	42
Simulation games	7	42	51
Computer-based instruction	6	26	68
Audio-visual tutorial	2	4	94
Personalized system of instruction (PSI)	1	6	93

Nearly half preferred norm-referenced grading. Perhaps because they were uncertain as to where to set their grade criteria on the first go-around, they preferred the system of "grading on the curve." Their comments on this question reflect their concerns and some ambivalence.

> "I can't prejudge performance levels on given materials."
>
> "I prefer criterion-referenced grading, but I usually use norm-referenced."
>
> "(I prefer) criterion referenced, but it is difficult to adhere to at times."

Alternative Teaching Strategies

An effort was made to determine whether the participants, as new teachers, had automatically started teaching in a particular way, or whether they had considered a number of alternatives and then made a reasoned choice. Hence they were asked at the beginning of the year whether they had given serious consideration to more than one form of teaching and, if so, what forms they had considered and later rejected.

The question elicited a large number of extended comments, suggesting that the new teachers had given a lot of thought to this aspect of their teaching. Several had wanted to hold seminar-like discussions, but found it necessary to reject this form of teaching because of large enrollments. Others found themselves changing their teaching approach in response to student characteristics.

> "I'm using less formal lecture in the World Regional course and more of it in the Anglo-American course. (This is) in response to the alertness, responsiveness, etc. of the classes."

Still others gave more tentative replies indicating they were experimenting and feeling their way along.

> "I am still considering the possibilities of increased emphasis on field work in several classes. Changes depend on how much time I have to explore and develop local potential."

In general, more thought had been given to alternative forms of teaching than I had anticipated.

Efforts To Improve Themselves as Teachers

All teachers, new or experienced, need to work on improving themselves. To what degree were the participants of this study doing this?

On the mid-year questionnaire, they were asked: "What activities have you engaged in during the past half-year specifically intended to improve your competence as a teacher?"

The responses to this and related questions are given in Table 42. About one-fourth said they did engage in activities specifically to improve their competence as teachers. Several more said there were incidental things that helped them as teachers.

The participants were then asked what it was they had done to improve their teaching abilities. Their responses fell into one or more of the following three categories.

Improved my knowledge of the subject I teach (N = 21)

"Read a great deal to improve my substantive knowledge."

"Audited a team-taught course on environmental studies."

"Attended a week-long seminar at Purdue University on remote sensing."

Studied some aspect(s) of college teaching (N = 16)

"Read books relating to interpersonal communication."

"Attended a series of mini-workshops within the college on "The Improvement of Teaching."

"Read articles on college teaching."

Table 42

Efforts by New Teachers to Improve

Their Teaching

1. "Did you engage in any activities specifically intended to improve your competence as a teacher?"

   Yes - 27% (N = 26)
   No - 73%

2. "Were there incidental activities that helped you as a teacher?"

   Yes - 38% (N = 35)
   No - 62%

3. "Did you modify your teaching as a result of what you learned?"

   Greatly - 6% (N = 3)
   To a limited extent - 74% (N = 40)
   Not at all - 20% (N=11)

4. "Did you utilize local teaching support services?"

   Yes - 63%
   No - 37%

Familiarized myself with the locale and local references (N = 6)

"Traveled to get slides and experiences to make class more interesting."

"Attended workshop on AV-aids in teaching."

It was not surprising to see new teachers trying to improve their knowledge of the subjects they were asked to teach. It was surprising to see 16% say they actively sought out knowledge about college teaching. On the other hand, 1 out of 6 is still a small proportion. Half of this latter group were taking advantage of some type of workshop offered by their institution or at professional conferences. The other half were doing something on their own.

How Well Did They Teach?

This simple-sounding question, "How well did they teach?", is in fact a very difficult question to answer. The complexity is due to the fact that three other questions have to be answered in the process of answering this one.

One of the embedded questions is: How well did they teach--according to whom? The students? The teachers themselves? Their colleagues? An outside observer? The second embedded question is: In what sense, "well"? Did they give good lectures, or lead good discussions, or excite the students, or grade them fairly, or did they achieve their learning objectives, or what? The third question relates to different kinds of teaching situations: Did they teach well (or poorly) in all courses, or did there seem to be a significant amount of variation in performance in different teaching situations? If the latter, was there a common kind of situation in which the majority did well or poorly, or not?

I will address the efforts made to take account of the first two complicating questions first, and then deal with the third question later in this section.

Sources and Types of Information

Information about the teaching performance of the new teachers was gathered systematically from three primary sources: the teachers themselves, their colleagues, and their students. In addition, as director of the study, I visited the classrooms of 30 participants and obtained some general impressions.

These sources were not all equally informed. I was least informed because I saw only one class session for only some of the participants. The students were present at (hopefully) a significant portion of all sessions for one course for each teacher. The teachers themselves attended all or nearly all sessions for all courses they taught. The degree to which the colleagues were well-informed is not totally clear.

The questionnaire for the colleagues asked what information they had to base their assessment on. Table 43 shows their response. Most seemed to be basing their evaluation on conversations with the new teacher and/or with their students. It was not based, for the most part, on personal observations of the new teacher in the classroom. It was somewhat surprising to see that nearly 50% of the colleagues other than the chairperson said they had actually seen course evaluation results.

There is reason to be somewhat cautious about the frequencies reported by colleagues for these activities. Although 29 chairpersons said they had visited the participant's classes one or more times, only 21 participants reported being visited at all by anyone. Some of these responses may indicate what the colleagues intended to do "sometime" (or thought they should have done).

The net result of this is that the colleagues had various sources of information, almost all indirect. The adequacy of these sources is still an open question.

The second complicating factor to be unraveled concerns the multi-dimensional character of teaching. Teaching involves and requires many different skills and competencies. The many evaluation instruments which have been developed over the

Table 43

Colleagues' Sources of Information About the Teaching of the Study Participants

	Chair	Colleague #1	Colleague #2
1. No Information on Participant	1%	8%	3%
2. Visited Participant's classes			
-% "not at all"	68%	72%	74%
-average frequency	0.8*	0.7	0.5
3. Talked with Participant about his/her classes			
-% "not at all"	9%	14%	11%
-average frequency	2.4	2.3	2.4
4. Saw the results of their course evaluations			
-% "not at all"	26%	49%	51%
-average frequency	2.4	1.5	1.4
5. Heard reports from students in their classes			
-% "not at all"	11%	9%	8%
-average frequency	2.0	2.3	2.4
6. Comments by other faculty			
-% "not all"	15%	24%	30%
-average frequency	2.0	1.7	1.6
7. Completeness of the Information you have			
-% "no information"	0%	2%	3%
-average rating	2.5	2.4	2.2

*The "average frequency" and "average rating" are based on a scale ranging from "0" (none) to "4" (quite a lot).

years each identify their own list of important aspects of teaching. Four lists were used in this study, three of which were borrowed and one of which was generated specifically for this study (see diagram below)

The list generated for this study was simply a list of five common teaching functions (lecturer, discussion leader etc.) on which the participants were asked to rate themselves. The second list consists of five general academic qualifications that have been found to be important when faculty members evaluate each other (Hildebrand, Wilson and Dienst, 1971). The third list contains 11 characteristics and comes from a study of factors that are important when a department makes new academic appointments (Fink and Morgan, 1976). The fourth source of information is the IDEA course evaluation system developed at Kansas State University by Donald Hoyt. This is a sophisticated instrument that, for this study, obtained (a) student reactions to 20 teaching behaviors, (b) the students' perceived achievement of 10 possible course objectives, (c) summary scores for four general types of teaching behaviors, (d) student response to four questions specific to this study, and (e) an overall evaluation based on the achievement of faculty-chosen course objectives, as compared to other professors using IDEA in similar courses (similar in terms of class size and student motivation).

The following diagram indicates which types of questions were asked of which audiences:

Respondents:	Common Teaching Functions (5 items)	General Academic Qualifications (5 items) (Hildebrand et. al.)	Teaching Qualifications (11 items) (Fink & Morgan)	IDEA System
New Teachers	X	X	X	-
Their Colleagues	-	X	X	-
Their Students	-	-	-	X

The many questions from these different lists were then analyzed for the type of information they provided about the new teachers' qualifications and performance. The result was a more finite and differentiated list of the aspects of teaching that were evaluated in this study (see Table 44). In this study, then, one or more questions were asked about each of these aspects of teaching, and each question was often asked of several of the three audiences, i.e., the new teachers, their colleagues, and/or their students.

The only aspect that was not well covered by the study was item A3, "the teacher's ability to design courses." In my mind, this refers to one's ability to develop a uniquely organized set of learning activities that takes into consideration the particular curriculum, the subject, the students, the teacher, and the constraints in any given teaching/learning situation. Unable to identify a way of measuring this in a survey study, I settled for using a question from the Fink-Morgan study: "(the participant) has a well-developed philosophy of teaching and learning."

General Analysis of Participants' Teaching Performance

The actual evaluation data for each of these aspects of teaching is presented in Table 45. First, the items that were especially high or low for the whole group will be identified and analyzed. Second, the evaluations from the three types of respondents will be compared. Third, the overall assessments will be examined.

In general, these beginning college teachers were rated <u>high</u> on the following items.

Establishing good relationships with students (B2)
Knowledge of the subject matter of their courses (A1)
Interest in self-evaluation as a teacher (A4)
Evaluating students for more than memorization (B10)

Table 44

Aspects of Teaching Evaluated in This Study

A. General Considerations

1. Teacher's knowledge of the subject
2. Teacher's attitude toward teaching
3. Teacher's ability to design courses
4. Teacher's desire to continue learning about teaching

B. Particular Abilities ("Is the teacher able to...")

1. Make course objectives clear
2. Establish good relationships with the students
3. Involve students
4. Effectively communicate the course content
5. Use particular techniques effectively (e.g. lecturing)
6. Create enthusiasm
7. Provide frequent and useful feedback to the students
8. Change their teaching approach as appropriate
9. Provide intellectual leadership
10. Construct good tests

C. Overall Assessment

1. As perceived by the teachers themselves
2. As perceived by their colleagues
3. As perceived by their students

Table 45

Evaluations of the Teaching Performance

of Beginning College Teachers

Aspects of Teaching:	Mean Rating given by: Teachers Themselves	Colleagues	Students
A. General Considerations			
1. Teacher's knowledge of the subject			
- "Research activity and recognition"	2.70	2.93	-
- "Intellectual breadth"	2.62	2.90	-
- "Knows the subject matter of the course well	3.10	3.39	-
2. Teacher's attitude towards teaching			
- "Concerns for teaching"	2.81	3.15	-
3. Teacher's ability to design courses			
- "Has a well-developed philosophy of teaching and learning."	3.56	2.86	-
4. Teacher's desire to continue learning about teaching			
- "Is interested in self-evaluation and continued development as a teacher"	3.16	3.30	-
B. Particular Teaching abilities			
1. Makes course objectives clear			
- "Makes well-considered course objectives clear to students."	2.64	2.87	-
- "Clearly stated the objectives of the course."	-	-	2.72

N.B. All means are on a scale of 0 (low) - 4 (high) unless designated otherwise by the following code:
a = 0 (low) - 2 (high)
b = 1 (low) - 4 (high)
c = 1 (low) - 100 (high) (50 = average for all teachers using IDEA system with similar courses).

Aspects of Teaching (cont.):	Mean Rating given by: Teachers Themselves	Colleagues	Students
B. Particular Teaching abilities			
2. Establishes good relationships with the students			
- "able to interact with students in class." (first of year)	3.11	-	-
- (Mid-year change in perception of) "ability to interact with students in class." (0 = not as well as expected; 2 = better than expected)	1.22[a]	-	-
- "Relations with students"	3.23	3.32	-
- "Shows concern for students as individuals"	3.19	3.32	-
3. Involves students in class			
- "Teacher valued active student participation in this course."	-	-	1.59[a]
- "Involving students" (average summary percentile from IDEA for 6 questions related to this factor.)	-	-	32[c]
4. Effectively communicates course content			
- "Communicating content and purpose" (average summary percentile from IDEA for 6 questions related to this factor.)	-	-	47[c]
5. Uses particular teaching techniques effectively			
- (self-rating as a) lecturer. (First of year)	2.84	-	-
- (mid-year change in self-rating as a) lecturer. (2 = better than expected)	1.13[a]	-	-
- "Gives well-organized lectures."	2.86	2.91	-
- "Spoke with expressiveness and variety in tone of voice."	-	-	2.56

N.B. All means are on a scale of 0 (low) - 4 (high) unless designated otherwise by the following code:
a = 0 (low) - 2 (high)
b = 1 (low) - 4 (high)
c = 1 (low) - 100 (high) (50 = average for all teachers using IDEA system with similar courses.)

