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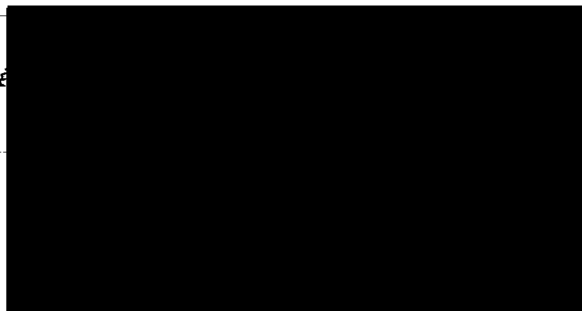

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WORKSHOP LIFE

by

Tom Morton

B.A., The University of British Columbia, 1969

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF

THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

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in the Faculty

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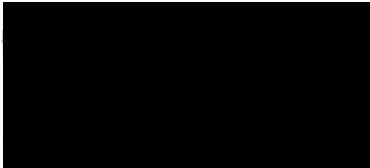

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to evaluate the Self-Directing Professional, a one-day workshop designed to teach teachers to develop and implement their own in-service programs. The evaluation is formative, intended for program improvement. A second purpose is to determine, through the literature and this study, the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of workshops. Although most teacher in-service education is done through workshops, they comprise a largely unexamined practice.

A review of the literature on implementing innovations like self-directed in-service development establishes the importance of workshops, but as only one of several implementation factors such as the participation of teachers in planning and a supportive school climate. A second review establishes the essential features of a workshop; among these are respect for the participants' experiences, focus on practical application, and a problem-solving orientation. The reviews also set standards for evaluation.

The formative evaluation of the Self-Directing Professional proceeds through four stages: description of the intended program, description of the observed reality, explication of the standards of judgement, and assessment of the observed reality in comparison with those standards. The research methodology is ethnographic. Three schools were studied. Data about them was derived from participant observation, observation instruments, interviews, and questionnaires. In all, this involved 40 hours of observation, 25 interviews, and three different questionnaires.

The findings are presented at three levels: description, a report on observations; evaluation, a comparison of the Self-Directing Professional with the standards of judgement; and elucidation, analysis of the findings for general principles about workshops and innovative change.

At the descriptive level: the staff of one school rejected the program because of a high amount of control by the workshop presentor. At another location, the school climate of conflict negatively influenced the workshop and its effect. At the third school, where presentation encouraged the involvement of teachers and where there were few staff tensions, the program was well received. In the chapter on evaluation, a number of areas for improvement are identified, including the relationship of goals to the time available and consideration of the institutional setting.

At the elucidatory level, three major domains are identified as important features of the workshops. The first is the process of planned change. The emphasis on individual responsibility for change explains many of the characteristics of the Self-Directing Professional. A second aspect that is analysed is the use of charismatic influence techniques. The research findings point to the importance of participation and trust before charisma can be effective. Third, the implementation of the workshop content is seen as a process of "program mediation." The facilitator, among others, translates or mediates the program for teachers in order to gain the acceptance of it. However, the results of this study point to the danger that attempts to

modify the program to gain acceptance may mean the neglect of the very elements that are essential to its success.

To my parents

I'd like to acknowledge the assistance of my advisory committee: Dr. Wyatt for her help with the methodology, Dr. Wideen for his input on in-service education and evaluation, and Dr. Gibbons for his push for excellence. Dr. Phil Runkel and Dale Kelley also gave me support and suggestions that helped me crawl to completion. Above all, I wish to acknowledge the cooperation of the workshop leaders and school staffs.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Approval....................ii

Abstract....................iii

Dedication....................vi

Acknowledgements....................vii

Table of Contents....................viii

List of Tables....................x

List of Figures....................xi

1. Introduction....................1

2. Literature Review on Implementation....................3

3. Literature Review on Workshops....................25

4. Methodology....................73

5. Life Before Workshops....................94

6. Workshop Life....................110

7. Life After Workshops....................136

8. Evaluation....................142

9. Themes....................156

10. Conclusion....................174

Appendices:

A. Description of the Self-Directing Professional......180

B. Interview Schedule....................183

C. Influence Styles Tally Sheet....................185

D. Pre-Workshop Questionnaire........................186
E. Post-Workshop Evaluation Form.....................188
F. Final Questionnaire...............................189
G. Site Agreement....................................193

Bibliography...194

LIST OF TABLES

6:1 Results of Post-Workshop Evaluation Forms....................................122

6:2 Frequency of Use of Influence Styles....................................127

6:3 Timing....................................130

7:1 Responses to Questionnaire on Impact....................................137

LIST OF FIGURES

2.1 Concerns-Based Adoption Model....................................13

2.2 Characteristics of an Effective Implementation Process....................24

3.1 The Experiential Learning Cycle....................................37

3.2 Characteristics of an Effective Workshop Design....................55

3.3 Facilitator Roles....................................62

3.4 A Model of Facilitator Style....................................64

3.5 Influence Styles....................................68

4.1 The Countenance Model of Evaluation....................................74

4.2 Domain of "Problem in Goal Planning"....................................84

4.3 Relationship of Kinds of Observation to Observation Time....................86

5.1 Stages in Pre-Workshop Communication....................................101

9.1 Comparison of the Self-Directing Professional with the Model of Planned Change.....160

9.2 Program Mediation....................................169

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The workshop was introduced into teacher in-service education at the University of Ohio in 1936. It was soon hailed as a breakthrough, spread rapidly, and changed considerably. Today in British Columbia, according to Flanders (1980), professional development is equated with workshops. In implementing new educational programs, workshop events are given more attention by both planners and teachers than any other event (Hall, Zigarmi, and Hord, 1978).

Thirty-five years after their introduction, workshops are widely used, but also widely criticized for being ineffective. Flanders (1980) has compared the system of administering workshops by the British Columbia Teachers' Federation to a show-business booking agent problem: "will workshop X 'play' in District A?" (p.A-9). The system is expensive and massive, but is not valued by teachers.

Despite the frequency of use and criticism, there has been little study of the workshop in teacher in-service and its effects. Wideen (1981) and Smith and Keith (1971) suggest that comments on in-service are largely based on opinion, not on research.

In addition, the thinking on what constitutes a workshop is considerably muddled. The workshop has become the term for almost any event on a " pro'd'" day, events

far removed from either the original six week problem-solving workshops of 1936 or other versions of prominent practitioners today.

The first task of the thesis then is to clarify thinking on the workshop. A literature review establishes what an in-service workshop is, historically and structurally, and what it should be, according to researchers and practitioners. The workshop is also discussed in a second review as part of a program implementation process.

Second, the thesis studies the life of a particular workshop, that of the _Self-Directing Professional_ (SDP), and its effects. The SDP is an innovative program designed to teach teachers to develop their own in-service plans. The innovation's main tactic for implementation is the workshop.

Third, the findings are evaluated by comparison to standards laid out in the literature reviews in order to feedback information for improvement to the program originators.

Fourth, the results are analyzed for "cultural themes"; all events contain themes, assumptions or principles about behaviour that recur throughout the event and that serve to explain what goes on. The thesis will explore several of these in the _Self-Directing Professional_.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW ON IMPLEMENTATION

Any workshop exists inside a context. In this study an important part of that context is the implementation of an innovative program.* This first of two reviews is on implementation: putting an innovation into practice. The following chapter reviews the literature on the workshop.

The intention is to search for relevant and significant factors in an overall implementation design and how in-service relates to those factors. In doing this, the review describes what is important to observe in implementation and sets standards for judging the effectiveness of the Self-Directing Professional.

The first sections of the chapter give an outline of perspectives on innovation and implementation over the last two decades, and how in-service workshops are part of recent thinking. The review then focuses on other program and institutional factors necessary for successful program implementation.

---

* Innovation will be defined here as the Rand Report did (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975): a plan with a statement of goals and means designed to change standard behaviour, practice, or procedures.

Changing Perspectives

In 1970 Goodlad and Klien published their study of educational innovations in the United States, Behind the Classroom Door. Disappointingly, their researchers found little evidence of these innovations being in practice. Despite the much publicized and highly recommended reforms of the late 1950's and the 1960's, the authors' general impression was that these were dimly conceived and, at best, only partly implemented (pp. 72, 73).

Innovative projects of the late 1950's were organized around central development teams. Their work was intuitively based. By the mid 1960's they were replaced by a more technical approach to innovative change (House, 1979).

Prominent in this technical perspective was Rogers, a rural sociologist who had studied the adoption of new agricultural practices by farmers. Rogers analyzed the "adoption process" of educational innovations into five stages: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption. He classified adopters as innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. House (1979) comments on the obvious value system in the labelling. Innovation was tied to progress and the good life that technology brings.

Another dominant conceptualization of innovation was the model of Clark and Guba, the Classification

<u>Schema of Processes Related to and Necessary for Change in Education</u>. It divided the change process into research, development, diffusion, and adoption.

According to Havelock (1971), the technical approach, or Research, Development, and Diffusion model, is guided by five assumptions: a rational linear sequence of change, massive planning, a division of labour, high development costs, and a passive consumer at the end of the sequence. The focus is on the users' adoption of the specific change rather than adaptive learning by the users which would help them solve problems in the future (Lippitt <u>et al</u>., 1978).

In practice, the change process was different than the one described by the Research, Development, and Diffusion model. Implementation of innovations contained unanticipated and unintended complexities. According to Smith and Keith writing in 1971, "investigators and theorists have not focused hard enough, long enough, nor carefully enough on the small and mundane as well as the large and important issues and problems necessary for idealistic practitioners to carry out their dreams" (p.vi).

From the negative criticism and failures came quantitative change - an explosion of literature - and

a qualitative shift towards much more complex conceptualizations of implementation than had been previously conceived.

Change models such as those of Organizational Development (Schmuck et al., 1972, 1977) and Planned Change (Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley, 1958, and Lippitt et al., 1978) and the recent research of Berman and McLaughlin (1975) and Fullan (1979) are more sensitive to the complexities, especially the institutional environment in which change is to occur. They allow for the adaption of the program to that environment rather than top down adoption.

Although the technical perspective is still common, it is the perspective of adaption that will be consider further in this chapter.

The Position of In-Service Workshops

Where does the in-service workshop fit in this perspective of adaptation? In Fullan's review of recent research (Fullan, 1979, also in Wideen, Hopkins and Pye, 1979), he identifies nine factors relating to implementation:

1. Pre-history - whether teachers have had positive or negative experiences with previous implementation efforts;

2. Distinction between content and role change - implementation involves both and there has been in the past a preoccupation with content;

3. Clarity of goals and means - not necessarily prespecified objectives, but ongoing development;

4. In-service training linked to implementation problems;

5. Regular meetings;

6. Local materials adaption and availability;

7. Overload of changes expected to be implemented;

8. Administrative support on a resource level and a psychological level;

9. Time-line for implementation.

Although the in-service workshop is what is commonly associated with a change process, in-service as a whole is only one of nine significant factors.

Hall, Zigarmi, and Hord's work at the University of Texas (1978) has led them to develop a taxonomy of change efforts with a scope as extensive as Fullan's list of factors. The levels of change efforts range from the general levels of policy (broad guidelines), game plan (the overall implementation design), and strategy (the action plan) to the tactical level (for examples, the workshop, meeting or newsletter) and the incident level (the singular occurence of an action or event). They found that interventions at the tactical level were what participants perceived, remembered and attended to in change projects; however, similar to Fullan's position of in-service, they were no more important than other levels. Successful implementation involves planning at all levels

and some thinking as to how they relate to each other.

The literature further suggests that in-service be based on problems arising from the implementation process. Training should include both practical skills and a clear concept of the process and purpose of the innovative program (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, Fullan, 1979, Young, 1979).

The above list of factors and levels, and the brief description of the literature explain in general how in-service fits into the complex process of implementation. The rest of the chapter considers the other elements in implementation that are important in considering the whole context of the Self-Directing Professional.

As mentioned earlier, one of the most significant distinctions in recent implementation literature has been between the program and the institutional setting where it is introduced. Both need to be considered. The following pages discuss the factors in successful implementation under these two topics.

Program Characteristics and Implementation

Position of Teachers: Origins not Pawns

In a recent review of ninety-seven research studies on in-service education by Lawrence et al., (in Rubin, 1979) a number of clear patterns emerged as to what makes effective in-service. Some of the important results are as follows:

1. School-based in-service programs concerned with complex teacher behaviours tend to have greater success in accomplishing their objectives than do college-based programs dealing with complex behaviours.