Aspects of Teaching (cont.):	Mean Rating given by: Teachers Themselves	Colleagues	Students
B. Particular Teaching abilities			
5. Uses particular teaching techniques effectively (cont.)			
- (self-rating as a) discussion leader. (First of year)	2.56	-	-
- (mid-year change is self-rating as a) discussion leader. (0 = worse than expected)	0.98[a]	-	-
6. Creates enthusiasm			
- "Is dynamic and enthusiastic as a teacher."	2.88	3.10	-
- "Seemed enthusiastic about the subject matter."	-	-	3.24
- "Stimulated students to intellectual effort beyond that required in most courses."	-	-	1.87
- "By the end of the course, have you (the student) come to see the subject mater as something important and meaningful to you?"	-	-	3.07[b]
- "Creating enthusiasm "(average summary percentile from IDEA for 5 questions related to this topic.)	-	-	42[c]
7. Provides feedback to students			
- "Teacher provided frequent and helpful feedback on your performance as a student."	-	-	2.80[b]
8. Changes teaching approach as appropriate			
- "Uses a variety of teaching formats (e.g., computer-assisted instruction, field teaching, gaming, etc.)"	2.11	2.74	-
- "Changed approaches to meet new situations."	-	-	2.17
9. Provides intellectual leadership			
- "Challenges students intellectually."	2.78	3.16	-
- Presents alternative perspectives of the subject matter."	2.64	-	-

N.B. All means are on a scale of 0 (low) - 4 (high) unless designated otherwise by the following code:
a = 0 (low) - 2 (high)
b = 1 (low) - 4 (high)
c = 1 (low) - 100 (high) (50 = average for all teachers using IDEA system with similar courses.)

Aspects of Teaching (cont.):	Mean Rating given by: Teachers Themselves	Colleagues	Students
B. Particular Teaching abilities (cont.)			
10. Constructs good tests			
- (Self-rating as) a test maker. (First of year)	2.63	-	-
- (Mid-year change in self-rating as) a test maker. (2 = better than expected)	1.14[a]	-	-
- "Evaluates students for more than memorization of material from lectures and the test."	3.00	3.17	-
- "Preparing examinations" (average summary percentile from IDEA for 3 questions related to this factor.)	-	-	52[c]
C. Overall Evaluation			
- "Did your general teaching strategy work better than, or not as well as, you expected?" (asked at mid-year) (0 = not as well; 2 = better)	0.78[a]	-	-
- "How does this teacher's performance compare to that of other beginning college teachers you have known? (0 = bottom 10%; 4 = top 10%)	-	2.87	-
- "Would this teacher's teaching performance be an asset or a liability for re-appointment or promotion?" (0 = definite liability; 4 = strong asset)	-	3.19	-
- "Overall evaluation" (average summary percentile from IDEA, based on student perception of achievement teacher's course objectives.) (50 = average for all teachers with similar courses).	-	-	32[c]

N.B. All means are on a scale of 0 (low) - 4 (high) unless designated otherwise by the following code:
a = 0 (low) - 2 (high)
b = 1 (low) - 4 (high)
c = 1 (low) - 100 (high) (50 = average for all teachers using IDEA system with similar courses.)

Most of these are not too surprising. The fact that the new teachers were relatively young probably explains much of their ability to relate well to students. The fact that they had just finished graduate school probably accounts for their own and their colleagues' perceptions that they knew the subject matter of the courses they taught. But this did not extend to other types of knowledge. Colleague ratings of the "intellectual breadth" of the new teachers was much lower. The participants' high interest in "self-evaluation and continued development as a teacher" suggests that they were aware of limitations and the need for greater maturity as teachers. As test-makers, the teachers rated themselves and were rated by their students as average, except for a high rating on their ability to ask questions that required more than recall of material from the lectures and the text. Most of the specific IDEA questions about "Preparing examinations" resulted in average scores, but the one on whether the teacher's exams stressed things other than memorization, received a high score.

The areas in which the teachers received relatively <u>low</u> ratings were:

Stimulating students to high intellectual effort (B6)
Changing teaching approach as appropriate (B8)
Involving students in class (B3)
Leading discussions (B5)
Having a well-developed philosophy of teaching/learning (A3)

The single lowest score received by the new teachers collectively on their IDEA course evaluations was for "stimulating students to intellectual effort beyond that required in most courses." Although this is listed in Table 45 as a question relating to "creating enthusiasm" (B7), it also clearly pertains to "providing intellectual leadership" (B9). There are probably two problems involved here. One is knowing how much work to demand of students, an obvious disadvantage of new teachers. But the other important factor is knowing how to <u>stimulate</u> (i.e., motivate) students to do the work

that is necessary in order to learn. The good relationship the new teachers had with the students (see comments above) did not by itself result in students being motivated to high intellectual effort. This apparently requires other abilities which the new teachers, as a group, did not possess to a high degree.

The fact that the teachers were rated low by students on being able to "change approaches to meet new situations" (B8) is probably due to (1) not being familiar with more than one or two approaches to teaching a given topic or subject, and (2) the limited time the new teachers had to develop additional approaches. It takes time to think up different approaches, to try them, and to refine them. But, because of their heavy workload, the new teachers simply could not do this.

As for "involving students in class" (B3), the students thought the new teachers did value active student participation (item one), but they did not think the teachers succeeded in doing it (item two). Given the responses made earlier by the teachers, that they valued the "principles and facts" teaching ideal and the role of the "expert" more than the role of the "facilitator" (see Table 39), it is a little surprising that students thought that the teachers valued student participation as much as they did. The fact that they did not succeed in involving students, in my opinion, relates to the next item on the list: leading discussions. When I made the site visits as study director and interviewed the new teachers, many of them expressed frustration at their own inability to generate a good class discussion. Several, after trying a few times without success, stopped trying and shifted over to straight lectures.

At the beginning of the year, the new teachers rated themselves on several dimensions, and the second lowest rating they gave themselves was on their ability to lead discussions (B5). By mid-year this perception had not changed. The fact that they started out feeling more confident in their lecturing abilities (B5) than in their discussion leading abilities and felt even stronger about this by mid-year probably

explains why many made the shift in teaching techniques that was reported to me in the interviews.

The last item with a relatively low rating was "having a well-developed philosophy of teaching and learning" (A3). This presumably is a result of most graduate programs not encouraging graduate students to develop such a philosophy, and the majority of the participants not having much independent teaching experience or education coursework.

When the ratings made by the three different "evaluators" (the teachers themselves, their colleagues, and their students) are made, some interesting patterns become apparent. On almost all items where the same question was asked, the new teachers rated themselves lower than did their colleagues. The new teachers may have been measuring themselves against their own ideals and self-expectations whereas their colleagues may have been comparing them to other new teachers or even to themselves when they first began teaching. Whatever the reason, the colleagues were in general less harsh in their judgements than were the new teachers themselves.

The student ratings varied. On some items they gave the new teachers higher ratings than the new teachers gave themselves; on other items they gave lower ratings. For example, on the following two items, the student ratings were higher than the new teachers' self ratings.

	Mean Rating by: Scale: 0(low)-4(high)	
	Students	New Teachers
Teacher was enthusiastic	3.24	2.88
Teacher explained course objectives clearly	2.72	2.64

On three items, the students gave lower ratings than the teachers gave themselves.

	Mean Rating by: Scale: 0(low)-4(high)	
	Students	New Teachers
Challenged students intellectually	1.87	2.78
Ability as a discussion leader	2.19	2.56
Ability as a lecturer	2.72	2.86

The final section of Table 45 (Part C) contains the overall or general evaluation given by each of the three "evaluators". Each gave different responses, but this in part reflects the different kinds of summative questions posed to each.

The teachers themselves were asked at mid-year whether their general teaching strategy had worked as well as they had expected or not. The breakdown of responses was as follows:

34% - not as well as expected
53% - about as well as expected
13% - better than expected

The negative interpretation of these figures is that the number of people who fell short of their own expectations was considerably greater than those who exceeded their expectations. The positive view is that two-thirds of the new teachers did as well as or better than they had expected.

The colleagues were asked to evaluate the performance of the beginning teachers in two ways: (a) as compared to other beginning teachers they had known, and (b) as compared to the performance expectations for re-appointment and promotion. The overall response to both these questions was generally on the positive side, although slightly higher for the second question. There did seem to be some halo effect operating: 75% of the participants were rated as "above average" (compared to other new teachers) and 33% were said to be in the "top 10%" (Grade inflation seems to be everywhere!).

The overall student evaluation in the IDEA system is basically an indication of whether students thought they were learning what the teacher was trying to teach. Using national norms broken down by similarity of teaching situations in terms of class size and student motivation, the new teachers as a group scored a 32 on a percentile scale of 100. This means their average score was better than 32% of the other teachers who have used the IDEA system with similar courses. This is about one standard deviation below average.

A decile-by-decile comparison of (a) the evaluation scores for the new teachers with (b) the scores for all teachers using the IDEA system (which is 10% by definition) shows a strongly skewed distribution for the new teachers (see Figure 4).

T-scores were also calculated for each participant in the study, using the IDEA system data base supplied by the Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development in Higher Education at Kansas State University. T-scores come closer to providing a measure of absolute differences than do the percentile scores. Then the number of new teachers who had T-scores more than 1/2 standard deviation higher or lower than the average for all teachers was calculated with the following results:

31% = more than 1/2 SD below the average for all teachers
57% = about average (= ± 1/2 SD)
13% = more than 1/2 SD above the average for all teachers

This suggests that, for beginning college teachers, 1 out of 6 will do an excellent job even in their first year, half will perform on a level comparable to other, more experienced teachers, and 1 out of 3 will have problems.

Observations from Site Visits

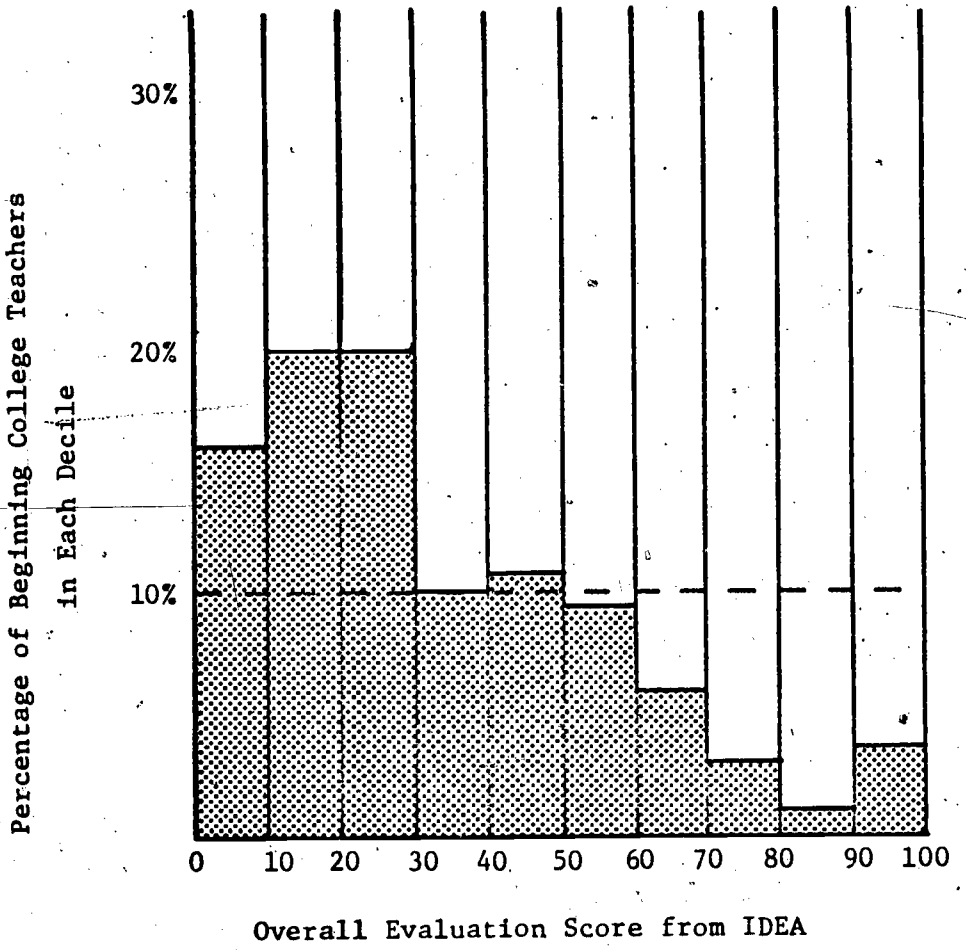
As mentioned earlier, I made a series of one-day site visits to a third of the study participants, and was able to interview them and sit in on one of their classes.

FIGURE 4

Profile of Course Evaluation Scores

---- = Profile for all teachers using the IDEA system

▒▒ = Profile for beginning college teachers in this study



This did not allow me to make a well-based general evaluation, but it did allow me to make some observations that were interesting, especially when related to the student and colleague evaluations that came in later. I will describe and comment on three of these observations here.

One of the differences that became apparent was the relative ability of the new teachers to "read the pedagogical situation" quickly and accurately. That is, some of the participants quickly recognized significant characteristics of their teaching situation that affected the way they designed their courses and the way they taught. For example, one of the participants noticed that both the students and the institution where he went were highly structured. He therefore decided that, initially at least, he should make his courses very structured. Others responded to such things as the vocational orientation and the high (or low) intellectual level of their students and institution. Many of these characteristics were simlar to those used in this study and described in the preceding chapter; some went even further in their analysis. But the important point is that some of the participants not only recognized these characteristics very quickly, but they were also able to identify and make an appropriate educational response.

A second noticeable difference among the participants was their ability to establish rapport with the students. Like the preceding variable, this one is rather intangible. But it was very clear when I walked into some classes, that the teacher had developed a dynamic relationship with the students. That is, he or she had the students' attention, and energy was being generated such that students were making an effort to learn. It was also clear that this was something very different from merely entertaining or pampering the students. In classes where rapport had not been established , the students and the teacher both acted as though it was going to be a long semester.

The final observation had to do with whether the new teachers were using a traditional or non-traditional approach to teaching. Most of the new teachers seemed to be having better success with traditional forms of teaching (lecturing with some questions) than with less conventional forms (e.g., project method, discussion-based inquiry). There are two qualifications that should be made, though, to this general observation. First, there were a few people in the study who were trying unusual forms of teaching (e.g., simulation exercises) with considerable success. Second, in my opinion, the people who were experimenting with less traditional forms of teaching may not have done as well during their first year, but they at least had an opportunity to broaden their knowledge of alternative ways of teaching and of what it takes to make these approaches work well. One teacher, for example, tried the project approach the first semester and it did not work well. But he figured out some ways to improve it, tried it the second semester, and it worked much better. It may be that new teachers have to make a decision as to whether it is more important to do well their first year, or whether they can afford to experiment with and learn how to effectively use a variety of teaching techniques.

Variations in the Quality of Teaching

One other question that is important to ask when evaluating teachers is whether the quality of their teaching is consistent from course to course, or whether it varies to a significant extent. This is especially important to ask with beginning teachers.

Everybody in the study had at last one course evaluated but, when asked, 46 participants agreed to use the IDEA system in two or more classes. This presented an excellent opportunity to see whether the quality of teaching for this population was generally stable or highly variable.

These multiple evaluations involved either multiple sections of the same course in the same term, the same course in different terms, or different courses. Thirty-four participants used the IDEA system two times, but twelve of them used it three, four or five times.

The range of the evaluation scores for each of the 46 individual teachers is shown in Figure 5. The scores shown are the summary evaluation percentiles. Several individuals had a large range between their highest and lowest scores.

Figure 6 illustrates this same set of scores, arranged in order of increasing range for individual professors. This extends from "0" for one person to "69" for the person with the greatest range in scores.

To determine whether this is a significant amount of variation, I inserted the horizontal dashed line at the level of 22. This is equal to the amount of one standard deviation for the course evaluation scores of everyone in the study. This figure represents the standard amount of variation between teachers. As can be seen in Figure 6, 21 of the 46 teachers (46%) with multiple evaluation scores had an individual

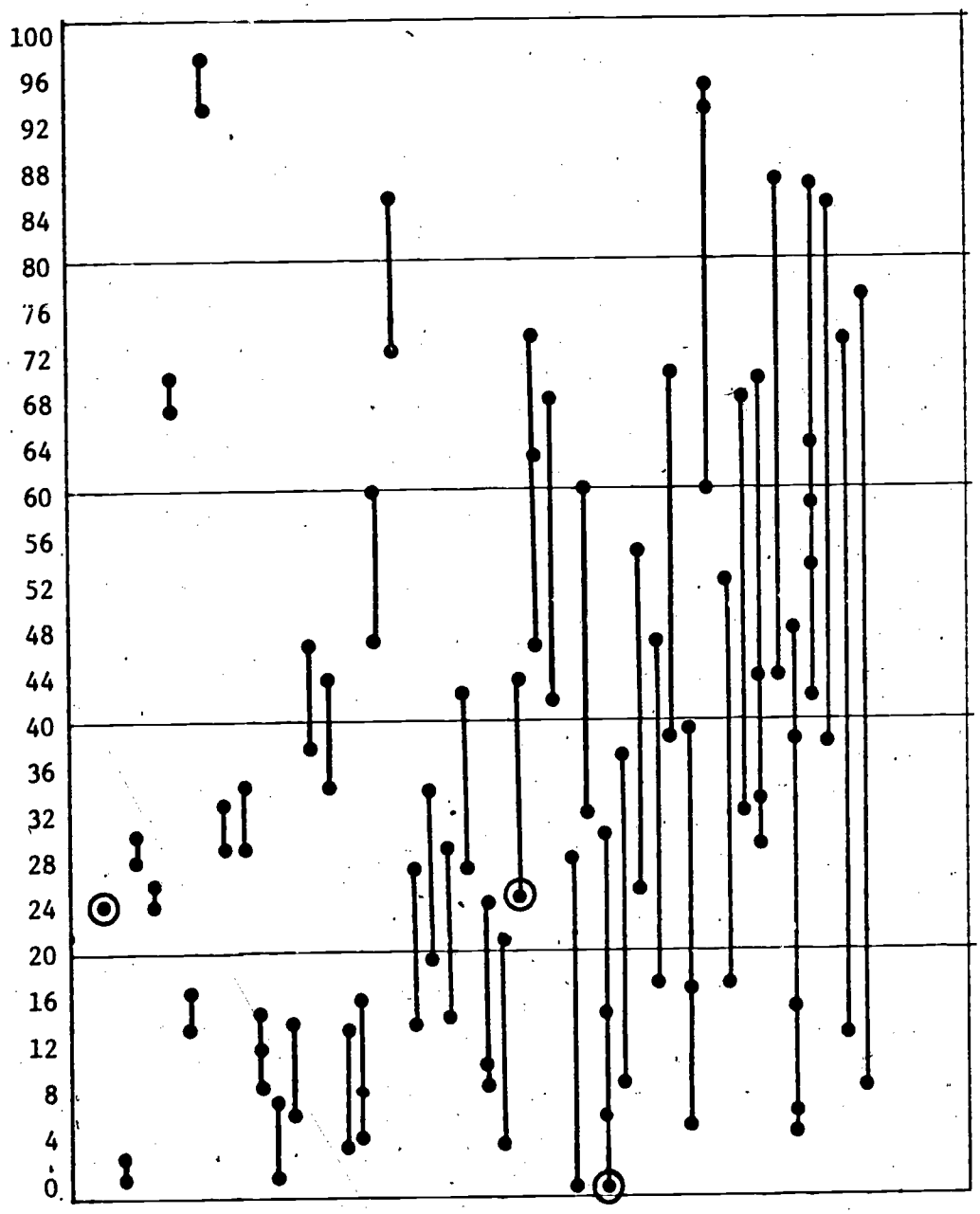
FIGURE 5

Professors with

Multiple Course Evaluation Scores

Course evaluation scores for each professor:

- highest score (e.g., 45)
- two identical scores (e.g., 34 & 34)
- lowest score (e.g., 23)



Each vertical line shows the scores for one professor.

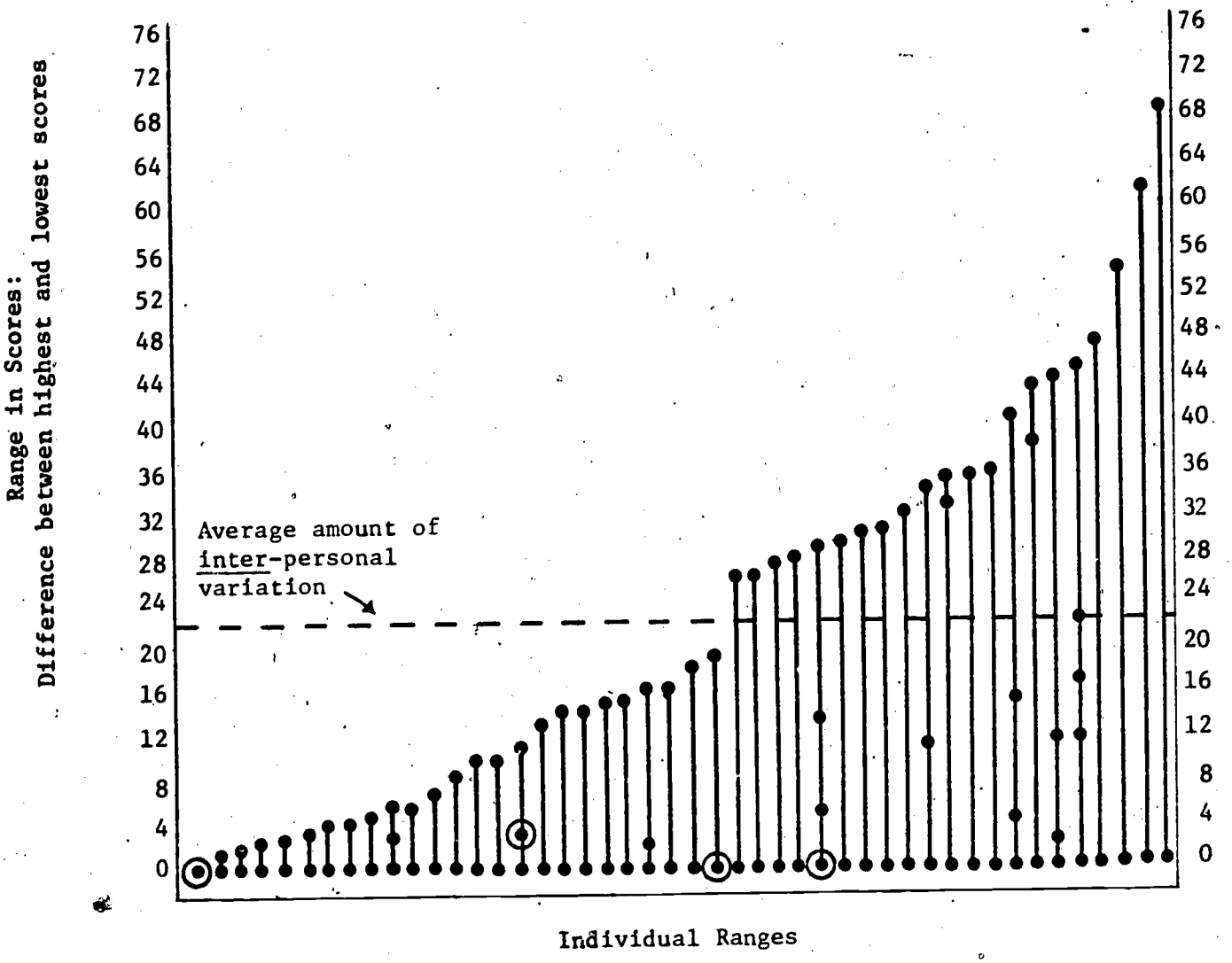
FIGURE 6

Range in

Multiple Course Evaluation Scores

Course evaluation scores for each professor:

- top of range
- two identical scores
- bottom of range



Each vertical line represents the range in scores for a professor with two or more course evaluation scores.

range of scores greater than 22. This means that nearly half of the new teachers had a variation between their highest and lowest score (intra-personal variation) that was greater than the standard deviation in the scores of all new teachers in the study (inter-personal variation).