2. Teacher attitudes are more likely to be influenced in school-based than in college-based in-service programs.

3. School-based programs in which teachers participate as helpers to each other and planners of in-service activities tend to have greater success in accomplishing their objectives than do programs which are conducted by college or other outside personnel without the assistance of teachers.

4. School-based in-service programs that emphasize self-instruction by teachers have a strong record of effectiveness.

5. In-service education programs that have differentiated training experiences for different teachers (that is, 'individualized') are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs that have common activities for all participants.

6. In-service education programs that place the teacher in an active role (constructing and generating materials, ideas and behaviour) are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs that place the teacher in a receptive role (accepting ideas and behaviour prescriptions not of his or her own making).

7. In-service education programs that emphasize demonstrations, supervised trials and feedback are more likely to accomplish their goals than are programs in which the teachers are expected to store up ideas and behaviour prescriptions for a future time.

8. In-service education programs in which teachers share and provide mutual assistance to each other are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs in which each teacher does separate work.

9. Teachers are more likely to benefit from in-service education activities that are linked to a general effort of the school than they are from 'single shot' programs that are not part of a general staff development plan.

10. Teachers are more likely to benefit from in-service programs in which they can choose goals and activities for themselves, as contrasted with programs in which the goals and activities are preplanned.

11. Self-initiated and self-directed training activities are seldom used in in-service education programs, but this pattern is associated with successful accomplishment of program goals (p. 254, 255).

The majority of the points paint a picture of the teacher in successful in-service as active, initiating and informed. Other studies by Zigarmi, Betz and Jensen (1977) in South Dakota and by Hache in New Brunswick (in Fullan, 1979) have found a strong preference by

teachers for programs over which they exercised some control and choice, and which were directed at local district, and particularly classroom, problems. Evidence from implementation research (Fullan and Pomfret, 1976, Emrick, 1977, Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, and Young, 1979) is also that the requirements, needs and preferences of teachers should be the starting point for an innovation.

These findings can be explained by how they relate to David McLelland's three main motivational domains: (1) the striving for achievement, also referred to as competency, efficacy and curiosity, (2) the striving for power or influence, and (3) the striving for affiliation or affection (in Schmuck and Schmuck, 1979). Successful strategies such as mutual planning, relevance to work, collaboration and so on meet these basic needs. A useful metaphor here is to think of successful strategies as those that have teachers as Origins rather than Pawns. Richard deCharms describes Origins and Pawns in the following way:

> An Origin is a person who feels that he is director of his life. He feels that what he is doing is the result of his own free choice; he is doing it because he wants to do it, and the consequence of his activity will be useful to him... In short, an Origin is master of his own fate. A Pawn is a person who feels that someone, or something else, is in control of his fate (in Berlew, 1974, p.27).

The Rand Report also considered the position of teachers in developing its concept of mutual adaptation. In mutual adaptation the initial design of an innovation is altered by teachers and administrators for their setting and, at the same time, they adapt to the program requirements. Teachers, if not Origins, are at least partners in the innovation. Strategies which involve mutual adaptation, such as flexible planning, training keyed to practical day to day problems, and local development of materials, were found to be the most successful in achieving implemented results (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975).

Hall *et al*. (1975) have focused on teachers' needs in their research on implementation. From their findings they have shaped a model, called Concerns-Based Adoption Model, which describes the adoption of an innovation by individual teachers in terms of developmental stages of use or implementation and levels of concerns. In the field of concerns, teachers move from the need for information and personal meaning to concerns about strategy, implementation and impact to concerns about collaboration and redefinition of goals of the innovation. In levels of use, they move from stages of orientation and preparation to mechanical use towards adoption, refinement and integration into their personal lives.

Insert Figure 2:1 about here

Levels of Use		Levels of Concern	
0	Non-use	0	Awareness
I	Orientation	1	Informational
II	Preparation	2	Personal
III	Mechanical Use	3	Management
IV A	Routine	4	Consequence
IV B	Refinement		
V	Integration	5	Collaboration
VI	Renewal	6	Refocusing

Figure 2:1 Concerns-Based Adoption Model

In this model individual needs are a first step in a change process that leads later to collaborative action. Needs change over time, different teachers move at different speeds, and the sequence from non-use to renewal may take two years or more depending on the complexity of the innovation.

According to Wolf and Miller (1978) the attention to individual needs establishes personal involvement. Collaboration provides the basis for organizational change and strengthens the individual teacher's sense of connectedness and importance in being able to see the complete situation. Although less importance is put on teacher input in adaption, teachers nonetheless play an active central role.

Problems with Teacher Involvement

Although the literature supports the position of teachers as Origins as an important factor in successful change, initiating this is sometimes difficult. First, there are problems in assessing needs. Arends, Hersh and Turner (1978) quote from a speaker at a conference: "We had over 90 teachers indicate a real need for primary reading instruction on our needs assessment. We designed an in-service class specifically to meet this need and only three of the bastards showed up" (p.197). Perhaps one of the following realities may explain the failure of his

needs survey.

In needs assessments the data collection and analysis are often not adequate to capture the meaning of teacher needs or how to address them (Wideen, 1981, Fullan, 1979, Arends, Hersh, and Turner, 1978). Hancil and Griffen (in Wideen, 1981), have said that the typical needs survey tends to equate wants and interests and thus identifies solutions for symptoms,not causes.

Teachers are veterans of years of institutionalization; they are used to having their needs assessed and prescribed by others (Arends, Hersh, and Turner, 1978). Thus it is not surprising that Bruce Joyce (1979) has found that when teachers first participate in identifying their own needs and establishing programs, they usually choose the same kinds of activities that have been traditionally offered, for example, the one-shot workshop by a university professor. According to Flanders (1980), in British Columbia professional development is equated with workshops.

Arends, Hersh, and Turner also list as reasons for inadequate needs assessment the time lag between assessment and in-service response, and fadism - making responses to what is in headlines rather than to what is in their classroom experience.

There are also problems in collaboration. Although teachers value working together and learning from each

other, there is a great reluctance to observe their colleague's teaching or otherwise to help each other. Teachers rarely engage in on-the-job mutual professional development, even where there is explicit agreement to do so (Fullan, 1979). Beyond that, both principals and teachers are unwilling to reduce classtime in order to assist each other in collaboration, especially through the use of substitute teachers.

Teachers also value mutual planning of professional development. However, here again lack of time is a problem as is lack of skill in co-operative decision-making and the lack of a conceptual framework to plan and organize activities, all of which were identified by teachers in a 1978 survey by Howey and Joyce. Further, the involvement of representative teachers in planning does not necessarily mean the commitment of rank and file teachers (Fullan, 1979).

In brief, the central position of teachers in the adoption and adaption of an innovation is key to success. However, the norms and attitudes of teachers themselves as well as lack of time and the problems inherent in surveying and representing opinions are restraints to their full involvement.

Planning For Implementation: Maps Not Itineraries

In William Kritek's review of research on implementation (1976) he lists, among other variables, goals, resources, and planning as important in the success or failure of an innovation. Goals need to be specific, explicit, and realistic for effective implementation. Goals change over the passage of time and must be a topic of negotiation for program staff and users of the innovation. Resources must be adequate to meet the goals. Sarason, Judd and Mendelson, and Pressman and Wildavsky (reviewed in Kritek, 1976) are opposed to planners who propose grandiose visions that sweep aside practical considerations. Planning needs to be wide ranging in scope and long term, but also practical and adaptable.

Other sources reinforce this. On the one hand, successful innovations need to be linked to an overall plan that describes the flow of interventions and some conceptualization as to how they relate (Hall, Zigarmi, and Hord, 1972, Hall et al., 1975, Wolf and Miller, 1978, Fullan, 1979, Berman and McLaughlin, 1975). Innovative programs that are wide in scope, that involve overall changes in teacher behaviour, and consider the complexities of school and district procedures are more

likely to be successful (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975). The research of Hall et al., (1975) emphasizes also the need to plan for the long-term as well as the wide-range. Implementation may take two years or more.

On the other hand, the larger universe of an innovation needs to include the grain of sand of the everyday events, such as a memo or a conversation. While a single incident by itself may have little effect, the combined effect of many incidents makes or breaks a change effort (Hall, Zigarmi, and Hord, 1977).

The most powerful programs have the simple availability over time of the program staff to interact with or to help teachers. This is essential for three reasons. The availability to help reduces teachers' apprehensions that the innovation will mean unrealistic work (Mann, 1978). The presence symbolizes commitment of the program staff to what teachers are doing (Wolf and Miller, 1978). Finally, the personal contact provides the opportunity for two-way questioning, persuading, and intense interaction that must accompany changes in behaviour (House, 1979).

The large scale and the small, theory and practice: they need to be integrated. Wolf and Miller's metaphor for this (1978) is the map which they contrast to the itinerary. A plan which has a series of prescriptions or a list of empirical solutions to problems is an itinerary.

Those with only an itinerary lack an understanding of the country in which they travel. However, a map has a conceptualization about the way organizations work, the way individuals act within them, and how systems connect to one another. It is an abstraction grounded in practice. An itinerary is inflexible. A map allows the traveller the freedom to work out alternate routes in case the original path is unworkable. (As Kurt Lewin has said, "there is nothing as practical as a good theory.")

This last point, flexibility or adaptability in planning, was also stressed by the Rand Report. Successful programs established channels of communication, set forth initial goals and objectives with the assistance of a representative group of possible users of the innovation, and maintained on-going adaptable planning with frequent and regular meetings of planners and users. These meetings also strengthened staff morale, gave a sense of project cohesiveness, and improved collaboration (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975).

The unsuccessful programs reviewed by Kritek(1976) failed, in part, because they did not have such a feedback mechanism in their planning. He recommends that

programs not only include a formative evaluation, but that they also address the processes and potential problems associated with using an evaluation. These are the relationship between the evaluator and client, the method of data collection, the content, medium of presentation and timing.

In summary, the goals of an innovation should be explicit, clear, and realistic for available resources. Plans need to consider the larger level of district and school policy and an extended time frame of two years or more. On the other hand, plans must consider regular day-to-day contact with users of the innovation.

Adaptability of plans to changing conditions and participant concerns is also important. Such flexi-bility is helped by program staff having a map, a conceptualization of the change process which allows them to develop alternative procedures appropriate for the school and the individual teacher. Adaptabil-ity is also aided by frequent regular monitoring through meetings with teachers and formative evalua-tion.

The Institutional Setting and Implementation

As mentioned earlier, a significant body of research in the last decade has emphasized the critical role of the institutional setting in the change process (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975 Schmuck _et al_., 1977, Sarason, 1971, Lippitt _et al_., 1977, among others). The Rand Report mentions specifically high teacher morale, active support of principals, the general support of district officials, and teachers' willingness to expend extra effort on the project as important factors likely to increase the chance of teacher change. An institution needs to be ready for an innovation.

In examining attempts to innovate in Illinois, House discovered that an innovation succeeds only where "advocacy" groups arise to support it. "Advocates defend the integrity of the special program, recruit members, infuse them with values, and secure adequate resources". Carpenter-Huffman, Hall and Sumner have also commented on the importance of the "close and committed attention" of some official who has "professional respect of his colleagues and sufficient authority or will to overcome red tape and resistance in order to get things done" (in Kritek, 1976, p.97).

Mann (1978) also stresses the political process of coalition-building, alliance formation, and group work to build a constituency for school improvement. In cases

where there are value conflicts, simple educational methods will not be successful.

The Rand Report's concept of mutual adaptation and the strategies of flexible planning, training keyed to implementation problems, and local materials development are consistent with this political approach.

The readiness of the school (especially the climate and leadership) and the process of developing support are important because significant innovations involve changes in teacher behaviour. Successful implementation is a process of role change and role change is very difficult (Kritek, 1976, Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, Sarason, 1971, Fullan, 1979).

Innovations that have been vague as to the new roles required have had predictable results. Novel features of a program have been twisted and torqued into familiar conceptual frameworks or established patterns (Kritek, 1976, Goodlad and Klien, 1970).

Fullan refers to effective in-service as a process of resocialization and he calls for planners to link in-service to organizational development efforts.

In brief, implementation of an innovation involves changes in patterns of behaviour. For this to happen it is

important to consider how school climate, administrative support, and participant commitment can effect these changes. Initial institutional readiness and on-going political strategies to ensure support are needed.

Insert Figure 2:2 about here.

Summary

This chapter has identified the important factors in putting an innovation into practice: in-service education, a central role for teachers, planning, and consideration of the institutional setting. The chapter also intended to set standards by which to judge the implementation process of the _Self-Directing Professional_. For that purpose, the review is summarized in Figure 2:2 into statements about what makes an effective implementation process. This will make it easier to compare later what the literature says with the observed reality of the _Self-Directing Professional_.