This suggests that the course evaluation scores of beginning college teachers are highly variable. What does this mean? One explanation might be that the IDEA instrument is not reliable. I tend not to accept this explanation for two reasons. First, the instrument has been tested for reliability by its creators. For classes in which at least 25 students provided ratings, the estimated reliabilities averaged .87 with a standard error of measurement of 0.3 (Hoyt and Cashin, 1977, pp. 11-12). Second, where I had information that would predict a drop in a second course evaluation score, it occurred. One was where a person went from teaching a course for which he had a high level of familiarity and interest to teaching a course where he had very low levels of knowledge and interest. The other case was a person who, in the second term, was involved in a bad case of political turmoil in a small department. In both cases the second round of evaluation scores dropped severely. My conclusion from this is that the IDEA instrument is indeed reliable, but the phenomenon being measured -- the quality of teaching -- is not a stable phenomenon.

An effort was made to identify known factors that might systematically account for this high degree of intra-personal variation in course evaluation scores. But none of the following factors regularly accounted for this variation: familiarity with or interest in the subject matter, the time of year (fall or spring terms), or the time of day.

Hence, although these contextual factors presumably affect individual cases, something else varies from class to class that has a more significiant and regular effect on the quality of the teaching. One possibility might be the relationship

between the personality of a particular teacher and the collective "personality" of a particular set of students. Another possibility might be that beginning teachers have difficulty dealing with changing factors, known or unknown, and hence have a high degree of variation in their teaching effectiveness from course to course.

How Did They React to Their Experiences as College Teachers?

This first year as a college teacher also had a major impact on the attitudes of the new teachers toward higher education, the profession of college teaching, other college professors, and even towards themselves. Information about their reactions came from (a) their responses to an open-ended, "miscellaneous-comments" question in the mid-year questionnaire and (b) their responses to three questions on the end-of-year questionnaire.

The mid-year questionnaire, which was filled out by most respondents in January or February, contained a concluding question that asked: "Have there been any noteworthy events in your first half-year, not mentioned above, that have affected you as a teacher?" Often such open-ended questions will not elicit much response in a survey questionnaire, especially if the respondents have just finished working through a ten-page questionnaire, as they had in this case. But in this instance there was an outpouring of comments which I took to be an indication of the emotional significance of their early experiences.

These mid-year comments contained a number of themes, many of which were also made at the end of the year but not always by the same people. The following quotes, not arranged in any particular sequence, reflect the more prominent themes mentioned by the respondents at this time.

"It can get fairly lonely here at times. My contact with the other faculty has been minimal. Really, the students are the only 'socially significant others' that I have."

"I was disappointed with the outcome of last semester's evaluation results. I feel I've identified some points that needed improving--keeping in closer touch with students, etc. But I'm very disappointed in the apparent total lack of regard (and knowledge) among the students of issues (ex. environment, politics, social problems, etc.). Most of the students come from middle and upper income families in (a suburban metropolitan area) and the lack of enthusiasm and participation is surprising."

"I have split allegiance between two programs in the department which has been cause for conflict and tension with one of the program heads. This situation has reduced my enthusiasm for teaching (and for academia)."

"Took a one-year leave of absence from here to doctoral program . . . grant just sufficient to prevent absolute poverty . . .eroded savings account . . . moved back. . . bought a house . . . finished writing dissertation . . . had a son (1st child) in October . . . taught a full teaching load (20 contact hours per week) . . . in December returned to graduate school to defend, correct, print dissertation, plus 3 week consulting contract . . . . returned here for 11 graduate course lecture hours per week . . . . general exhaustion . . . . post-graduate depression and generally wondering if teaching enthusiasm is gone."

"The administration has devised a contingency plan in the case of drastic economic cutbacks. Among other things, tenured faculty can be released. It makes me wonder if I will put in my hours of study, years of economic sacrifice, and years of personal sacrifice, just to eventually wind up being released and having to earn a living in some job that requires little or no college education. I don't lose sleep over the prospect but it does make me doubt the worth of staying up until 10:30 every night writing lectures."

Then on the final questionnaire, which was completed by most people in May or June, the following question was asked:

"There seems to be significant variation in the degree to which an individual's first year of teaching provides 'psychic satisfaction', i.e., positive gut-level feelings about his/her experience as a teacher. To what degree have your experiences as a teacher this past year produced psychic satisfaction for you?"

The distribution of responses is shown in Table 46. In general, two-thirds had basically positive feelings, 1 out of 10 had negative feelings, and 2 out of 10 had very mixed feelings. Almost half of the respondents chose to make narrative comments

Table 46

Satisfaction from theFirst Year's Experience

"To what degree have your experiences as a teacher this past year produced "psychic satisfaction" for you?

Very satisfying -	21%	64%
Moderately satisfying -	43%	
No strong feelings one way or the other -	5%	24%
Very mixed feelings -	19%	
Rather unsatisfying -	8%	11%
Very unsatisfying -	3%	

amplifying their answer to this question. Most of these were made by the people who had negative or mixed feelings, but several were made by the people with positive reactions. The following themes and quotes illustrate the range of comments.

Feelings were very different in different course (mentioned 8 times)

"I had a great sense of satisfaction and a broadening of my knowledge and abilities in the seminar with a small number of highly motivated students. In the large lecture courses, it was highly rewarding to "see the lightbulbs go on", but so many of the students were just marking time and unwilling to be challenged."

"I would like to be teaching only in my field: geography. That will come in several years. I enjoy teaching anthropology and archeology. I dislike teaching sociology; I'm not a sociologist and it takes too much preparation time."

Enjoyed teaching but not other aspects of academia (mentioned 3 times)

"Very mixed feelings (overall). Towards my students and classes, I am very satisfied. However I feel this university is run like Penn Central."

"Classroom time is very satisfying. But otherwise rather unsatisfactory. It depends on whether you wish to disaggregate teaching (time in classroom, office hours, etc.) from the rest of the 'crapola' that goes on at both the department and college level."

Feelings varied greatly from day-to-day (mentioned 3 times)

"Very mixed feelings. Teaching is a real emotional see-saw. I feel I do very well one day and very poorly the next."

"Some moments are very satisfying. Others not. Overall they tend to balance, although the satisfying ones are diminishing."

Satisfaction reduced due to overload, time constraints (mentioned 7 times)

"Everything is done in such a rush that I feel incompetent much of the time. I do a good job with the time I have, but a mediocre job in absolute terms."

"I wish I had more time for preparation and a smaller teaching load. The experience might have been very satisfying."

Disappointed in experience (mentioned 8 times)

"I feel I have produced an excellent lecture series in each course and spent all my time to help students, create good tests, etc. without any emotionally

positive return. I have been insulted, cheated on and lied to by the students, and misled by my supervisors and the administrators."

"Very disappointed in my effectiveness as a teacher (as recognized by my students). I sense that questionnaire results do not reflect what is actually going on in the classes."

Sense of having improved (mentioned 4 times)

"There is always a question mark in grad school if you're getting into something you may not be satisfied with or qualified for. But after a shaky beginning, I feel I have progressed well, and the students have learned something about cultural and urban geography from taking my course."

"The first semester was a disaster in as much as I was given an extremely heavy teaching load without assistance, to students who at first underestimated my competence then couldn't keep pace with their courses. Frankly as a member of a minority group I suspect that the first semester students thought I was easy picking (missed classes, etc.). The second semester was a pleasure. I had a different set of students many of whom asked to be in my courses."

Had a satisfying experience (mentioned 10 times)

"(It is) always satisfying to teach, reach students, see a "gleam in their eyes" as they become more attuned to their environment."

"Teaching well and getting positive feedback from students, both in terms of their performance and evaluations, has been one of the most stimulating experiences of my life."

What effect did these reactions have on the participants' attitudes towards a career in college teaching? The participants' answers to this question, posed in the final questionnaire, are shown in Table 47. In essence, the first year's experiences had a positive effect for 50% of the participants, no effect for 30% and a negative effect for 20%.

Several of the respondents who answered "no effect" added comments explaining that they already knew they liked teaching as a result of prior experiences (in high schools, as a TA, or in college teaching before working on their doctorate).

There were several themes that appeared in the explanation for their reactions. The most frequent was that even though there were problems during the first year,

Table 47

Effect of First Year's Experiences

on Attitude towards a Career in College Teaching

"What effect have your experiences during the past year had on your desire to be a college teacher?"

Strongly increased	-	21%	50%
Moderately increased	-	29%	
No effect	-	29%	29%
Moderately decreased	-	14%	21%
Strongly decreased	-	7%	

people expected the situation and/or their performance to get better in the future.

"I find the idea of teaching very exciting and challenging, but the practice of teaching is often depressing! However I'm convinced that the first year is the hardest and that I will improve."

"My 'appetite has been whetted' and I am anxious to improve particular lectures with which I was not satisfied this past year."

Those whose desire to teach increased usually attributed this to their enjoyment in working with students and seeing valuable results. Conversely several people commented on the difficulties in working with some students.

"Lack of interested response from students has hurt."

"The number of mediocre and/or uncaring students at this school is depressing."

"After teaching overseas (England, Sudan-Africa, Indonesia) where students were more receptive, courteous, and anxious to learn and be challenged, I have found it harder to adjust to U. S. students than I had anticipated. Students at this institution have to be motivated to learn. Thus I have to change part of my approach."

Another frequent theme, an echo of earlier comments, was that they enjoyed teaching but not the other aspects of being a college/university professor.

"It may seem ironic that I am very satisfied with my teaching experience this past year yet still not more excited about being a teacher. My 'psychic satisfaction' with teaching is offset by my disgust with how the University of _____ is administered."

"I like teaching but don't know if I'm willing to pay the dues (low salary, exploitation by senior faculty, work on non-teaching or non-research chores, etc.) for the length of time needed to arrive at a tenure position."

Others simply found they did not enjoy teaching and were looking at other types of work.

"I found myself bored and unchallenged by teaching this semster (as trite as it sounds). As a result I have a moderate desire to get into other academic or non-academic roles."

"I do not find the role of teacher, as my primary occupation identity, satisfying. Also, the financial remuneration is far below what I can earn in other lines of work."

"Many times I felt that some, if not many students didn't seem to think about 'why' they're learning and/or 'what' they are learning. It bothered me much throughout the year and I kept wondering: why do I want to be a college teacher?"

After determining whether their first-year experiences had increased or decreased their desire to continue being a teacher, I then asked the participants what the resulting status of that desire was (see Table 48).

It is clear that, for the large majority (70%), the experience of teaching was either satisfying enough or showed promise of becoming so to warrant continued investment of time and effort into this line of work. However, despite the screening procedures of graduate school, 1 out of 6 new teachers (16%) had a moderate or strong desire to get into some other kind of work.

One set of correlations indicate that the desire to continue one's career as a college teacher is highly related to psychic satisfaction, and that in turn is related to mid-year self-evaluations (see Table 49). But all three of these are only loosely related to the results of student evaluations. The participants seemed to base their inner feelings and assessments on factors other than high course evaluations by students. This may actually be a healthy response, given the erratic nature of first-year evaluations.

What Were Their Plans for the Following Year?