Figure 2:2 Characteristics of an Effective Implementation

Process

1. In-service education:

- in-service relates to problems in implementation
- in-service teaches both practical skills and conceptualization of innovation's purpose and process

2. Position of teachers:

- program focuses on local district and classroom concerns
- process involves mutual planning of program staff and teachers, and some teacher control and choice over goals and activities
- teachers collaborate

3. Planning:

- goals are clear, explicit, and realistic for available resources
- plans consider broad policy and long-term factors
- plans include daily assistance and personal contact by program staff
- plans adapt to changes with the help of a conceptualization of organizational and individual change and a mechanism to feedback information

4. Institutional Setting:

- program assesses readiness (school climate, administrative support, and participant commitment)
- political strategies develop support for program

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE WORKSHOP

As in cat skinning, there are many ways to run an effective workshop. Kirschenbaum (1977) describes how he has often witnessed a co-leader doing something with a group that made him "groan inwardly with a feeling that it would never work... but more often than not it turned out fine" (p.63). Pfeiffer and Jones (1973) refer to designing as "one of the most complex activities in which the group facilitator/human relations consultant is engaged" (p.177). Davis (1973) calls "a good learning design a work of art and high art at that" (p.109). In short, there is no one simple correct way.

With that caveat in mind, it is still necessary to review what practitioners and researchers agree to be important considerations in running a workshop. These give conceptual tools for analysis and standards for judging the design of the <u>Self-Directing Professional</u> workshop. Where there are gaps in the literature, there is the possibility of new insights from the research of this thesis.

Unfortunately, there is much imprecision about what a workshop is. In order to clarify this, the next few pages look at the historical development of in-service workshops since 1936, based on a study by Ronaghan (1979). The rest of the chapter considers factors in effective design and facilitation with special emphasis on those that encourage

self-direction. A summary statement of standards for assessing design is included.

History of the Workshop in In-service Education

It was during the Eight-Year Study (1933-41) of the Progressive Education Association that the first workshop for teachers was organized, in 1936, under the direction of Ralph Tyler at the University of Ohio. The workshop was developed when staff in colleges were having difficulty providing consultation to teachers of the thirty-five secondary schools involved in the study. The college staffs felt that teachers had too little time to work on problems during the course of regular teaching.

The 1936 workshop was six weeks long. Teachers were carefully selected by the local authorities of the Study after they had submitted a description of a professional problem for attention during the workshop. Problems submitted in advance both aided the selection process and also made it possible to initiate group discussions early in the program. All of those selected were teachers of mathematics or science.

By 1938 there were four workshops with 500 teachers. The venture was seen as a breakthrough in in-service education - a meeting of school teachers with college faculty for joint learning. In fact, in 1938 twenty-three college faculty enrolled as participants. An important aspect of the workshop was the group life enjoyed by participants -

study as well as social activity together (Ronaghan, 1979).

The workshop approach to in-service education had become well-established in the United States by the late 1940's. Numerous variations in length, focus, and design had developed, but they maintained some common features: a problem-solving focus, a practical base in the teacher's experience, mutual planning by leaders and participants, a lengthy orientation and exploratory period, a limit on lectures, and on-going evaluation (Bigelow, 1945, Boykin, 1955).

In the last three decades, workshop learning has evolved further and become more popular still. With the explosion of research in small group behaviour since World War Two, numerous ideas and strategies from the social sciences and human relations practice have influenced the educator's workshop (Benne _et al_., 1975). With such rich intellectual capital investment from other disciplines, the business of workshops has profited, but changed. Practitioners have retained the emphasis on practical application and participative experiences, however, there has been a strong tendency towards shorter, more tightly structured workshops with more staff-directed and confrontational strategies to speed up learning (Bennis, 1973, Berquist and Phillips, 1975).

With these changes and with the term workshop as such common in-service currency, the definition of the term has been devalued. Side-by-side with the meaning evolved from Tyler's early practice, there has developed a generic meaning of workshop to refer to almost anything that takes place on a "pro d." day. Zigarmi, Betz, and Jensen's survey of teachers' preferences in in-service education (1977) listed under the category of workshop four very different definitions ranging from the problem-centred week long approach to a one-hour university program.

Davis, unique among practioners, embraces this generic sense. "I am using the word workshop to encompass all those learning activities that occur in group settings. A workshop, then, is any group meeting that has adult learning as a primary purpose. If no learning purpose exists, it is some other kinds of meeting: a bridge party, lynch mob, or perhaps a political convention" (1974, P.4,5). However, he contradicts his loose definition by proceeding to advocate an experiential, problem-solving approach with adequate needs assessment, climate setting, and practical application; and ridiculing events which do not have these.

In the following section, we use "workshop" in the more limited but richly varied tradition of Tyler's

original approach. This includes two general categories of workshops: (1) The problem-solving model in which the problems of teachers are the focal point. From this approach, however, we exclude personal growth groups which have content outside of the usual domain of teacher in-service and which have an emergent rather than a previously planned design. (2) The competency model, or the training session, in which the workshop is organized around learning certain cognitive or behavioural competencies (Davis, 1974). Although the competency model has an external standard of performance which may not relate directly to problem situations, much as a class or seminar has, this kind of workshop is distinct from those forms. In those more didactic events content is staff-determined, communication is one-way, and practical application is secondary. The competency model includes organizational development and laboratory education workshops which focus on interpersonal skills, as well as workshops which are organized around subject matter competencies.

Features of Workshop Design

The following features will be considered:

A Contextual Information
B Readiness
C Preparation of Participants
D Physical Environment
E Goals
F Experiential Focus
G Transfer
H Variety of Group Dynamics and Activities

I Sequence
J Timing
K Supportive Climate
L Risk Taking
M Excitement

A Contextual Information

If there is to be any planning for a learning event there needs to be information for the planners about participants, staff, space, time, and materials.

Assessing the learning needs of the participants is perhaps the beginning point for all effective staff development (Davis, 1973, Powers, 1976, Lawrence in Rubin, 1979, Fullan and Pomfret, 1976, and others). This assessment may take the form of the problem analysis method where needs are drawn from participants' descriptions of their problems or the competency model method where needs are drawn from a discrepancy between a set of competencies and performance level (Davis, 1974).

When the assessment includes teacher participation as a planner and decision-maker there is a capacity not only for gathering information but also for teachers to take ownership of the program with subsequently more positive results (Dawson, 1978, Fullan, 1979, Lawrence in Rubin, 1979). However, there are also a number of complexities and problems in the assessment process as discussed in the previous chapter.

In addition to learning needs, Pfeiffer and Jones (1973) list nine other kinds of information to consider

in designing workshops in laboratory education:

1. The contract - The communication of goals and expectations needs to be clear. This will be discussed separately under Preparation of Participants.

2. Length and Timing - Activities need to be appropriate to the time available.

3. Location and physical facilities - Ordinarily a facilitator wants privacy, moveable furniture, and a place that is of the physical size appropriate to the group size. A retreat setting away from interruptions makes it easier to develop "a cultural island" conducive to a pleasant learning climate.

4. Familiarity of the participants - Information on social acquaintanceships may be useful in planning groups, assigning staff to particular groups, and selecting exercises for the beginning and end. Acquaintanceships may be used as a means of support for planning follow-up.

5. Training experience of participants - Learners may have already experienced some kinds of activities in which learning depends upon the novelty of the experience to the learners. Selection of activities and grouping may be affected.

6. Number of participants - Pfeiffer and Jones recommend, in general, a staff to participants ratio of 1: 5 or 6 or a pair of co-facilitators for every ten to twelve participants.

7. Availability of qualified staff - "If the staff members are minimally qualified, it may be necessary to use a great deal of instrumentation and structure to make up for their lack of supervised experience... When the credentials of the staff are somewhat suspect, it may be necessary to develop fairly strict controls on the amount of affect that is generated in the laboratory experience itself. Activities that might be anticipated to generate a great deal of feeling data might be kept out of the design..." (p.179).

8. Access to training materials and other aids - Their availability, cost, and convenience are important design considerations.

9. Opportunity for follow through - the design for transfer of learning will depend on the opportunity for future meetings or workshops.

For all these kinds of information the amount of detail will depend on the purpose and length of the workshop.

B Readiness

Contextual information is necessary to help the facilitators, alone or together with participants, plan the workshop. However, even before planning, the facilitators must decide if they can meet the needs of the participants or whether the participants are ready for the program. It is folly to begin if the resources, skills, commitment, or

values are not there (Schmuck *et al.*, 1977). Even if the facilitators decide to continue, they need to design for individual differences in readiness (Lippitt and Fox in Rubin, 1969).

C Preparation of Participants

The design is far more likely to be effective if the participants enter the workshop knowing what to expect, why they are there, and what they have agreed to experience (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1973). Just as the workshop leader needs information on the participants, so too do they need information on the presentor and the program.

The relevance and feasibility of the workshop are best communicated by presenting a sample of the content prior to the session. The best communicators are accepted peers or "persons like me" so that natural defences of distrust can be dealt with (Lippitt and Fox in Rubin, 1969, Powers, 1976). According to the research of Mann (1978), the most powerful innovations had a demonstration done by the trainers with the teachers' classes, but with no participation or responsibility on the part of the teacher. This helped establish the trainer's credibility and the program's feasibility.

D Physical Environment

The physical environment for workshop learning needs to be comfortable and flexible. Davis cutely comments that

"adults are people who have relatively large bodies subject to the stress of gravitational stimuli... Effective workshops have effective chairs or a good many coffee breaks" (p.20,21). Ronaghan (1979) adds that adults also have set habits such as the consumption of chemical stimuli and these need to be accomodated.

In addition, certain activities need certain physical arrangements, for example, lectures need chairs facing the lecturer while small group discussions need chairs in clusters facing in.

Other writers have discussed the influence of seating arrangements, size of room, colour, accoustics, and display materials on the learning environment (Steele, 1973, Sommer, 1964, Rosenfeld, 1977 on the physical setting and education in general and Davis, 1973, and Lippitt _et al._, 1978, on the workshop in particular).

E <u>Goals</u>

For a training event or problem-solving session, the goals need to be clearly stated and understood by participants. Much of the literature suggests that there is inevitably some expectation gap between participants and staff (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1973, Davis, 1973, Glidewell in Benne _et al._, 1975, among others). This gap needs to be closed early on in the workshop by the leader stating the goals and offering the opportunity for negotiation. In a workshop of more than a day's length, the negotiation of goals should be on-going and, more and more, goals should be determined by the participants (Gibbs, 1960 and Harrison, 1978).

Goals should be based on needs (Knowles, 1973, Davis, 1973, among others), they should be practical and attainable, not overinflated (House, 1974, Kritek, 1976), and they should be the purpose around which the sequence of activities are organized (Kirschenbaum, 1977, Davis, 1975).

F Experiential Focus

All workshop practitioners strongly emphasize the need for recognizing and building on the participant's experiences, and for including experiential exercises as workshop activities (Knowles, 1973, Pfeiffer and Jones, 1973, Gaw, 1979, Kirschenbaum, 1977, and others). It is an important assumption of adult education that adult learners possess a rich resource of experience. Effective instructional techniques tap that resource (Knowles, 1973, Arends et al., 1978).

In a problem-analysis model, the participants' own problems are the centre of the workshop. The design then includes diagnosis, development of alternative solutions, and practice with coaching (Lippitt and Fox in Rubin, 1969). The content of the workshop is past experiences and future application.

A training session (the competency model) generates experiential content not just from on-the-job experience, but also from structured exercises, role playing, instrumentation, case studies, group discussions, and so on. The content in many of these is more the "here and now" experiences at any one moment in the workshop as well as future application (Middleman and Goldberg in Pfeiffer and

Jones, 1972).

Experiential learning in a training session includes not only the experience itself but also a conceptualization of the meaning of the experience. To learn is to make sense of the data generated (Kirschenbaum, 1977, Pfeiffer and Jones, 1973, Schmuck et al., 1977). Beverley Gaw (1979) and Pfeiffer and Jones (1975) describe a cycle of experiential learning which explains the process in sequence. The objectives of each phase of the cycle are as follows (see Figure 3:1):

1. Experiencing: to generate individual data;
2. Sharing: to report what was experienced;
3. Interpreting: to make sense of the data for both individuals and the group;
4. Generalizing: to develop testable hypotheses and abstractions from the data;
5. Applying: to understand or plan how these generalizations can apply to other situations.