What were the participants' plans for the following year? How many expected to leave college teaching after one year? For those who stayed, what changes did they plan to make? The participants' responses to these questions are shown in Table 50.

What Else Did They Accomplish?

As everyone in higher education knows (but those outside do not always know), college professors are called upon to do many things besides teach. At four-year colleges there are numerous committees to be filled; at universities there are also research and publication expectations. As noted earlier in this report, 90% of the participants in this study went to universities offering doctoral and/or masters-level degrees.

The question then arises: what scholarly work, in addition to teaching and committee work, did these new professors manage to accomplish? The answer is: quite a bit, considering what else they had to do. The list of their other scholarly accomplishments is given in Table 51.

Over half gave presentations at national professional meetings, a third finished their dissertations, a fourth had journal articles accepted for publication, and a fourth received a research grant. Forty percent listed other accomplishments: writing encyclopedia articles, chapters for an edited book, lab manuals, etc.

The size of the teaching load clearly affected the quantity of other scholarly accomplishments (see Table 52). Those with lighter teaching loads submitted more research proposals, submitted more journal articles, and made more presentations at national meetings.

Table 48

Attitudes towards Continuation of

a Career in College Teaching

"How strong is your desire at this time to continue being a college teacher, relative to other academic roles (e.g., research or administration) or to non-academic roles?"

Strong desire to continue	-	40%	70%
Moderate desire to continue	-	30%	
No strong feelings either way	-	7%	11%
Very mixed feelings	-	6%	
Moderate desire to change	-	12%	16%
Strong desire to change	-	4%	

Table 49

Correlations Between Course Evaluations and Teacher Feelings and Assessments

	Course Evaluation	Mid-year Self-evaluation	Desire to Continue	Satisfication with first year
Course evaluation	-			
Mid-year self-evaluation	0.07	-		
Desire to continue teaching	0.10	0.14	-	
Satisfaction with first year	0.12	0.20*	0.39**	-

*Significant at a level of probability <0.05.
**Significant at a level of probability <0.001.

Table 50

Participants' Plans for the Following Year

	(No. of Participants)
1. "Expect to get out of teaching altogether and into some other line of work."	11
- Is this the result of negative experiences this year?	
-Yes = 6	
-No = 5	
2. "Plan to stay in teaching but will make the following changes.	83
-Change my approach to teaching	17
-Spend less time relatively on teaching	36
-Spend more time relatively on teaching	2
-Teach more in my area of specialization	34
-Teach more outside my area of specialization	6
-Teach more upper-division courses	29
-Teach more lower-division courses	3
-Increase my teaching load	13
-Reduce my teaching load	9
-Maintain the same teaching load	44
3. "Do not expect to make any changes next year."	3

Over 10% said they in fact did plan to leave teaching. However, only half of these said they were leaving because of negative experiences during the first year. The unfortunate part is that some of these people had very good records as teachers but were leaving for other reasons. For example, the person with the highest course evaluation in the whole study was one of those planning to leave, because she was only on a one-year contract and it was not being renewed. The comments of some of the people indicated that they were leaving academia because they were highly attracted to some other kind of work, often in the government. However, even though they said they were not leaving because of negative experiences, one can assume that their experiences were not too positive or they would not have been attracted elsewhere. Of those who were going to stay in teaching, nearly everyone expected to make changes of some sort. Many expected to change the type, level or number of courses they taught. One out of six indicated in the checklist of changes and in their comments that they planned to make some changes in the <u>way</u> they taught. Presumably they saw this as an opportunity to correct the shortcomings they saw in the first year. Their comments suggested that most of these changes referred to organizational differences (e.g., more lecture, less lecture, more and different kinds of exercises) and not just content changes.

Over a third of the participants expected (or hoped) to spend less time on teaching, vis-a-vis other activities, than they had during the first year. This is somewhat understandable because they were now more familiar with the subject matter, students, etc. But it also suggests that several people were <u>not</u> going to spend much time revising courses that had been put together during the rush of a very busy first year. This may be the real problem of overloading teachers in their first year. The overload forces them to teach in a way that allows (requires) the least amount of thought and preparation. Then many of them never get around to revising the courses or learning new ways to teach because of the pressures of other duties in subsequent years.

Table 51

Other Scholarly Accomplishments of Beginning Teachers

	(No. of Participants)
Completed dissertation	- 34
Articles for scholarly journals:	
- submitted 1 or more	- 49
- had 1 or more accepted	- 22
Research grants:	
- submitted 1 or more proposals	- 39
- received 1 or more grants	- 24
Presentations at professional meetings:	
- regional	- 32
- national	- 52
Served on graduate student committee	- 33
Other: (scholarly writing, committees)	- 40

Table 52

Effect of Teaching Load on Scholarly Accomplishments

Relative Teaching Load*	Percentage of Participants who: Submitted Articles	Submitted Research Proposals	Finished Dissertations**	Made Presentations at Nat'l Meetings
Light	64%	48%	47%	68%
Average	49	42	57	63
Heavy	43	33	64	62
Very heavy	30	20	29	60

*These categories were based on the number of courses and the number of different preparations each teacher had.

**This figure is the percentage of those who had not finished their dissertations before the year started.

SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed the information generated by the study about how these people fared as new college teachers: in their own eyes, in the eyes of their students, and in the eyes of their colleagues.

The teachers' self-perceptions were of course influenced by their own values, and these values, while reflecting high expectations, were also rather conservative, as one might expect of people just coming out of the graduate school ethos. In fact, the majority of them stated that their approach to teaching was modelled after one or more of their former teachers. This conservative character was reflected in their answers to a number of value questions: they preferred the "principles-and-facts" teaching prototype, they desired the "expert" role more than any other role, and they thought that the knowledge required for teaching was similar to (rather than different from) the knowledge required to do research.

However, there was a "minority" group with a different view of college teaching. And the difference between these two groups showed itself in their respective reactions to the TLGG teaching preparation programs. Those who participated in but did not value the TLGG experience exhibited the conservative value pattern described above. Those who did value the experience were more inclined to: prefer the "student-as-mind" teaching prototype, value the role of "ego ideal" as much or more than the role of "expert", and believe that the knowledge required for teaching was different from the knowledge required for doing research.

Whatever their values were, many of the new teachers had difficulty converting them into effective action. Sometimes this was simply because they did not have the necessary abilities. In other cases it was because of constraints put on them by their new departments. Given the fact that over 55% of the participants were given teaching loads that required four to eight separate subject matter preparations during

the first year, the majority were not able to teach the way they wanted to. What most of the teachers did was resort to the traditional and relatively time-efficient mode of teaching: lectures and readings.

The tragic part of this is that, as was seen later in the chapter, many of the teachers did not plan to go back and do a more thorough job of developing their courses because of the pressure from other duties. Hence the mode of teaching that was fashioned in a time-short condition became the dominant and regular pattern for these people.

The task of making general statements about the quality of the participants' teaching is complicated, the complexity of which is seen in the structure of Table 45. The self-assessment of the new teachers themselves did not always agree with that of their colleagues which in turn did not always agree with that of the students. To the degree that general statements can be made, it seemed that the new teachers were generally able to (1) establish good relationships with their students and (2) demonstrate good knowledge of the subject matter of their courses. Conversely they had difficulty as a group in (1) stimulating students to high intellectual effort, (2) changing their teaching approach as appropriate, and (3) involving students. This latter item seemed to be related to not knowing how to lead effective discussions in class. Observations from my site visits suggested that the teachers varied considerably in their ability to "read the pedagogical situation" and in their ability to "make contact" with students.

In terms of overall, general judgements of performance, it appears that 1 out of 6 did quite well even though it was their first-year, one-half did an adequate job, and one-third had problems. This is based on student evaluation scores and on the new teachers' self-assessments.

There was a high degree of variation in the overall performance of the new teachers from course to course. Half of the participants in the study had more than

one course or section of a course evaluated with the IDEA instrument. Half of those who had the multiple evaluations received ratings that were very different from course to course or from section to section. The reason for this variation was not clear. One explanation might be that new teachers do not yet have the range of teaching abilities necessary to cope with a wide variety of teaching situations.

As one might expect, this diversity resulted in very different feelings about the first year's experience. The majority had reactions that were basically positive. But 1 out of 10 had negative feelings and 2 out of 10 had very mixed feelings. As a result, 20% had a reduced desire to continue being a college teacher, 16% had a moderate or strong desire to leave college teaching, and over 10% said they expected not to be in college teaching the next year.

Some of the people leaving had performed well as teachers but were leaving for other reasons. Of the five who said they were leaving for other reasons, two wanted to leave only temporarily and hoped to return in the future. The other three were making a career shift into planning or other research work. Although their reasons were not always clearly given, they seemed to feel they would simply be happier doing something else.

In sum, there appear to be some positive elements in this complicated picture. The majority of the new teachers did a reasonably good job or better, and some of these were taking steps to improve their teaching. But there are also elements that create concern. A third of the new teachers seemed to have significant problems, a third planned to spend less time on their teaching in the future, and a number were leaving the profession in spite of the fact that they were good teachers.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study of nearly 100 beginning college teachers is, in essence, an in-depth examination of professional entry patterns in higher education. Information was collected on the origin, distribution, preparation, situation, and performance of the study participants. This information came from the new teachers themselves, their colleagues, their students, and from site visits by the research director. The result is, to the best of the author's knowledge, the most comprehensive study of beginning college teachers ever conducted.

As comprehensive as the study is, there are two qualifications that should be noted. The first pertains to the varied roles academics fulfill. Information was gathered about all of these functions (research, teaching, service), but the primary focus was on the teaching role. The other roles were studied primarily in terms of how they affected the teaching role.

The second qualification has to do with the fact that the subjects of the study were all in a single academic discipline. The vast majority of the findings from the study do not appear to be unique to members of this discipline. There are two factors, and possibly a third, that do vary from discipline to discipline, and this study could only show the patterns in this discipline. The first factor is the high proportion of people in this discipline that accept academic positions before they finish their dissertations. In some disciplines this is rare, in others it is common. The second factor was the establishment of several teaching preparation programs in graduate departments in that discipline. This gave a sizable minority of the study participants an experience that is not at all common in graduate education. The third factor was the frequency of non-tenure tack positions offered in this particular discipline at the time of the study. The author has not been able to obtain information on the extent of

this practice nationwide. Hence it is not known whether this discipline is unique in this respect or not. However, with all three of these factors, it was possible to look at the effect of each factor by comparing the experiences and performance of those participants affected by them and of those who were not.

Summary of Data and Conclusions

The rest of this chapter will present a review of the results of the study and a series of recommendations. The summary will be organized around five topics: the origin and distribution of the participants, their preparation for college teaching, their situation in their new department, their performance as teachers, and reflections on the long-term effects of the professional patterns observed. The recommendations will be directed towards graduate departments, graduate students, beginning college teachers, and receiving departments and institutions.

Origin and Distribution

The majority of the participants in this study, as in most areas of academia, were white males, ages 26 to 35. The proportion of females, while low (12%), was higher than for the profession as a whole (9%). Half of the participants were over 30 years old, suggesting that they had taken a few years between some of their academic degrees to fulfill roles other than that of student.

Most of the participants began their formal higher education in four-year, state-supported colleges or universities. Only 7% received an associate of arts degree before their baccalaureate degree. Approximately two-thirds (63%) had majored in geography as an undergraduate. The proportion who attended private institutions remained fairly constant from the BA/BS degree (23%) to the Ph.D. (22%). However as they progressed through their various degree programs, the size of the institution got progressively

larger: median size for the BA/BS: 14,500 enrollment; for the MA/MS, 23,000; for the Ph.D., 30,000.

In this discipline, at least, there was a significant influx of doctoral students from outside the United States who went on to accept academic positions: 16%. Six of these sixteen returned to their own or other countries to teach; the others remained in this country.

The placement pattern of these people in their first post-doctoral academic appointment adhered fairly strongly to the "trickle-down" theory. Nearly everyone in this study did their doctoral work in a nationally-ranked graduate department. One person went to a higher-ranked department, and 74% went to a slightly lower-ranked department. Only 8% went to an institution without a graduate program.