Insert Figure 3:1 about here.

The technique of facilitating learners to accomplish these objectives is called processing or debriefing. Because the specific route to application is determined by the data the participants generate, the facilitator must have a large and flexible repertoire of questions to stimulate and complete the cycle (Gaw, 1979). Some **examples** from the questioning strategy suggested by Gaw are given below.

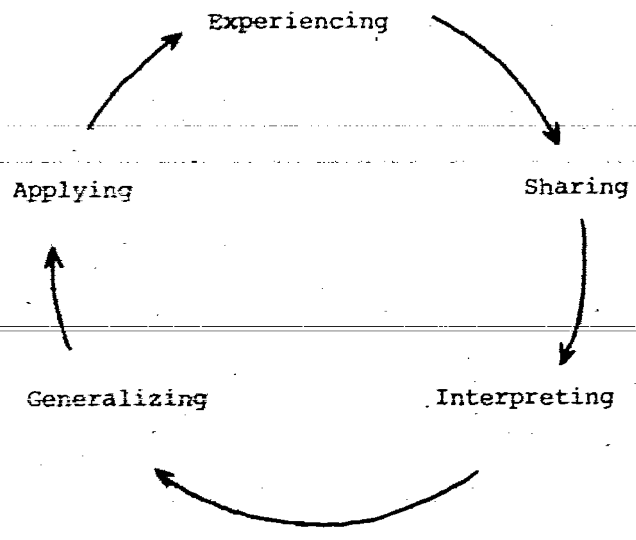


Figure 3:1 The Experiential Learning Cycle

Reprinted from J.E. Jones and J.W. Pfeiffer, eds., The 1979 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, California; used with permission.

Sharing: What went on in that exercise? How did you feel about that? Who else had the same experience?

Interpreting: How do you account for that? What does that mean to you?

Generalizing: What might we draw/pull from that? Does that remind you of anything?

Applying: How could you transfer that? What are the options? How could you make it better?

Experiential learning is democratic learning. It is based on participants' self-determination. Schmuck et al., (1977) insist that, in addition to respecting their opinions and expectations in negotiating the workshop, the consultant (facilitator) needs to continue that respect during the workshop itself. "Consultants should not label the client's (participant's)interpretation of what has been learned as either inaccurate or wrong. Clients who perform an exercise for one purpose but who offer debriefing comments on other matters for example, should be shown how these apparently disparate matters in fact relate. Denying clients' interpretations not only violates the consultant's commitment to client self-determination but also makes it unlikely that important or lasting learning will result" (p.421, 422).

G Transfer

Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers (1980) recently completed a two-year examination of research on the ability of teachers to acquire teaching skills and strategies.

Their findings were that teachers are wonderful learners, but only if certain conditions are present. Effective training (the competency model workshop) needs to include theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and coaching for application. Although on-the-job coaching may be more suited to a different kind of learning strategy, the other components of Joyce and Showers' list can be part of any training program.

Schmuck *et al.* (1977) suggest some other guidelines for designing for transfer of learning:

1. plan for transfer and discuss it with participants;
2. allow participants time to consider back home implications of an exercise (as in the learning cycle described earlier);
3. include several activities which involve groups who work together on the job or activities which involve content relevant to their jobs;
4. make sure participants learn cognitive, affective, and motoric aspects of what they are expected to transfer;
5. provide opportunities for debriefing after participants have had a chance to try out new behaviours in real situations (as described in the previous section on *Experiential Focus*).

Similar guidelines have been suggested by Lippitt (in Benne *et al.*, 1975), Berquist and Phillips (1975),

and Lippitt and Fox (in Rubin, 1969). The need for a blend of concrete "how-to-do-it" training and conceptual clarity (as in point four on the previous page) was a prominent finding of the Rand Report on implementation (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975).

In a problem-solving workshop, application is more obviously intrinsic to the design as the workshop content is participants' problems.

H <u>Variety of Group Dynamics and Activities</u>

Kirschenbaum (1977) suggests that in any workshop more than a couple of hours long, it is important to vary the group process to keep interest and energy high. These variations might include different groupings or different kinds of exercises.

Other literature relevant to this principle comes from Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), a communication model as yet ungrounded in extensive research but increasingly popular. Proponents of NLP claim that there are four different modes by which we gather information about the world, corresponding roughly to the four major senses: visual, auditory, kinesthetic (both physical feeling and affective feeling), and olfactory/gustatory (Bandler and Grinder, 1976, 1979). In the workshop setting visual communication might be a chart on the wall; auditory, a lecture; and kinesthetic, non-verbal exercises involving movement or

manipulation of materials. (The olfactory/gustatory mode is less common and harder to represent in a learning activity.)

According to the NLP model, most people are not equally at home in all of these modes. They have certain domininant modes for communicating. In order to communicate effectively, the workshop facilitator needs to design for different activities or presentations that will reach the different visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learners.

This aspect of the NLP model may only be a more elegant development of common theory, but not as common practice, in education that people learn in different ways and learning programs should plan for this. This does not diminish the importance of variety in communication modes.

The overall principle of variety in both group dynamics and activities is also related to the following principles of sequence and timing.

I <u>Sequence</u>

Each component of a workshop should flow from the previous sequence of activities and towards the attainment of the workshop goals. Even meals need to be strategically considered with the interaction during meal time an important factor for the events that follow (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1973).

A number of practitioners write of the need for a balanced sequence. Dickenson (1973) describes a balance

when practicing new learning, what she calls distributed practice - short periods of practice followed by short rest intervals. Pfeiffer and Jones (1973) and Kirschenbaum (1977) refer to a balance of cognitive, affective, or motoric learning. The order with which you employ these kinds of learning is a question of sequence. The next principle also discusses aspects of sequencing.

J Timing

When is as important in a workshop as what. When do you close an activity? When do you intervene to help participants? After what length of time will participants feel comfortable? What amount of time is needed to achieve the workshop goals? Unfortunately, as much as timing is important, it is also complex and little understood. Warren Bennis discussed these points in an interview about his work in organizational development:

> There is the reality of time in which people have to work, and we have to negotiate a tradoff between trust, group development, and achievement of tasks... Practitioners and consultants should never minimize the enormity of the time problem which at times they cavalierly dismiss as "defensive".
>
> Second, we know very little about timing in behavioural science. If you look at the Handbook of Organizations, you will not be any wiser about the crucial component of effective administrative behaviour which Pope John intuitively possessed: exquisite timing (1973, p.394, 395).

Time in a workshop design has many different elements. First, there is the amount of time in relation to workshop goals. A frequent trap of facilitators is to become committed to outcomes which cannot be realistically accomplished in the time available.

Second, there is the fit of time and work. Most consultants, from their experience, discover that certain types of activities work well in the morning, others work better in the afternoon or evening (Lippitt and Schindler-Rainman in Benne _et al_., 1975). Two frequently mentioned singular times are the start of a workshop when participants may be hesitant or mistrustful, and after meals or early in the morning when they may be tired (Davis, 1974, Lippitt and Schindler-Rainman in Benne _et al_.,1975).

Third, there is the length of time for the workshop components, most importantly the activities, but also the breaks, presentations, and so on. Important concerns here are the fatigue effects of staying with one activity too long and yet the necessity to stay long enough for adequate debriefing (as Roger Harrison has said in conversation with the author, " the unexamined activity is not worth doing").

A fourth consideration is the timing of the facilitator's interventions to help participants or to move

the worshop on. This is also referred to as pacing. Too frequent intervention can create dependency on the facilitator and the expectation by participants that he or she will make things happen (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1973). The use of finite and simple exercises can help reduce the need for interventions (Middleman and Goldberg, 1972). The encouragement by staff of norms that support participant responsibility can also reduce the dependency (Harrison, 1978, Pfeiffer and Jones, 1973).

A fifth aspect to timing is the learning cycle of the participant. The learning cycle is Roger Harrison's term for the natural process of advance and retreat in learning (1978). In Harrison's work in self-directed learning he allows time for individuals "to move-out and take personal risks (e.g.try some activity that was personally threatening)" and to "move back to reflect and integrate these experiences" (p.162). Often people have to be guided or counselled to follow their own self-directed rhythm of risk and retreat.

Harrison focuses on the cycles of individuals. He opposes his cyclical emphasis to that of many educators who use experiential learning as a dramatic vehicle, continually increasing the pace to a smashing climax. However, others have written on the pace of group learning and emphasized in a similar manner, the need for a sequence which includes free time for synthesizing and assimilating

learning (Berquist and Phillips, 1975, Pfeiffer and Jones, 1973, Davis, 1974, Lippitt and Schindler-Rainman in Benne et al., 1975). Others such as Young (1979) and Arends et al., (1978) mention the importance of including leisure time in in-service experiences.

K Supportive Climate

Workshop learning is a social activity. The learner must feel comfortable with the workshop setting - the leader, the other participants, and the physical environment - before trying out new behaviour or considering new ideas. If the learner is anxious or fearful, he or she is more likely to be defensive and unwilling to participate fully or consider feedback.

In an article entitled "Defensive Communication" (1961), Jack Gibb outlined six categories of behaviour characteristic of a supportive climate:

1. Description - speech or behaviour which does not evaluate, but which seeks or gives information;

2. Problem orientation - the communication of a desire to collaborate in defining a mutual problem and in seeking a solution;

3. Spontaneity - behaviour which is not seen as a technique or strategy, but as natural or genuine;

4. Empathy;

5. Equality - a willingness to enter into participative planning with mutual trust and respect;

6. Provisionalism - a willingness to take undogmatic provisional attitudes, to experiment with new ideas or attitudes.

Other writers have described a supportive climate in similar terms. Trust, mutual caring, openness, and, above all, voluntariness have been referred to by Thelen (Rubin, 1969), Lippitt and Fox (Rubin, 1969), Pfeiffer and Jones (1973), and Bradford (Benne et al., 1975). Zigarmi, Betz, and Jensen's findings (1976) of teachers' preference for activities over which they had some "choice" and some "control" would reinforce the importance of at least some of the aspects of Gibb's description.

Although these characteristics relate strongly to the communication style of the facilitator and to already present group norms, a supportive climate is also a consideration of design. We have already looked at the problem orientation, the mix of faculty and teachers, and social aspect of the early University of Ohio workshops. Together with an adequate needs assessment and preparation of participants these design features can promote problem orientation and equality.

Davis also suggests five steps at the beginning of a workshop to set a supportive learning climate:

1. Greeting participants - a warm handshake and introduction;

2. Getting everyone comfortable - an offer of coffee, announcement of coming breaks, restroom locations and so on;

3. Spelling out ground rules - a general description of how participants and resources might relate;

4. Warming up - an opening activity to break the ice, energize participants, and sometimes create readiness for the workshop;

5. Discussing expectations - a general preview of what is to come followed by a discussion of its relevance.

Davis then advocates following these stages with a discussion of objectives and the participants' reactions to them, as discussed under Goals.

Still another means by which a workshop can encourage a supportive climate is by having teachers as facilitators and by forming support teams of teachers. In the survey by Zigarmi, Betz and Jensen (1976) in South Dakota and Kormos and Enns (1979) in Ontario, teachers preferred learning experiences where they communicated with and learned from other teachers. Bartlett (Wideen, 1981) found in a study that implementation of a program was most effective when teachers were trained and worked in pairs.

Risk Taking

Closely related to a supportive climate is risk taking. Workshop learning means taking risks. To learn a

new skill or to consider a new solution to a problem may jar one's familiar perception of the world or one's familiar role in the world. The participant risks confusion. To learn may also mean exposing one's incompetence to others. The participant risks embarrassment.

The supportive climate where the participant trusts that other people will not take unfair advantage of the confusion or embarrassment is the most important precondition for risk taking. However, a supportive climate alone is not enough to encourage what John Glidewell has called the "shift to risk". In a review of observations and research in laboratory education (in Benne et al., 1975), Glidewell has identified six aspects which can influence risk taking:

> (1) the influence of some broad cultural value on risk and caution, (2) the initial pluralistic ignorance leading the participants erroneously to believe themselves to be nearer the valued end of the risk-caution continuum than others, (3) the introduction of information to show that many participants are, compared to others, less risky (or cautious) than they first believed (a disconfirmature phenomenon), (4) a change of individual position by low-risk participants in order to maintain the self-perception of favouring the culturally valued alternative (an accomodation phenomenon), (5) an enhancement of the valued end of the continuum due to the ready availability of well-earned rhetoric to communicate these values, and (6) a reduction of uncertainty about the problem and confidence in one's new opinion (p.150).