While there was only a moderate amount of vertical movement downward in terms of status and prestige, there was a great deal of geographical movement. Fifty-seven percent of those who stayed in this country crossed a regional boundary; eighty-five percent crossed a state boundary. As was noted in another part of the study, this had professional and social as well as financial implications.

One characteristic of new academic positions appeared to be in transition in this discipline during the time of this study. In the first-year of the study (1976-77), 46% of the positions accepted by the participants of this study were non-tenure track positions, i.e. they were one or two-year appointments. By the second year (1977-78), this figure had increased to 63%. This introduced a large degree of tenuousness and insecurity for those who accepted such positions.

The departments making appointments to new positions claimed to be putting more relative importance on teaching qualifications than on research qualifications. This was true for all categories of institutions. When a distinction was made between tenure-track and non-tenure track positions, this relative priority still held for all

institutions except those where the department awarded doctoral degrees. In these institutions, teaching qualifications were still more important for non-tenure track positions but research was given greater priority in tenure-track positions. Other important characteristics of applicants included (a) whether the applicant had the needed subject specialization and (b) whther they were congenial and personally compatible with other members of the department.

In determining the teaching qualifications of applicants, departments placed greatest reliance on the applicant's having had experience as a teaching assistant, guest lectures, and letters of recommendation.

Preparation for College Teaching

The question of how prepared these people were for the profession of college teaching can be answered on two levels: (a) the extent of preparatory experiences and (b) the level of readiness for the activities and responsibilities of college teaching.

The answer to the first part can be given fairly easily. Nearly half (47%) of the participants had some form of teaching experience prior to entering their doctoral program: 4% in grade school, 24% in high school, and 33% at the college level. Forty-one percent had some form of non-school teaching experience (e.g., Sunday school, sailing lessons, boy scout programs). Over a third (35%) had one or more education courses. The large majority (90%) had had some experience as a teaching assistant. But only half of these had had full responsibility for a course as a TA. Several (37%) taught one or more courses at another college while in their doctoral program. A significant proportion (30%) had participated in a departmental teaching preparation program (one of the aforementioned TLGG programs).

The participants themselves rated the value of each type of preparatory experience differently. As a group, they rated all forms of teaching experience highly, whether it occurred prior to their doctoral program, as a TA, or outside the department as a graduate student. They gave low ratings to their education courses except to those with practice teaching. They gave mixed ratings to the departmental teaching preparation programs. The variation in this latter case did not seem to depend on the program as much as on the congruence between the educational values being espoused in the program and the educational values of the participant.

The question of whether these activities had in fact adequately prepared the participants for college teaching would, for a full answer, require a competency-based measure of teaching effectiveness. The state of the art of educational evaluation has not yet progressed to this point. But partial answers can be given.

At the beginning of the year the participants were asked to rate their own abilities in several areas of college teaching (e.g., lecturing, leading discussions). At the end of the year they were asked to evaluate their own initial level of development (i.e., at the beginning of the year) in several aspects of teaching (e.g., awareness of different teaching strategies) and then to indicate whether that level, whether high or low, had enhanced or hampered their performance as a teacher.

In both cases, the participants as a group rated themselves fairly high. That is, the majority (75% more) rated themselves as moderately capable or higher on every ability listed.

When a breakdown was made to see the actual effect of different types of preparatory experiences on readiness, performance, and satisfaction, most all experiences generally had a positive effect. Education courses, pre-collegiate teaching, and teaching outside the department during graduate school seemed to be especially effective.

The one major exception to this general pattern was the reaction of the participants who participated in a TLGG program and who valued that experience. These individuals "felt" less ready and gave their own performance lower marks than did the other members of the study. But their colleagues and students gave their performance relatively high marks. The program apparently had some effect on their performance but an even greater effect on raising their expectations and their sense of the possibilities of teaching.

Situational Factors

Once the participants arrived at their new institutions, they found themselves in a situation with many variables, all of which affected their professional and personal lives. Six such variables were examined in this study.

The first was determined by the participants themselves: whether or not they had completed their dissertation before accepting a teaching position. With this particular group of subjects, one-third had finished their dissertations beforehand, one-third finished it during the first year, and the other third had not yet finished it by the end of that year. There were numerous comments made throughout the study about the problems created by the time pressure of unfinished dissertations. The people who had to work on their dissertation during the year and finished it, had lower mid-year self-evaluations, lower evaluations by their chairmen, and found less satisfaction in their first year. Surprisingly, their course evaluations were somewhat higher.

The second factor was the type of position the participants accepted: tenure track or non-tenure track. As mentioned earlier, the proportion of non-tenure track positions increased dramatically from the first to the second year of the study. As a result, 55% of the participants in this study had such positions. This seemed to have a negative effect on a variety of factors. People in a non-tenure track position had

slightly lower evaluations by both colleagues and students, found less intellectual companionship with their colleagues, and found less psychic satisfaction in their first year as a teacher.

The participants also varied greatly in the teaching loads they were given. This can be described in several ways. One is class size. Thirty-seven percent of the classes taught by all the participants was large (over 35 students). Those who did have large classes often indicated that this greatly enlarged the associated work load and sometimes prevented them from teaching the way they wanted. The average class size did not vary much by type or size of institution.

What did vary was (a) the number of classroom hours per week and (b) the number of different preparations during the first year. Both were significantly larger in the 2-year and 4-year institutions than in the graduate institutions. The average number of classroom hours per week ranged from 7 hours per week in major universities to 12 hours in 2-year institutions. The average number of different preparations during the whole first year ranged from 3.6 in the major universities to 7 in the 2-year institutions. Overall, 55% of all the study participants had 4 to 8 different preparations in their first year.

An increase in the number of separate preparations during a single term had a strong, straight-line, negative effect on teaching performance as reflected in student evaluations: those with only one preparation had an average IDEA score of 44, those with four preparations had an average of 22. An excessive teaching load was also identified as the one most important factor contributing to the sense of overload that was felt by 76% of the new teachers.

The three remaining situational factors have not been described in the research literature before and were discovered during the site visits by the research director. The first of these is "identification with the institution." The participants were asked

whether the institution they were now in was similar to or different from the one they identified with most as a student. They distributed themselves fairly evenly along a four-point continuum from "very similar" to "very different." However, 62% were in institutions that were either somewhat or very different from the one they identified with as a student. The participants thought that being in an institution they did not identify with had a negative effect on both their professional satisfaction and their performance. This latter perception was supported by student, chairman, and colleague assessments of teaching performance: the lower the degree of identification with the institution, the lower were their average teaching evaluation scores.

The second new factor concerned the participants' relationships with their colleagues. All of the participants were asked to indicate whether they had found "intellectual companionship" with their colleagues, i.e. people with whom they could discuss ideas and professional concerns. One-third said yes, one-half said only to a limited extent, and one-sixth said no. Again, it was their belief that not finding such companionship was having a negative effect on their professional satisfaction and performance. And again, their perceptions were supported by student, chairman, and colleague evaluations: the less companionship they found, the lower were their average teaching evaluation scores.

The final situational factor was the participants' relationships with their students. One part of this had to do with the new teachers' perceptions of student readiness to do college work. At the beginning of the year, the majority of the participants (80%) had positive expectations in this regard. But by mid-year, 30-50% had changed their perceptions for the worse. This was especially true in the areas of: writing ability, reading ability, background knowledge, and capacity for abstract thinking. Seventy percent thought that the prevailing academic standards at their current institution were lower than their own standards; half of the teachers responded to this by lowering their own standards.

The other aspect of the teacher-student relationship was the social similarity or difference between the two groups. Each participant was asked to identify themselves and the majority of their students in terms of: economic background, urban-rural background, national origin, regional origin (if from the U.S.), religious orientation, race, and age. Every person in the study was different from their students in one or more of these seven social characteristics. These social differences seemed to present problems in communicating and relating effectively. For each of the social dimensions presented except age, teachers who were similar to their students received teaching evaluations from their students and colleagues that were higher than did those teachers who were different from their students. Furthermore, the effect was cumulative: the greater the number of similarities, the higher the teaching evaluation scores.

Their Performance as Teachers

The task of measuring and describing teaching performance is complex, as any educational evaluator knows. In this study, an effort was made to (a) identify the underlying values and purposes that guided the behavior of these teachers, (b) identify which instructional strategies and methods they employed, (c) assess their effectiveness in different aspects of teaching by using multiple evaluators, and (d) determine the amount of psychic satisfaction they received from their first-year experiences.

In their values, the participants revealed a mixture of idealism and conservatism. When asked to complete a sentence on: "The most important thing I can do for students is...," comments about "promoting general intellectual growth" were much more frequent than comments about teaching mastery of specific subject matter. These general value statements were not empty rhetoric; different statements were associated with different course objectives selected in the course evaluation process.

The conservative side of this group of teachers was shown in a number of ways. When asked to rank-order four teaching prototypes (as developed by Joseph Axelrod), more than half (52%) chose the knowledge-oriented "principles and facts" prototype as their first choice, over the instructor-centered and student oriented prototypes. When asked to indicate which of six classroom roles (as developed by Richard Mann) they desired most, they put the role of "expert" highest, over such roles as "facilitator" and "socializing agent." Finally, nearly two-thirds (63%) said they thought the kind of knowledge required for teaching was similar to (rather than different from) the kind of knowledge required for research.

One interesting difference came to light between the values of two sub-groups related to the teaching preparation programs in some departments. The difference was between (a) those who participated in but did not value their experiences in these programs and (b) those who did value it. The latter group expressed much more liberal and less conventional values, e.g., a lower ranking of the "principles-and-facts" prototype and a higher ranking of the "student-as-mind" prototype. This difference in values probably explains much of the mixed response to the teaching preparation programs by the people who participated in them.

When the new teachers tried to implement their values, they usually turned to one or more of their own prior teachers for models. Forty percent said their teaching was modelled primarly after one or two of their own teachers; another forty percent said they had borrowed ideas from several teachers. Only twenty percent said they were trying to develop an independent approach without much modelling.

The methods they used, borrowed or created, usually turned out to be dominated by lectures, textbooks and audio-visual aids. There was some but limited use of other techniques, e.g., field-based research projects, simulation games, and computer-based instruction. There appeared to be a number of constraints that prevented them from

using a greater variety of techniques: lack of familiarity with different teaching techniques, lack of familiarity with local resources, and lack of time due to heavy teaching loads.

The most complex part of the study was trying to answer the question of how well these new teachers taught, as a group. Evaluations were obtained from three sources (the teachers themselves, their colleagues, and their students) on various aspects of the teaching process. In general, the chairman and other colleagues gave the new teachers higher ratings than the teachers gave themselves. The student ratings were sometimes higher, sometimes lower, than the teachers' self-ratings. The student ratings and the self-ratings both indicated that one-sixth of the new teachers performed well above average (compared to other, experienced teachers), one-half did about average, and one-third had problems. In other words, there was a range in their performance, but the curve was negatively skewed.

In general, the new teachers received high marks on establishing good relations with the students, their knowledge of the subject, interest in self-evaluation, and making tests that evaluated students for more than memorization. On the other hand, they received low marks on stimulating students to high intellectual effort, being flexible in their teaching approach, involving students in class, and leading discussions.

The other major finding about performance was that new teachers seem to be highly variable in the quality of their performance from class to class. Forty-six participants had two or more courses (or two or more sections of the same course) evaluated by students. Of these, nearly half (46%) had a range of scores (intra-personal variation) greater than one standard deviation in the evaluation scores of all teachers in the study (inter-personal variation). This suggests, not that the instrument is unreliable, but that the phenomenon being measured--the performance of new teachers--is not a stable phenomenon.

At the end of the year, the participants were asked whether they had received "psychic satisfaction", i.e., positive gut-level feelings, from their first year as a teacher. The majority (64%) said yes; 10% said no, and 20% had very mixed feelings. Their comments noted that their feelings about their teaching varied greatly from day-to-day and depended on the course and how much they felt overloaded. The year's experiences reduced the desire of 20% to continue being a teacher, left 16% wanting to leave it, and 10% actually did plan to leave. However, half of this latter group were people who enjoyed teaching but were leaving for other reasons (non-tenure track contracts, low salaries, etc.)