Glidewell proposes that the key explanatory concept for these factors is what he calls disconfirmature. The established perceptions or "mind-sets" of participants are unsettled or disconfirmed by new information. The second, third and fourth factors above are a process whereby participants perceive others taking risks greater than their own inclination and move to that position of greater risk taking. This disconfirmature is thus motivating; it leads one to intervene in one's environment to take risks, for example, to try a new activity or to express a previously guarded opinion.

Kurt Lewin (in Smith and Keith, 1971) suggested how unfreezing (his term for disconfirmature) could be encouraged in a workshop: by "an emotional stir-up" or catharsis, isolation or creation of "cultural islands" apart from the participants' usual life, and group decision. According to a study of T-Groups by Miles, "the gains to participants were primarily predicted by variables connected with actual participation... unfreezing, active involvement, and reception of feedback" (in Benne et al., 1975, p.153).

In their analysis of effective teacher professional development, (in Rubin, 1969) Lippitt and Fox suggest several ways to unfreeze and encourage the norms of experimentation and initiative: problem-solving sessions

could begin with unfreezing activities; base-line data on variables like influence, openness, perceived support, or goals could be taken and assessed; and helping teachers employed and teaching teams formed to encourage these norms.

There is also the considerable power of rhetoric. The language of the dynamic spirit of adventure produces more active initiating behaviour than the static voice of caution. Indeed, initially risky participants may be influenced by their own rhetoric to increase the risk involved in their individual action (Glidewell in Benne et al., 1975).

M Excitement

Although it is an implied part of risk-taking, and other design features, excitement can also be an explicit and separate consideration. Heightened feelings can help a group or individuals achieve far more than a pedestrian completion of tasks. According to Runkel et al. (1978), "so far as we know, no basketball coach has ever expected to win a game by sending a memorandum of instructions to each player, ending with 'Go out there Monday night and do it' " (p.88). In a similar vein, Louis Rubin commented that "in-service ought, among other things, to above all rekindle the teacher's sense of faith"(in Wideen, Hopkins, and Pye, 1979, p.147).

Nonetheless, excitement or "rekindling faith" is seldom mentioned in literature on in-service education. It _is_ mentioned as an issue in the long term design of change efforts (House, 1974 , Pressman and Wildavsky in Kritek, 1976, Runkel _et al_., 1978), as a theme for a workshop, the charismatic day, which is a part of such an overall design (Schmuck _et al_., 1977), and as the quality of an organization or institution generated by a charismatic leader (Berlew, 1974, Runkel _et al_., 1978). Yet it is not usually discussed as a design feature of workshops in general.

Miles is an exception. His 1964 article analyzes "temporary sub-systems", short-term social structures which, in education, would be classes, conferences, or workshops. The very temporary nature of such events serves to intensify involvement and mobilize energy. When participants recognize superordinate goals, work together to formulate these, and recognize that they must be reached during the life of the sub-system, there is a feeling of heightened significance and meaning. Miles also lists other features which can mobilize energy: the opportunity for role redefinition, that is, to refashion one's identity, increased communication, and a more equal power structure.

Pfeiffer and Jones (1973) touch on the subject when they write of investment and involvement. To avoid passivity, each person at a workshop must have something to do all of the time during the formally planned sessions. Moreover, from the beginning each participant should be encouraged to accept responsibility for his or her learning and every opportunity should be given him or her to act on that responsibility through participation.

Many of the ideas of Berlew (1974) on charismatic leadership can be applied to workshop designs, as Runkel _et al_. (1978) have used them to apply to organizational development. Berlew extends the ideas of responsibility and participation when he writes of granting workers control over their own work. A charismatic leader makes organization members feel stronger and more in control over their destinies, both individually and as a group. "The feeling of potency which accompanies 'shaping' rather than being shaped... is a source of excitement" (p.23).

In a workshop that involves mutual planning and work on problems chosen by the participants the participants can shape their destiny in the same manner. To use our earlier metaphor, they can be the Origins rather than the Pawns of outside forces. As Miles suggests, heightened feelings of power and excitement are possible when participants collaborate on superordinate goals. Berlew also

suggests the creation of successful experiences and rewards, elements that can easily be translated into design.

Another potential for excitement is when the workshop goals are linked with a greater purpose, a "common vision" related to values shared by the organization's members. Hyde (in Runkel et al., 1978) in his study of principals and problem-solving found vision to be a powerful way to move people to deal with problems.

In addition to a common vision and a sense of control by participants over their learning and work, there also needs to be value-related opportunities for action. Berlew suggests several kinds of potent opportunities: to be tested, to establish a unique social experiment which combines work, family, and play in some new way, to do something really well (craftsmanship), to do something really worthwhile, or to be an effective force for change.

The opportunity to do something really well and something worthwhile would be the most powerful sources of reward for teachers according to Lortie's findings. In his 1975 study, School Teacher, he found teachers took "craft pride" in successful instructional impact and relations with students. Lortie especially noted pride in the spectacular case of improvement by a student, evidence

of student interest, special projects, and recognition by others. It would follow that staff development programs can excite teachers when they include activities which can increase these sources of pride, as well as activities that are linked to a common vision and that involve collaborative work on issues of their choice.

Summary

To this point, the review has sketched a picture of what a workshop is and given guidelines for the inquiry into the Self-Directing Professional. It has revealed two areas, timing and excitement, that are not often explored and which offer an opportunity for new insights from the research.

However, like the last chapter, the intention is also to set standards for the eventual comparison with the research findings. For that purpose, Figure 3:2 summarizes the key features of an effective workshop design.

Insert Figure 3:2 about here

Figure 3:2 Characteristics of an Effective Workshop Design

1. Contextual Information:

- the facilitator gathers planning information on the location, materials, time, and participants. The information on participants includes their learning needs, the number of participants, their familiarity with each other, and experience with workshop content

2. Readiness:

- the facilitator assesses readiness

3. Preparation:

- participants know what to expect and why they are there

4. Physical Environment:

- the setting is comfortable and flexible

5. Goals:

- goals are stated and negotiated with participants
- goals are based on needs, realistic for time available, and the purpose around which the agenda is organized

6. Experiential Focus:

- the workshop recognizes the experiences of participants
- exercises are concluded with debriefing in which participants share experiences and reflect on wider meaning and back-home application

7. Transfer:

- the training workshop includes theory, demonstration, practice, and feedback
- in all workshops transfer is discussed with participants, content is relevant, and grouping includes participants who work together

8. Variety:

- group dynamics are varied
- sensory modes (visual, auditory, and kinesthetic) are varied

Figure 3:2 Characteristics of an Effective Workshop Design

(continued)

9. Sequence:

- Activities are logically connected and move towards workshop goals

10. Timing:

- time is sufficient to attain goals
- activities are appropriate for time of day
- exercises are long enough to be debriefed, but short enough so attention doesn't flag
- the facilitator avoids excessive intervention
- the workshop has a rhythm of risk and retreat, concentrated activity and reflection

11. Supportive Climate:

- an atmosphere of trust, openness, and respect for the participants autonomy is developed

12. Risk Taking:

- encouraged by group decisions, data feedback, rhetoric, or "unfreezing" activities, participants risk trial of new behaviour or consideration of new ideas

13. Excitement:

- Excitement is generated by collaboration on meaningful goals and plans, a common vision of what is possible, and opportunities for action

Facilitation

The character of the presentor inevitably shapes the character of the workshop. The power of the presentor is strikingly illustrated in the study by Fox at the University of Georgia Medical School (albeit a study not of workshop facilitators but of university lecturers). Fox found three actors loaded with charisma. Posing as doctors, they delivered a series of three lectures which were totally devoid of substantive content, yet were done with tremendous vivacity and grace. He then found three legitimate physicians who were extremely informative, but lifeless. When the medical students were asked which group taught them the most, the actors playing doctors or the real doctors, the students thought that the actors, who in fact taught them nothing, had taught them far more than the real physicians (from Lou Rubin in Wideen Hopkins, and Pye, 1979, p.74).

The literature on teacher in-service and implementation, such as the Flanders Report (1980) in British Columbia or the Rand Report (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975) in the United States, also emphasizes the crucial importance of effective workshop presentors. However, what makes an effective facilitator is not often discussed in the literature on teacher in-service and for a review one must also turn to writing on adult education, communi-

cation, and laboratory education.

That literature suggests three general requirements to be an effective workshop leader. First, the leader must have in mind a clear outcome which he or she wishes to achieve, for example, the explanation of a teaching skill. Second, the facilitator should have a repertoire of ways of achieving these outcomes, perhaps a dynamic presentation of the skill. Third, the facilitator should be able to monitor the achievement of the outcomes, for example, by acute observation of the physical responses of the learners or by activities and instrumentation with which the learners can demonstrate learning (Bandler and Grinder, 1976, Pfeiffer and Jones, 1977, Kirschenbaum, 1977, Goleman, 1979, Maron, 1979).

The specific nature of the outcomes will depend on the workshop. (There are some broad goals, such as increased self-reliance, acceptance of responsibility, problem-solving, and collaboration, that are inherent in workshop learning.) The purpose of this section is to outline the means by which the facilitator can achieve those goals: the personal dimensions, that is, the qualities of personality and interpersonal skills; the varying roles that are required such as advocate for a position or collaborator in problem-solving; and facilitator styles, the patterns of behaviour required to play particular roles.

Unlike the earlier treatment of implementation and

workshop design, facilitation of the Self-Directing Professional will not be evaluated in later chapters, therefore, this review is not summarized into standards of behaviour.

Dimensions of Facilitation

Pfeiffer and Jones (1974) outline four personal qualities and six skills of the effective facilitator. The first significant quality is the ability to feel empathy for the other person. A second dimension is acceptance - allowing another person to be different or behave differently. Congruence and flexibility are the other aspects. Congruence means communicating to another person what you genuinely mean and feel at the moment. The message of nonverbal behaviour is consistent with the verbal message. A flexible person is able to use an approach with a learner that is consistent with the learner's pace.

The skills which Pfeiffer and Jones identify are listening, expressing oneself, observing, responding, intervening, and designing.

In addition to these skills, Gordon Lippitt (in Benne *et al.*, 1975) suggests that the effective communicator should know a variety of possible learning activities or have the ability to create them on the spot. She or he needs to be competent in knowledge of the workshop content in order to give cognitive explanations, and competent in the skills of the content in order to model performance.

Since the research of this thesis involves observation of workshops, it is important to know what the physical

elements are that make up these personal qualities and skills. In short, what do you look for in a workshop? In Guidelines for Critiquing Training Presentations (in Pfeiffer and Jones, 1978), Kelley lists five considerations:

1. Voice - volume, rhythm, articulation and tone;

2. Physical presentation - eye contact, facial expression, dress, and physical stance;

3. Verbal behaviour - complexity, concreteness, length, variety, evaluative comments, and familiarity to participants of wording;

4. Interventions - blend of seriousness and humour, handling of questions, communication techniques, dealing with conflict, timing, kinds of intervention;

5. Co-facilitation - introduction of staff, co-operation of staff, knowledge, preparation, and so on.

These considerations were tersely expressed in a lecture by Roger Harrison when he talked of the elements of influence styles: the words, the music and the dance. The words are what is said, the music is the quality of the voice, and the dance is the physical presentation.

Facilitation Roles

A survey by Benne et al. (1975) of major practitioners in laboratory education yielded five main facilitation roles based on the function of an intervention (they used intervention to mean any helping relationship). The following five roles were mentioned approvingly by

some or all of their respondents:

> 1) Role model - authentic expressive behaviour, giving and receiving feedback, confessing limitations and needs for help; 2) Procedural, technical resource - suggesting appropriate activities and methods...; 3) Methodological helper - collecting and sharing behavioural data, training in methods of data collection...; 4) Confronter, disconfirmer, agent of dissonance, Socratic questioner; and 5) Supporter (p.265).

Pfeiffer and Jones (1977) suggest similar roles for a consultant except they place them on a continuum of directive to nondirective as in Figure 3:3. The roles range from the highly directive advocate of a content or method to the non-directive reflector who seeks to stimulate the client to make decisions by asking reflective questions. The variable of control underlying the continuum is much discussed in the literature on facilitation and the review will return to it when discussing style.

Insert Figure 3:3 about here

Any one or all of these roles may be appropriate during the course of a workshop. Each intervention is situation-related and time-related. Advocacy at one phase and with one group may be "good", while at another time, with another group, a collaborator in problem-solving would be "better" (Benne et al., 1975).

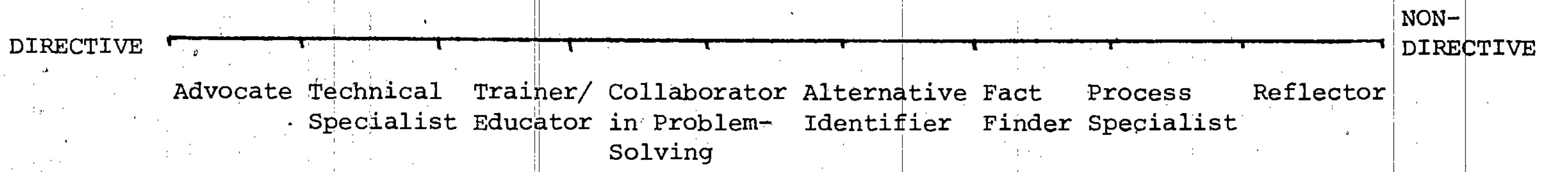


Figure 3:3 Facilitator Roles

Reprinted from Training and Development Journal, May, June, 1975; used with permission.

Facilitation Style

Facilitation style refers to the patterns of behaviour involved in conducting a workshop. Style is the manner in which a facilitator uses his or her personal qualities and skills in order to fulfull a particular role. Thus style, dimensions and role are connected. For example, a forceful, hard style emphasizing skills in expressing, responding, or intervening is associated with the role of advocacy or confrontation; a softer style emphasizing empathy and acceptance is associated with more non-directive roles such as supporter or process specialist.

Control is again the main variable in models of facilitation style proposed by Davis (1974) and Jones (1978). Davis uses the familiar categories of "authoritarian style - as in bosses, drill sergeants, and certain teachers, democratic style - as in majority rule, participation, and apple pie, and laissez-faire style - as in 'let it all hang out,' 'do your own thing,' or 'let things take their course' " (p.15).

John Jones gives a more complex though less entertaining model, illustrated in Figure 3:4, that includes particular strategies associated with different levels of control.

Insert Figure 3:4 about here

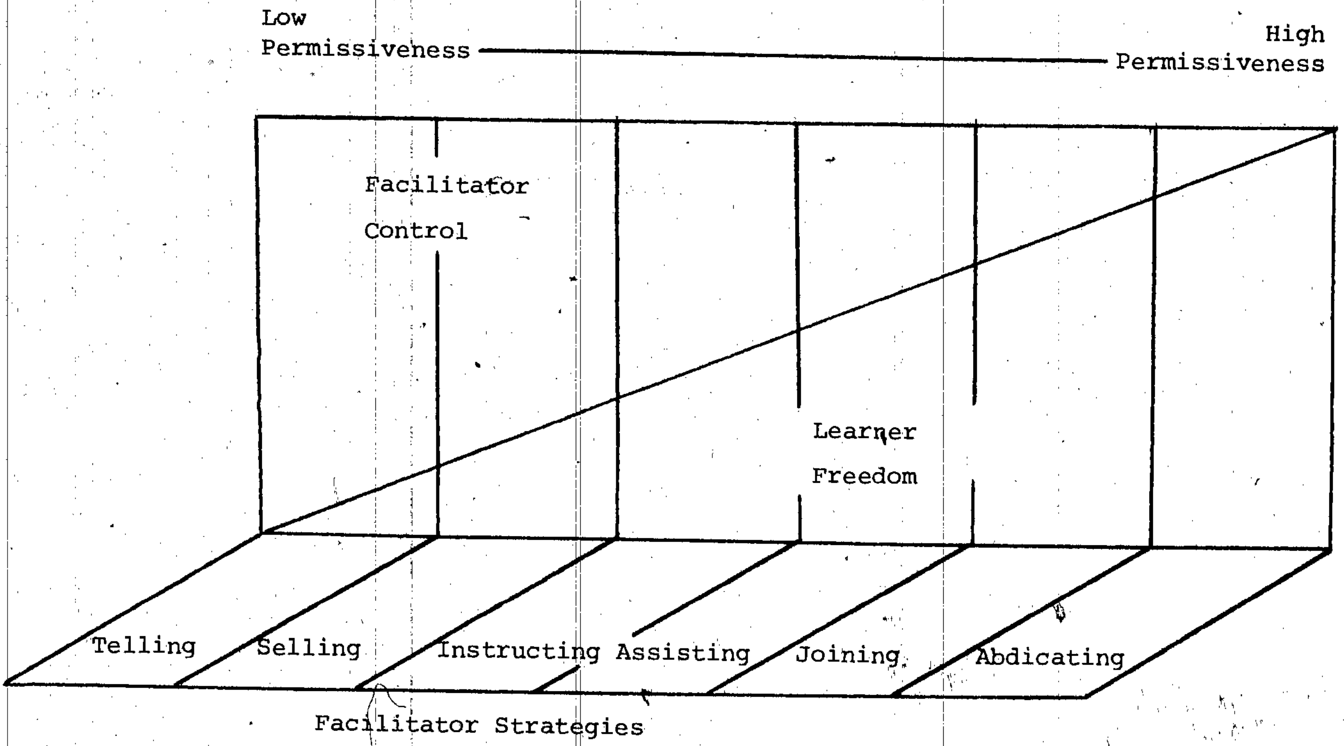


Figure 3:4 A Model of Facilitator Style

Reprinted from J.W. Pfeiffer and J.E. Jones, Small-Group Training Theory and Practice: Selected Readings, San Diego, California, University Associates, 1977; used with permission.

Roger Harrison (1977, 1978) has developed a conceptualization of influence styles intended for broader use than just in a workshop setting. It has a more complex categorization of behaviours than the other models and introduces the variable of emotion in addition to control.

There are four basic influence styles: Reward and Punishment, Participation and Trust, Common Vision, and Assertive Persuasion. Each style is made up of several specific influence behaviours.

Reward and Punishment (R and P) is the use of pressures and incentives to control others' behaviour. Rewards may be offered for compliance; and punishment or deprivation may be threatened for non-compliance. Direct concrete power may be used, or more indirect and social pressures of status, prestige and authority may be exerted.

R and P means letting others know clearly what they must do to get what they want and avoid negative consequences.

Both **Reward** and Punishment and Assertive Persuasion involve judging others. However, Assertive Persuasion judges on the basic of logic, effectiveness, or truth. R and P evaluates on the basis of a moral or social standard, a regulation, or an arbitrary performance standard. The person sets himself or herself up as a judge.

There are three aspects to this influence style:

1. Evaluation - praising and criticizing, approving and disapproving;

2. Prescribing Goals and Expectations - letting others know exactly what is required of them;

3. Incentives and Pressures - offering rewards for compliance and threats of punishment or deprivation for non-compliance.

Unlike Assertive Persuasion and Reward and Punishment which push people to behave in certain ways or to accept certain ideas, Participation and Trust pulls others towards desirable behaviours or ideas by involving them. Involvement means increased commitment to a task, and follow-up and supervision become less important.

There are three aspects to Participation and Trust:

1. Personal Disclosure - openly admitting limititations of knowledge and resources; by example, setting a climate of acceptance and trust;

2. Recognizing and Involving Others - drawing out and actively listening to the ideas of others, and building on and extending their contributions;

3. Testing and Expressing Understanding - rephrasing what others have said to test accuracy and to show the other person's ideas are valued.

In Common Vision the influencer tries to identify

a common vision for a group and to build the group members' commitment to work for the realization of the vision. The appeal is to emotions and values and to see the possibilities for acting on those emotions and values.

Common Vision has two aspects:

1. Articulating Exciting Possibilities - imagining and communicating enthusiasm about potential challenges, using images and metaphors to kindle excitement;

2. Generating a Shared Identity - appealing to common values and hopes, helping others feel the strength of working together.

<u>Assertive Persuasion</u> (AP) is the style of influencing others through the use of logic, facts, opinions and ideas. It is a "push" style (like R and P) because one pushes others to accept one's views by the logic of argument.

AP has two aspects:

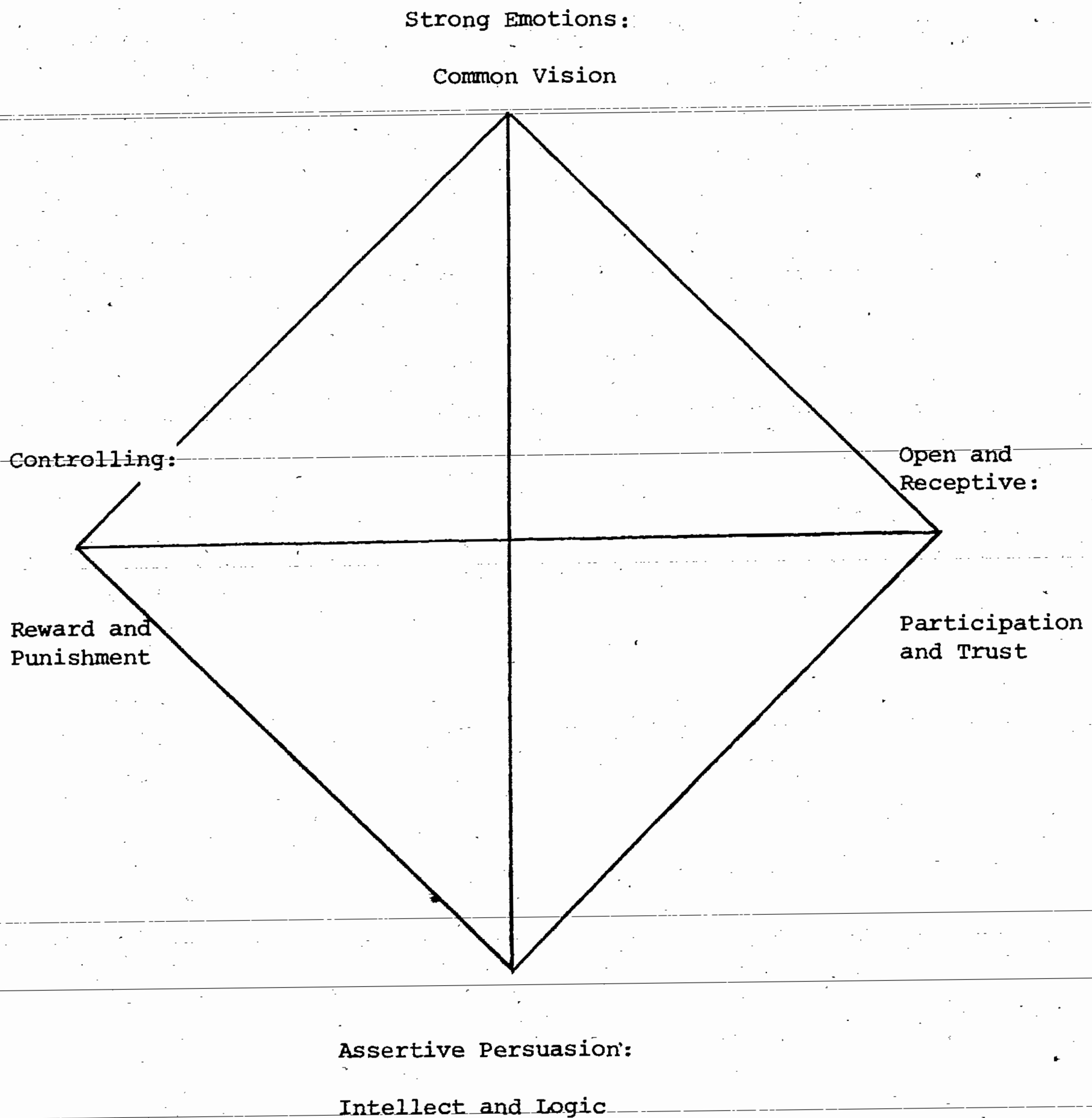
1. Proposing - putting forward ideas, proposals, or suggestions;

2. Reasoning For and Against - marshalling evidence on one's behalf and against an opponent's.

These influence styles are represented visually in Figure 3:5. In addition to the variable of control, in the diagram represented as controlling vs. openness and receptivity, there is the emotional tone of the

Figure 3:5 Influence Styles

Reprinted from Positive Power and Influence Program, Situation Management Systems, Inc., Boston, Massachusetts, 1976, 1977, 1978; used with permission.



influence behaviour, strong emotions vs. intellect and logic.

Insert Figure 3:5 about here

Each style is associated with particular personal qualities and skills, as we discussed earlier. Harrison (1977, 1978) refers to the features of each style as "cultures."

The culture of Reward and Punishment is combative, tough, confronting, evaluative, and high pressure.

Participation and Trust is open, empathic, trusting, warm, understanding and disclosing.