One other problem noted in these comments was that only 16% said they planned to change their approach to teaching the following year because of the need to attend to other duties. This meant that the majority were going to continue using the strategies and techniques that were put together in the rush of the first year.

Finally, it should be noted that 79% were in major universities or in institutions with some graduate programs. Therefore, even though they were new teachers and many were teaching four to eight different subjects this first year, they felt the pressure to do research and publish. Many did. Apart from finishing their dissertations, 39 submitted one or more research proposals for funding (24 received one or more research grants), 49 submitted one or more articles to journals (22 had one or more articles accepted), and 52 made presentations at national professional meetings.

Long-Term Effects of Entry Patterns

Although this study was only about the first-year of beginning college teachers, the patterns observed allow one to make a few reflections about the possible long-term effects of these entry patterns. Three of these will be presented here.

The first has to do with the social and cultural mixing that occurs in higher education. In a geographical sense, there was much mixing and that would seem to be a good quality for higher education in general. The study population included several people from foreign countries and many crossed a regional boundary going from graduate school to their first academic appointment. Although this last pattern seemed to generate some communication problems in the short-run, there should be long-run value in this kind of cross-cultural contact.

But there was much less mixing among institutional types. The study population received their doctoral degrees from nationally-ranked departments in major universities. Very few began their higher education in 2-year institutions, and very few returned to such colleges or even to 4-year colleges. There was very little vertical movement on the prestige hierarchy. If this is true throughout the full range of higher education institutions, it might explain the communication problems among different types of institutions.

The second pattern with major consequences was the clear, widespread condition of overload and uncertainty experienced by the new teachers. The uncertainty was caused by the fact that 55% were given non-tenure track positions. The overload was caused by dissertations not being finished (66%) and by being given a teaching load with 4 to 8 different preparations in the first year (55%). If one makes the not unreasonable assumption that it takes twice as much time to prepare for and teach a new course as it does a regular course, these beginning teachers were being given the teaching load equivalent of 8 to 16 courses -- on top of other duties and expectations!

Given this kind of teaching load, few had time to develop an understanding of the process of college teaching by taking a seminar on the subject or observing the classes of excellent teachers. Nor were they able to lay the foundations for future teaching by experimenting with different strategies and techniques. More importantly, this did not

seem to be a temporary problem that would change after the first year. Only 2% thought they would be able to spend more time on teaching the following year; only 9% expected a lower teaching load the following year and only 17% said they would be changing their approach to teaching.

However, despite these and other problems, it also became clear that a large majority of the new teachers enjoyed the profession of college teaching. Comments in the questionnnaires and interviews during the site visits convinced the research director that, with but few exceptions, these were people who had come to enjoy learning themselves, and genuinely wanted to help others learn. The teachers' second most desired role was that of being an "ego ideal" for students. This desire and the hoped-for results of teaching were both a source of frustration and a mainstay. The teachers were deeply frustrated whenever they failed to motivate students or did not "see the lights come on." But the desire for such results kept them going despite bad days in the classroom and such things as political battles in the department.

It would seem to the author that this enjoyment of teaching, or psychic satisfaction as it was called in the study, may be the most precious asset higher education has, at least with respect to fulfilling its teaching function.

Recommendations

At the end of what was often a tumultuous first year, the participants were asked what recommendations they would make for all concerned in order to help beginning college teachers. This seemed like an opportune time to ask this question because their experiences were still fresh in their minds and, by the end of the year, they had something at least a little closer to 20-20% hindsight.

Their recommendations plus a few by the author based on the findings in the study are presented below for the four parties involved: graduate departments, graduate students, beginning college teachers, and receiving departments and institutions.

For Graduate Departments:

The participants were given the following question to respond to: what one thing could your graduate department have done differently that would have helped you most as a teacher this year? Almost everyone (95%) responded to this question. The suggestions they made are listed below with the number of times it was mentioned in parentheses.

No recommendations; "ok as it was" (18)

Recommend:

More and better teaching experience (30)

Develop my ideas about college teaching (25)

Provide more feedback on my teaching (9)

Miscellaneous (7)

A few comments can be made about each of these.

No recommendations. These people did not usually elaborate to indicate whether (a) they did not feel the need for any help or (b) their department had done a lot to help them. Half of them had participated in departmental teaching preparation programs.

More and better teaching experience. In some cases, this meant having some teaching experience at all, rather than none. In most cases, the "more" called for the opportunity to be a teaching assistant in different courses with different subject matters, rather than TA the same course each year. The "better" usually referred to being given greater or even full responsibility for a course. As one person commented: there is a big difference between running a lab section and doing everything involved in developing a course.

Typical comments on this topic included the following:

"Require me to do some teaching before I took a job as a teacher."

"Let me TA different courses, rather than the same ones over and over."

Too much grad student time is spent carrying slide projectors and collating exams."

"Let me actually teach a course or two, i.e., full responsibility with consultation."

Develop my ideas about teaching. It was refreshing to see such a large proportion say they wished they could have developed their ideas about teaching. Several types of suggestions were made: offer seminars on college teaching, hold discussions with outstanding teachers, view videotypes of themselves and/or excellent teachers, and give lessons on how to handle different types of students. Others referred to information on the "nuts and bolts" of teaching: textbook selection, teaching tricks, and useful exercises.

"Any kind of organized discussion, seminar on teaching."

"Provided video-tape sessions, and analysis of techniques used by effective teachers."

"An analysis of teaching methods and materials. I had lots of experience, but spent a lot of time making mistakes."

"Spent more time helping develop ideas concerning exam development and course design."

"Offered a course in methods of teaching geography. There are hundreds of exciting experiments, demonstrations, projects, A-V methods, map exercises, air photo and field things I would have loved to know about."

Provide more feedback on my teaching. It is one thing to have teaching experience; it is another to learn as much as possible from this experience. A number of the participants recognized the value of specific feedback on their own teaching. This could come from (in addition to students) either a TA supervisor and/or a qualified, outside evaluator. This might be the result of classroom observations or the viewing of videotapes. But the key point is that the feedback must consist of something more detailed than "not bad" or "well done."

"I had the opportunity to try my hand at teaching -- but I got no feedback."

"More 'teaching' discussions between TA's and instructor."

"Have an expert on teaching methods sit in on a class and evaluate my performances."

"Teaching experience within the department with taping, discussion and feedback."

In essence, these suggestions support the model of an ideal teaching preparation program presented earlier (Fig. 2 in Chap. 2). All eight of the activities listed there were recommended by the new teachers as well as the four associated functions: providing experience, providing feedback, providing models, and developing one's conceptualization of the act of teaching.

Issues and opportunities. Any graduate departments inclined to respond to these suggestions face a number of issues and opportunities, a few of which will be discussed here.

The first is whether to view available teaching assistantships only as (a) an inexpensive way of meeting heavy departmental teaching loads and providing financial support for promising graduate students, or (b) to also view them as a means of

developing the teaching capabilities of graduate students. Taking the latter view presumably would not only help the graduate students in the future but could improve the quality of their teaching as TA's. The fact that first-year teachers who had received feedback on their teaching as graduate students did better as teachers than those who did not supports this belief.

But there are also a number of costs involved. It means trying to coordinate the assistantships so that each person gets experience in teaching different subjects and gradually receives increased responsibility. It means having someone take the time to observe TA's and give them detailed feedback. And it means having a TA supervisor hold regular sessions on topics more general than "what do we do Monday morning?"

A second issue is whether or not to establish a departmental teaching preparation program. Presuming that this would involve a seminar and other related activities, it would be the most obvious way to respond to the recommendations for readings on college teaching, observations and analysis of excellent teaching, knowledge about the "nuts and bolts," the chance to develop course plans and materials in a non-pressurized situation, etc. The need for such a program seems clear and first-year teachers felt a need for better ideas about teaching afterwards. But graduate students themselves do not always feel a need for it at the time. Not everyone in this study who participated in such programs seemed to teach better as a result; it was mainly the ones who both participated and valued the experience that seemed to benefit from it. The non-"valuers" seemed to have a set of ideas about teaching that prevented them from taking advantage of these programs.

If there is a desire to establish such a program, it sems advisable therefore to make it voluntary rather than obligatory. Comments abut these programs also suggest that the director of the program needs to be someone who can gain the respect of the participants by raising and dealing with fundamental issues and felt needs rather than

superficial problems. The program should not be "farmed out" to the Education Department unless the program there is unusually good. Most of the people who took education courses did not find them very helpful.

A third opportunity is to offer a seminar or set of discussions on the problems and practices of the academic profession. There was a large amount of surprise, not always pleasant, to many aspects of being a full-fledged faculty member in an academic department. Many of the participants' "miscellaneous" comments referred to items that could be covered in such a seminar or set of discussions.

> "Assisted me more effectively in the job search so it could have been less stressful."
>
> "Made it clear that good teaching would ultimately be rewarded (tenure). Good teaching is now a necessary but insufficient trait for tenure."
>
> "Tell me how to cope with stagnant faculty members."
>
> "Discuss politics and personalities... that has been the biggest thing."

A fourth opportunity is the teaching of courses off-campus by graduate students. This is not available to everyone everywhere. But those people in this study who were able to avail themselves of such opportunities had one of the highest sub-group teaching scores in the study. Where such opportunities do exist, graduate students should be encouraged to take advantage of them.

A final consideration for graduate departments is the value of the activities described above. In addition to the possibility of improved teaching by teaching assistants, these activities could be used to document the ability and development of graduate students as teachers. In an era of stiff competition for academic positions, these would seem to be a competitive advantage in being able to offer such documentation. This could consist of a record of courses assisted in, of seminars on college teaching, of course materials developed, of courses taught with full

responsibility, of student evaluations (and changes therein over time), etc. A graduate student going for an interview armed with such documentation should be in a good competitive position.

For Graduate Students:

The message to graduate students was the flip-side of the recommendations for graduate departments: make better use of whatever opportunities you have to learn about teaching. Stated more fully, the advice is: if you plan to enter the academic profession, you should realize that you will be doing a lot of teaching (more, probably, than the professors in your own doctoral department). Therefore it will probably increase your own sense of effectiveness and satisfaction if you learn as much as you can about teaching beforehand, and that means taking advantage of opportunities to learn about college teaching as a graduate student.

The participants were asked a series of open-ended questions about things they might have done differently as a graduate student that would have helped them as first-year teachers: missed opportunities and things they should have been aware of. They were also asked for the one most important recommendation they would make.

Missed opportunities. Comments here included the following themes (numbers indicate number of times mentioned).

Not aware of any opportunity missed (9)
No special opportunities available (3)

Recommended:

Get more and better teacher experience (18)
Be more observant of and talk with good teachers (10)
Learn more about college teaching (via seminars, readings, consultations, etc.) (9)
Get more diversified coursework in discipline (7)

These are illustrated by the following quotes.

"None that I d dn't participate in."

"A teaching assistantship, as opposed to a research assistantship, would have provided more opportunity to gain teaching experience."

"Directed observation of good teachers, discussion of their methods."

"Might have been more involved in seminar on college teaching. They were offered but I didn't have the time or inclination to get involved with a 3-hour course on this topic."

"Taken a broader spectrum of courses."

Things I should have been aware of. Comments here were fewer in number and did not cluster around common themes. The ones that were made referred to both self-knowledge and knowledge about teaching in general.

"I tend to deliver boring lectures. I need help from Johnny Carson."

"The amount of preparation time needed for an entire course is far more than you would believe as a TA."

"The real teaching world isn't your graduate seminars at 'olde mother U.'"

"I have discovered to my surprise that students from different regions of the U.S. act and interact differently with their teachers. I can speak from my experience only, but students in (my former state) tend to be more inquisitive and appreciative of innovations while those in (this region) tend to be less curious and interested in answers that are functional."

This last comment was supported by data in the study on the effects of social and regional differences between teachers and students.