Common Vision is excited, cohesive, idealistic, colourful, energetic, and emotional.

Assertive Persuasion is a culture of logic and rationality, of people who are articulate and sensible.

As with roles, the appropriate style depends on the situation (the nature of the group, workshop content, time of day, and so on). A detailed discussion of what constitutes appropriate and effective use of style is beyond the scope of this review. However, because the influence styles will be an observation focus, a general discussion is necessary. Although Harrison does not write of the workshop in particular, his writing on group behaviour (1978) can be extended to workshop situations.

The Reward and Punishment style is useful for a facilitator to establish clarity of goals and expectations and to play the role of confronter. However, it is not useful to influence the complex behaviour that is often the content of training for new teaching approaches. It can also be dysfunctional when it increases competitiveness or pressure.

Participation and Trust is most useful to ensure commitment (to a solution or a program) in situations, like a workshop, where it cannot be compelled. This style recognizes and uses the considerable experience teachers bring to a workshop. Pooling resources can produce high quality solutions to problems. The recognition of others builds a supportive climate necessary for learning. However, Participation and Trust is not useful at times when the presentor is the only one qualified to present materials or information.

When the facilitator's values and interests are consistent with the participants, Common Vision can arouse excitement and encourage risk-taking. It is especially effective when others are unsure what they want or how to solve a problem and when what is done is less important than getting energy applied. It is inappropriate if the facilitator is mistrusted or has low status.

Assertive Persuasion is important for a workshop leader in the role of procedural or technical resource.

Participants need first to trust the facilitator and have compatible interests. Assertive Persuasion is most effective if the presentor has high prestige and competence.

Summary

The review of literature on workshop facilitation has attempted to outline the characteristics of effective workshop presentation. These include certain personal qualities of the presentor, such as empathy, congruence, flexibility, and acceptance; and interpersonal skills, such as listening, expressing, observing, responding, intervening and designing.

A workshop requires the facilitator to play a number of different roles, for example, the technical resource, the confronter, or the supporter.

In order to play these roles effectively the facilitator employs different styles or patterns of behaviour. Those styles vary as to the emotional tone and the amount of leader control. The review describes four styles: Participation and Trust, the style of openness and receptivity; Assertive Persuasion, logical and rational behaviour; Reward and Punishment, controlling behaviour; and Common Vision, an inspirational style of strong emotions. The appropriateness of a particular style is very much related to the situation - the participants, the purpose, and the timing.

The character of facilitation determines much of the character of the workshop, and the influence styles described in this section will be a focus of observation. However, because facilitation will not be judged as the design will be, this chapter does not try to set standards of effectiveness.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the models used for evaluation of the Self-Directing Professional, explains briefly the sense in which the study is both evaluation and research, and describes the research procedures.

Evaluation

In 1967, Robert Stake explained a model of evaluation called the "Countenance Model" (in Worthen and Sanders, 1973). He divided evaluation into data matrices describing various bodies of information, as shown in Figure 4:1.

Insert Figure 4:1 about here

In Stake's model a distinction is made between antecedent, transaction, and outcome. An antecedent is any condition existing prior to the event under study. This inquiry looks primarily at the school climate, the facilitators, and the physical location. These are described in the chapter Life Before Workshops (pp. 94-109).

Transactions are the processes that take place during the event, for example, organizing activities, communication between the presentor and participants, and discussion among participating teachers. The transactions involved in organizing the event are included with antecedents in Life Before Workshops; the transactions of the day itself are described in the chapter Workshop Life (pp. 110-141).

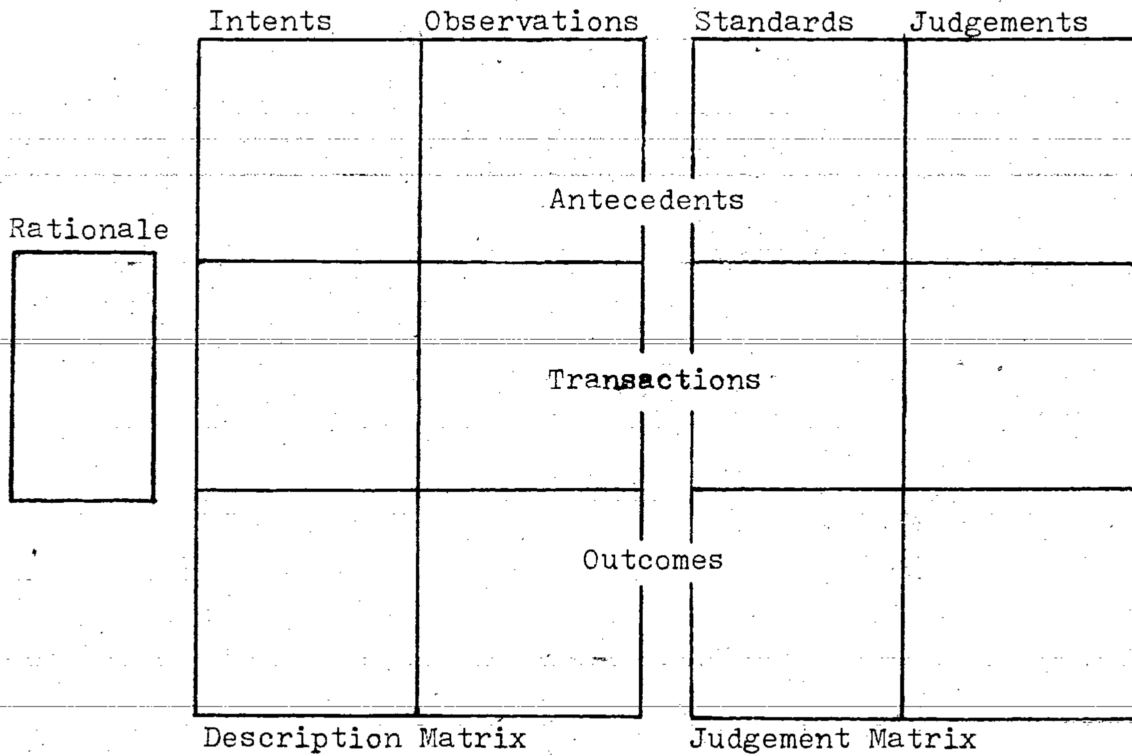


Figure 4:1 The Countenance Model of Evaluation

Reprinted from Teachers' College Record, 1967, 68; used with permission.

The boundary of transactions and outcomes is not always clear. For example, teacher team meetings after the workshop are both outcomes of the workshop and transactions of the implementation program. Outcomes though are relatively more static. They are the consequences of the program, the impact on teachers. For the Self-Directing Professional these will be completion of contracts, team meetings, frequency and kind of conversation about the program after the workshop, and changes in school climate. They are described in Life After Workshops (pp. 136-141).

These categories of information are part of four stages of evaluation activities: Intents, Observations, Standards of Judgement, and Judgement.

An evaluation usually, though not always, considers first what is intended. In this case, the Intents are explained in the Presentor's Guide and booklets of the Self-Directing Professional. These are available to the evaluation's audiences and are only briefly mentioned in the thesis. Intended variations specific to schools and facilitators, as reported in interviews with facilitators, are included.

Observations of the event and follow-up are the most involved activity of this study. The Intents and Observations are examined later for congruence, the extent to which what was actually intended happened. More

important, they are examined for <u>contingencies</u>, logical and empirical connections among the antecedents, transactions, and outcomes. According to Stake, contingencies are particularly important for a formative evaluation. They are also a distinguishing feature of research. The observation process and the analysis for contingencies are discussed in the section on field study methodology.

The third and fourth stages are establishment of Standards of Judgement and Judgement. The literature reviews on implementation and workshop design have already set those standards; in chapter eight, <u>Evaluation</u>, they are compared with the observed reality of the <u>Self-Directing Professional</u>.

A separate component from these stages and categories of information is the Statement of Rationale. According to Stake, the rationale helps the evaluator study the logical connections among intended antecedents, transactions, and outcomes. The rationale for the <u>Self-Directing Professional</u> comes mainly from the booklets, and is also implied in the Presentor's Guide and site agreement (the contract between the facilitator and school contact person). It is not discussed in a separate chapter, but is woven into the description and analysis.

Evaluation and Research

Because some authors take pains to distinguish carefully the realms of research and evaluation (Worthen and Sanders, 1973, Popham, 1975), it is appropriate to explain briefly why this thesis can be considered as both.

Prominent evaluators such as Cronbach (1980), House (in Hamilton *et al.*, 1976), Scriven (1976), and even Popham (1975) have commented on the considerable overlap between the two fields when one looks at formative evaluation, applied research, and policy research. This thesis is an evaluation because it judges the worth of a program in order to aid decision-making. It is also research because it seeks in chapter nine, *Themes*, a more general explanation about the *Self-Directing Professional*, (SDP), and innovations and workshops in general.

The next section on the field study methodology is appropriate for both purposes. From the evaluation perspective, it describes the procedures for determining the observed reality of the SDP, which is then evaluated by comparison with the standards described earlier. From the research perspective, it explains a system for progressive analysis of abstract principles which explain how workshops work.

Field Study

The model for the collection of data and analysis is *The Developmental Research Sequence* of James Spradley

(1979, 1980). His system of anthropological inquiry is well suited to the highly complex transactions of a workshop. It operates on two levels. It seeks to describe the concrete and commonplace of a culture, and it tries to draw out the cultural patterns that people use to organize their behaviour, make and use objects, arrange their space, and make sense of their experiences.

Culture is understood as the acquired knowledge people use to interpret experience and generate behaviour. The interpretation and behaviour may involve the cultural experience of riding a bus or attending a workshop. The knowledge may be explicit, something we can communicate with relative ease, such as the time and date of the workshop. It may also be tacit, outside our awareness, such as the seating arrangements participants unconsciously choose when entering the workshop location.

Spradley's main techniques for studying a culture are participant observation and the ethnographic interview. I have supplemented these with observation instruments, questionnaires, and focused interviews. The discussion of the <u>Developmental Research Sequence</u> will look closely at process observation. The other measurement techniques, and how they mesh with process observation will be explained afterwards.

Spradley's model has twelve sequential steps:

1 Locating a social situation
2 Doing participant observation
3 Making an ethnographic record
4 Making descriptive observations
5 Making a domain analysis
6 Making focused observations
7 Making a taxonomic analysis
8 Making selected observations
9 Making a componential analysis
10 Discovering cultural themes
11 Taking a cultural inventory
12 Writing an ethnography

Spradley describes the process as cyclical because data collection and analysis work together and research questions are developed in process. At first, observation is wide-ranging and then it slowly funnels to look at selected topics. It then widens again to give an overview of the culture under study. These steps will now be discussed in sequence.

1. Locating a Social Setting

The initial selection of the Self-Directing Professional (SDP) as the subject of evaluation limited the variables in choosing a setting. Restrictions on my time and money and my location in the Lower Mainland further restricted the choice.

Five settings were selected: three elementary, one secondary school, and a workshop for B.C.Teacher's Federation professional development chairpersons in the Fraser Valley area. The secondary school cancelled the workshop and I was sick on the day of the Fraser Valley event,

leaving only three schools.

The richness of data, however, was enhanced by my being trained as a workshop leader and by giving the workshop some months previously. That particular presentation and a colleague's observation of me were also an opportunity to field test instruments and the interview schedule.

I visited all three schools prior to the "pro 'd'" day, interviewed the on-site organizers and the schools' principals, and distributed a questionnaire. (I consciously restricted this pre-workshop contact in order not to influence subsequent events.) I took part in the workshops and followed up with visits, interviews, and another questionnaire.

2. Doing Participant Observation

Participant observation is a well-known research technique in education. Smith and Keith's Anatomy of an Educational Innovation (1971) was an especially important book for this study both because of the participant observation methodology and the similar topic.

Spradley describes variations in styles of participant observation according to the degree of involvement. At one end of the scale there is the nonparticipating observer; such would be the case with an ethnographic study of television programs. At the scale's other end, high involvement, there is complete participation when researchers study a situation in which they are already

participants.

Among the facilitators, I was close to a complete participant. I was trained to lead the workshop and did so once. Among the teachers at the schools studied, I was an active participant on the workshop day. Although an outsider, I tried to take part to the fullest without revealing any of my more extensive knowledge of the program. Being a teacher helped me gain acceptance. Fortunately, the Self-Directing Professional includes many periods of individual work and writing which drew attention from my own note taking and tallying of observations. With the teachers in my colleagial team following the workshop I was even more obviously an outsider who had arrived only to attend the meeting. Nonetheless, I tried to participate actively.