Most important recommendation. Almost everyone in the study responded to this question. The comments repeated some of the previous themes, only more emphatically, but also added a few others. Fifty percent of the participants recommended getting more and better teaching experience. Twenty-five percent recommended some direct or indirect action to learn about teaching.

Get more and better teaching experience (48)
Learn more about teaching (24)

Find out if teaching is for you (11)
Finish dissertation beforehand (5)
Miscellaneous (13)

Illustrative quotes include the following.

"If at all humanly possible, teach an entire course or at least 'guest lecture' for someone. Discussions/labs are not the same as lectures."

"Insist on some sort of observation of outstanding/innovative teachers (not necessarily from the same discipline), followed by discussions and analysis."

"Undertake a professional course of teacher preparation.

"Try and get some experience first to see if you really like it."

"Finish your dissertation before starting to teach."

For Beginning College Teachers:

Recommendations for this group came from two sources: the findings of the study and the suggestions of people who had just finished their first year. The study identified numerous factors that influence the performance and the amount of satisfaction that new teachers derive from the profession. These will be translated into questions that a beginning teacher should ask themselves when applying for academic positions and when interviewing for them. The comments of the study participants will be presented as recommendations for new teachers as they begin to teach.

Questions to ask when applying and interviewing. The following list of questions are all based on factors that significantly affect the amount of satisfaction one gains from college teaching. Even when a person does not have several places to choose from, these represent factors that one should be aware of and to which one may have to adjust. One respondent underscored the importance this whole process when he commented: "Choose your place of employment wisely. Decide first whether you wish to teach or teach and do research. (His emphases) They are quite different."

Applying

What combination of research and teaching do I want?

Am I willing to start teaching before my dissertation is finished?

Am I open to non-tenure track positions?

How can I document the range and quality of my teaching experiences?

How can I document my effort to learn about teaching?

Interviewing

Institutional information:

Is this institution unique in any way?

Is it similar to or different from the one I identified with most as a student?

Does the institution reward high quality teaching? How?

What resources are avaliable to support teaching?

Department/colleague information:

What kind of person or teacher do they really want?

Are they planning to give me an unreasonably heavy teaching load initially?

Are the people in the department people I can relate to?

Are they willing and able to give me the support I want and need as a new teacher?

Are the prevailing academic standards ones I feel comfortable with?

Student information:

How prepared are they for college-level work?

In what ways are they similar to or different from me socially?

Are these differences ones that I can adjust to?

Recommendations for starting college teachers. The participants had a number of suggestions for people once they had accepted a position. In addition to the already mentioned ideas of finishing the dissertation and obtaining information about the pedagogical situation beforehand, their comments focussed on the following six themes.

1. Prepare as much as possible ahead of time

"Be as prepared as possible, with course outlines, lectures, teaching aids, etc. ready to go before you begin to teach."

"Be as prepared as possible - get ahead so that you are not always a week or less ahead."

2. Plan to work long and hard as a teacher

"Get well rested the summer before because you are going to work harder that first year than you ever have in your life."

"Be prepared for a great amount of work. Teaching effectively is a most difficult and time consuming task."

3. Be flexible

"Be flexible but firm."

"Prepare well beforehand so you can be flexible in your approach."

4. Get to know your students

"Stay in touch with the students. Always listen to them and watch their reactions. They are better critics than we usually admit."

"Do not overlook, if teaching introductory level courses, the great gulf there may be between your taken-for-granted 'general knowledge' and the restricted lifeworld/experiences of the ex-high school kids you're going to teach."

5. Realize you will make mistakes

"In your anxiousness to excell, do not overdo things. Know that you will blow it sometimes and get depressed. Humor and self-confidence are absolutely essential."

"Try to relax and to avoid letting anxiety get out of control. Expect that many things will not go as planned, and then just roll with the punches and adapt."

6. Learn about yourself as a teacher and about teaching.

"Get the experience and evaluate it."

"Try to sit in on other teachers' classes."

For Receiving Institutions and Departments:

The departments and institutions that accept new academics on their faculty play an important role, perhaps the most important role, in the professional

When selecting new faculty members, consideration should be given to their personal and social compatibility with the institution, other faculty members, and the students. The data from this study suggests that outstanding individuals in the wrong place will probably not perform outstandingly. Whenever these relationships were not positive, the new teachers' satisfaction and the evaluations of their performance were lower. Such compatibility is not always easy to determine. But to the degree that it is possible, this factor should be given serious attention.

Assigning teaching loads. When the teaching load of beginning college teachers is being considered, thought should be given to three variables: the size of the classes, the type classes, and the number of classes. The new teachers had difficulty with large classes, lower division courses, and too many courses. Even after the allowance made by the IDEA data base for class size, the new teachers still had lower course evaluations in large classes. At the end of the year, 40% said they would have been more effective if they could have taught more upper division courses in their area of specialization. An argument can be made that people just out of graduate school will teach more effectively in upper division or graduate courses with small numbers of motivated students on topics where up-to-dateness of information is of special value. Conversely, more experienced teachers may be able to do a better job with lower division courses because they have had time to understand the students better and synthesize broad areas of knowledge better.

But the big problem seems to be the large number of courses given new teachers: 4 to 8 different preparations in one year for 55% of the teachers in this study. If institutions of higher education want these people to teach effectively and to develop as a teacher, this is certainly not the way to do it. When asked what one thing the participants' current department or institution could do to help them most, the second most frequently mentioned item was: reduce my teaching load.

"Given me a smaller load to begin with, knowing that all my materials have to be prepared afresh, and that I need more preparation time."

"Decreased the diversity of courses I was expected to teach. I'm not Superman although I was expected to be!"

"Change (my) teaching load--I got bored with 4 sections of the same course."

A more reasonable approach would be to assign only one or two courses per term during the first year and not more than three different preparations for the year. Assuming that one new course has a work-load equivalent of two regular courses, this makes for a more tolerable load. It might also allow the person time to explore different methods of teaching or do other things to develop their capabilities as a teacher.

Offering Support. Although teaching preparation programs can be offered by graduate departments or institutions, developmental programs can be offered by the receiving institutions. The motivation to take part might be higher at this time, especially if participation were coordinated with a lighter teaching load. Nine people, on the mid-year questionnaire, said they had taken advantage of programs on college teaching at their new institution, and spoke positively about its value. (Two of these were in countries other than the United States.) At the end of the year, all the participants were asked whether they would have opted to attend a well-run discussion seminar on college teaching if their teaching loads were light enough. The results: 35% said definitely or probably yes, 13% said difinitely or probably not, and 5% said maybe. Nearly half did not answer the question; this might mean the non-respondents were uninterested or that their teaching load made the question too hypothetical. However, even a 35% participation rate would probably be sufficient to support such a program at most institutions.

When the participants were asked for their single most important recommendation for receiving institutions, one frequently mentioned category (14%)

was more institutional support for teaching. This included audio-visual aids, better classrooms, more flexibility in scheduling, and genuine support for quality teaching.

Another critical source of support was at the department and colleague level. When asked whether they would have appreciated more assistance from their fellow faculty members, 62% said yes ("very much" = 22%; "somewhat" = 40%) and 38% said no. When they were given a list and asked to check the types of additional assistance they desired, the following items all received checks from 25% or more of the respondents:

- Explained the availability of local resources for the support of teaching (e.g., AV center, teaching grants).
- Discussed the problems involved in teaching particular courses or in teaching at this institition.
- Discussed general problems involved in teaching.
- Invited me to their classes to observe, learn, and critique them.
- Offered to visit my classes to observe and make suggestions.
- Carefully explained the criteria used in salary and personnel decisions.
- Invited me to social events.

When the participants were asked to make their most important recommendation in their own words, only a few (12%) had no suggestions. The others echoed the themes discussed above for the most part: inform me better at the start of the year (19 mentions), reduce my teaching load (17 mentions), improve institutional support for teaching (13 mentions), and give me more feedback on my teaching (7 mentions). There were several "miscellaneous" comments (13) that reflected individual concerns, e.g., "pay me more," "make this a tenure-track position," and "get rid of the deadwood in this department."

In sum, there are a number of things institutions, departments and individual colleagues could do to provide better support for new college teachers but don't, presumably either because they do not realize the need or are not sure the assistance is really desired.

Epilogue: Effect on the Participants of Being in this Study

After having completed a very extensive study that involved course evaluations, questionnaires to colleagues, site visits for some, and four long questionnaires at different times, the participants were asked to reflect for a moment on the question of whether all this had effected them as beginning college teachers. Their responses are presented below in relation to the course evaluations, the site visits, and the questionnaires. (Since questionnaires completed by the colleagues were returned directly to the research director, the participants did not see them and hence were not likely to know what impact they might have had.)

Course Evaluations

Everyone in the study had at least one course and some more than one course evaluated by the IDEA instrument developed at Kansas State University. About half the people (45%) made comments indicating the evaluation print-out had been informative and helpful to them. Most of the others made no comment or said it had had no effect. Only a few (10%) made negative remarks. The problems mentioned here were (a) the results were different from other feedback the person had, (b) the results were depressing, (c) the students did not like the questionnaires, and (d) it was awkward and time consuming to give both the IDEA evaluation and their university evaluation.

"Useful, as it pointed out areas clearly to me that I had been handling either adequately or inadequately."

"Terrific. I really enjoyed reading the results even if they were somewhat critical. The results pointed out some things I was weak in and could improve."

"Results were very discouraging because (other) feedback was far better than the survey indicated."

Site Visits

As research director, I visited 30 individuals at their institutions for one-day visits that included interviews and, for most, classroom observations. The interviews were aimed at obtaining an historical review of their development as teachers and a description of their current situation. At the time, I had the feeling that the visits were slightly "therapeutic." That is, the participants were usually very interested in my evaluation of their teaching, in knowing how they compared to other teachers in the study, what problems other people were having, and in my views on any particular problems they were having. They also seemed to enjoy telling me the story of their development as teachers.

Part of the reason for this is that I was an observer from outside the department and therefore unthreatening. I was also informed about other new teachers and obviously cared.

The comments of the participants about the visits tended to support these impressions. Two thirds said the visits gave them insights about themselves and their situations. Several of these said this was the only time they had gotten personal feedback on their teaching or had had a chance to express their thoughts and feelings about teaching. The other third said they enjoyed the visits but did not feel it had affected them beyond that.

"This forced me to express to myself the problems and satisfactions of teaching here; helped put things in perspective a bit -- a very useful experience."

"Enjoyed this (the site visit) the most. (The research director) is a stimulating person and asked some questions I'm still trying to answer for myself."

"A great effect, not in day-to-day performance but in planning for next year. This was the only discussion relating to teaching that I had all year."

"No effect on my teaching but I did enjoy the visit."

The Questionnaires

The questionnaires had an effect similar to that of the site visits only in less personal terms. That is, they forced the participants to think through questions about themselves and their situations, and they often found this productive. Half the participants made statements indicating the questionnaires had "raised their consciousness" in some way or forced them to review important points. A few complained about the time required to fill them out (7%) or about the impossibility of learning things from surveys like this (7%). The others either made no comment or said that filling out the questionnaires had no effect on them.

"Definitely am more conscious of teaching and my performance in the classroom. Therefore (I) probably spent more time thinking about teaching than would have otherwise."

"Stimulated me to think more about factors important in trying to improve as a teacher."

"Made me aware of the vast differences in goals and approaches of college teachers, and some of the values and ideas that exist, i.e., they increased my consciousness of myself as a teacher."

"It made me think about how I feel about teaching. I'm surprised at how negative this is turning out."

"Took more time than claimed and many of the questions were not easy to answer."

"Generated a high level of hostility and anger toward people that make obnoxious questionnaires about teaching."

Although the few negative comments (like the last one above) made me uneasy, most of the respondents said that being in the study had been of real value to them. This was certainly satisfying for me as the research director, but it was a result that was not totally surprising. My conclusion from the study was that the large majority of beginning college teachers really are "trying to teach," i.e., they are people who have come to enjoy learning themselves, and they sincerely want to help others learn and come to enjoy learning also. Their reactions during the site visits and their comments here have also convinced me that they are ready (even eager at times) to learn about college teaching when approached in the right way.

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