3. Making an Ethnographic Record

During and immediately following workshop observation and following school visits I made notes. In writing comments, I tried to record the language verbatim. In describing observations, I tried to be as concrete as possible. Interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed.

4. Making Descriptive Observation

The next six stages of the Development Research Sequence progressively focus from the general to the particular. The stages of observation are three: descriptive to focused to selective. These alternate with stages

of analysis.

In the period of descriptive observation, this study was concerned with the general question,"What takes place at a Self-Directing Professional (SDP) workshop?" and, later, "What happens after the workshop?" However, earlier exposure to the SDP had allowed me to telescope the stages of observation and develop some hunches about how the SDP worked. I recorded four of these in an earlier draft on methodology:

1. Prior staff knowledge of the SDP, attitudes towards it and towards in-service in general may influence the workshop.

2. The workshop leaders' skill in presentation, especially their use of Common Vision and Participation and Trust influence styles, may influence transactions.

3. Certain features of the workshop noted in earlier informal evaluations as strong (the Contract) or weak (the Goal Attainment Style and Vision) may influence transactions.

4. The amount and kind of contact among teachers in their colleagial teams, and with teachers by the site leader and by the workshop leader may influence what happens after the workshop.

These hunches led to my choice of the two observation instruments explained later in this chapter.

5. Making a Domain Analysis

Analysis is a search for patterns. In the Development Research Sequence the first analysis is of domains. A domain is a category of cultural meaning. It is composed of three basic elements: a covering term, the name for the domain; included terms, the names of all the small categories inside that domain, and the semantic relationship, the logical connection of the excluded terms and the cover term.

For example, one of my domains had the covering term "Problems in Goal Planning" and under that were included terms: diffuse unmeasurable goals, multiple goals, avoidance of a major problem (relevant to goal), lack of time to plan, and so on. The semantic relationship was "is a kind of ." Figure 4:2 diagrams this domain.

Insert Figure 4:2 about here

The domain is similar to what Glaser and Strauss (1967) called a "concept."

Even after weeks and months spent in observation and analysis, I would encounter a new domain. Eventually there were eighty-seven.

6. Making Focused Observations

The next step is to choose specific domains of interest and investigate them in detail. The choice was made

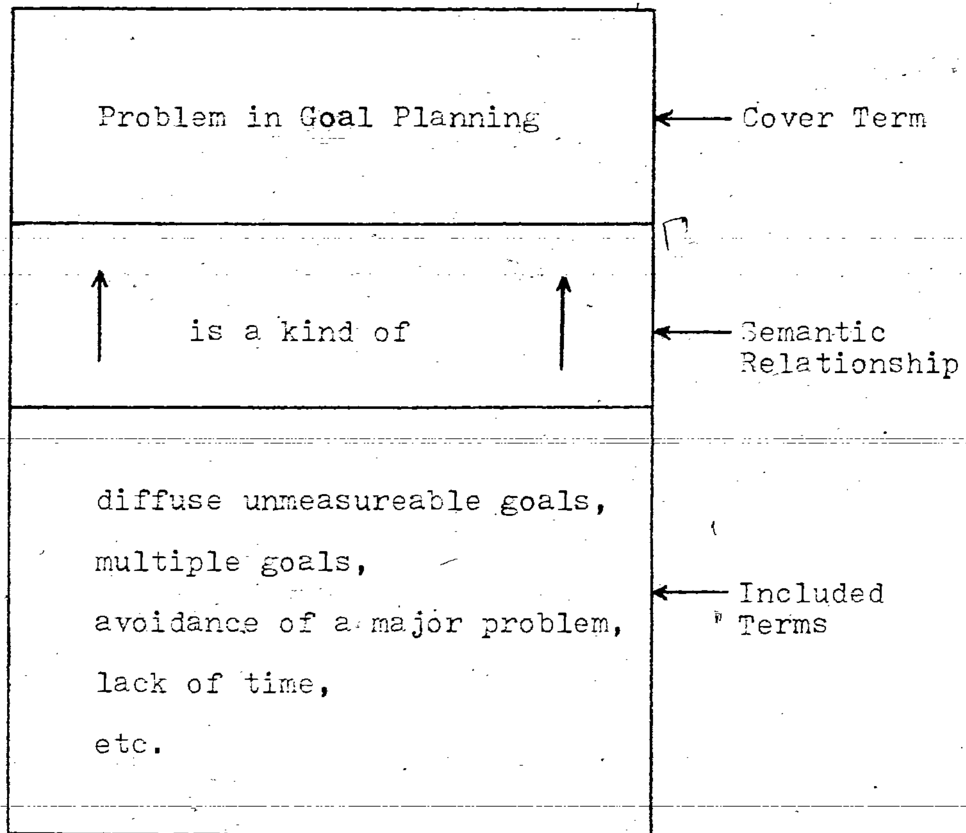


Figure 4:2 Domain of "Problem in Goal Planning"

from indirect suggestions from respondents such as "we would have liked more information beforehand" and the appearance of a few domains which had particular explanatory power such as "Stages in an SDP activity." From these were formed research questions such as the following:

Are there any other stages in pre-workshop contact?

Are there any other stages in an SDP activity?

Are there other kinds of facilitator design adaptations?

The process is much like Glaser and Strauss's idea of "saturation" of a category.

At this stage I had also begun interviews and the responses helped the focus of observation.

7. Making a Taxonomic Analysis

Here the researcher analyses the cover terms of the domains themselves for relationships. The focus is still narrow, but by searching for underlying patterns the groundwork is laid for a later look at holistic themes.

8. Making Selected Observations

The goal now is to define domains even more clearly by looking for differences among them. The three kinds of observation and their use over time are represented in Figure 4:3

Insert Figure 4:3 about here

Specific questions asked at this stage were contrast questions such as the following:

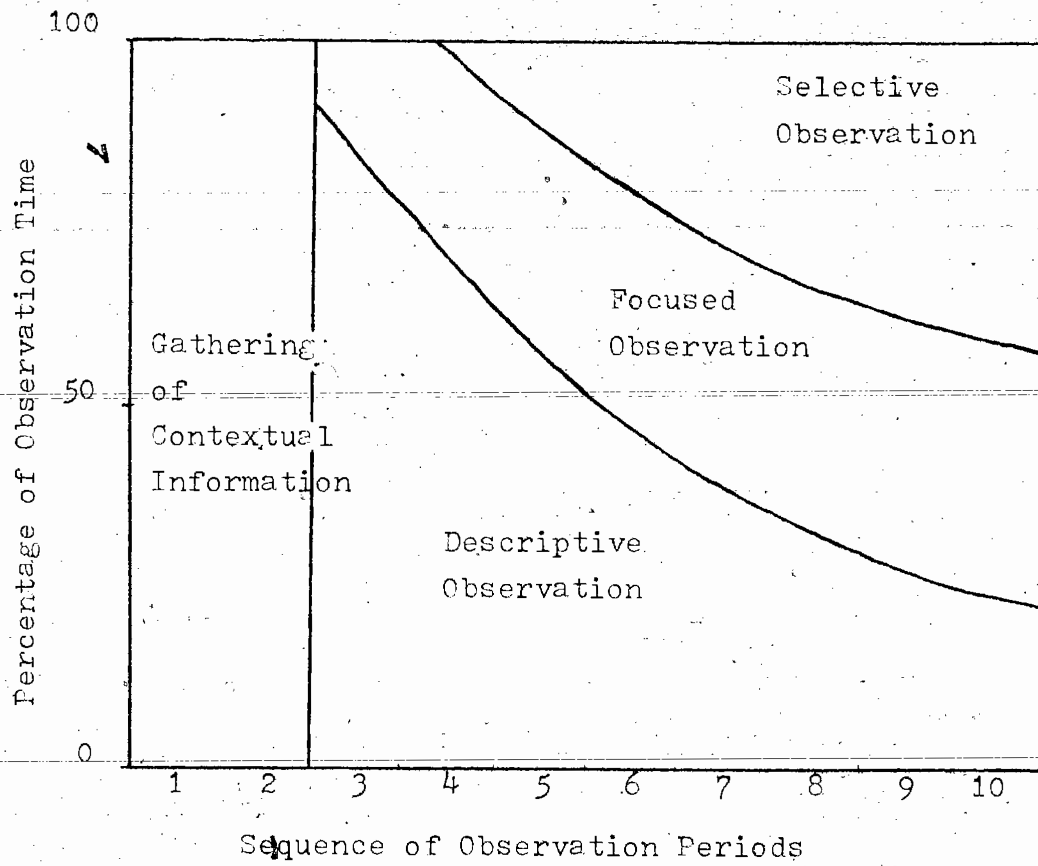


Figure 4:3 Relationship of Kinds of Observation to Observation Time (based on Spradley, 1980,p.108)

In what ways are each of the workshop components different in function? in participant response?

How does this presentation style differ from others?

How does it vary through the course of the day?

The process of narrowing the attention is very similar to Hamilton and Parlett's "progressive focusing " (1976). The technique of defining categories of meaning by seeking contrasts is similar to the comparative method of Glaser and Strauss (1967).

9. Making a Componential Analysis

A componential analysis is a systematic search for the attributes, or components of meaning, which are associated with the cultural categories. An example of this would be the chart of Pre-Workshop Communication on p.101. The semantic relationship was "stages in" and some of the stages were "first impression," "staff decision," "BCTF arrangements," and so on. Each of these was analysed for three attributes: people involved, type of communication, and decision made. For example, "first impression" involved the school site leader and possibly other staff, communication was written - by poster - and oral - by word of mouth, and the decision was whether or not to discuss the SDP with the whole staff.

10. Discovering Cultural Themes

Adequate ethnographic research needs to include both in-depth analysis of selected domains and an overview of the whole cultural scene. To give this larger picture,

Spradley describes how to discover cultural themes.

A cultural theme is any principle, tacit or explicit, that is common to many domains, and describes a semantic relationship among domains or taxonomic groups of domains. Often a cultural scene will be integrated around a theme, for example, much of the life of a school is organized around assumptions about gender, such as girls are better behaved than boys or boys are more physical. Often themes are at the tacit level of knowledge, that is, they are not expressed explicitly by people even though they know them and organize their life around them.

A cultural theme that emerged in this study concerned the gap between the teachers reality and the ideal image of the SDP. The teachers assume that their behaviour is valid and important. The facilitators are the main mediators who translate the program image for the participants. To some extent, the research found that the facilitators were aware of their role in bridging the gap such as when one adapted the design to include more group activities based on her reading of evaluation forms of earlier workshops. Similar adaptations were made by another facilitator without any conscious conceptualization.

During this stage I conducted my literature review which gave me insights into possible themes.

11. Taking a Cultural Inventory

This is the stage of organizing information from all data sources, identifying and filling gaps. For example,

after I had analysed fully the pre-workshop process I found I was not sure about how one school had first heard of the SDP and included a question on that in an interview with the principal.

12. Writing an Ethnography

The thesis is written at several levels of abstraction. There is the level of specific incidents and quotations, the level of general statements about the SDP, and that of abstract themes about workshops and innovations as a whole. According to Spradley, it is important to hold the reader's interest with the flesh of examples and specific incident statements, in addition to the skeleton of abstract statements.

The chapter on observations is primarily about the particular. From this data emerges the general statements and cultural themes.

Interviewing

To help increase the quantity, richness, and accuracy of the data collection, the study also employs interviews, observation forms, and questionnaires. The rest of the chapter describes the use of these and how they fit into the process observation sequence described above.

Interviews formed the next largest source of information. There were twenty-five formal interviews of on-site organizers, principals, teachers, and presentors. They averaged half an hour in length. As a trained presentor I was myself an informant on several points. The

questions were formed from the observation of the workshop and were presented in the manner of the focused interview described by Morton and Kendall (1946). They were tape recorded and transcribed, and sections were coded according to domains. The appendix includes the interview schedules.

The facilitators were interviewed soon after their presentations. They also looked at the participant evaluation forms and made comments.

In order to avoid influencing the impact of the workshop on the teachers, I generally did not interview them until five weeks following. This also meant that I received a perspective less influenced by the characteristic positive emotions just after a workshop, but with a probable loss of some vividness of recollections.

The interviews of the teachers who had attended the first workshop coincided with my process observation of the others and the responses aided my choice of focused observations.

Observation Instruments

The workshop observation included two quantifying techniques. For the first, the day was divided into seven possible categories: leader presentation, large group discussion, large group activity, small group activity, small group discussion, individual activity, and breaks. An activity was defined as any task to be

completed, for example, the Contract. During the workshop an on-going record of time devoted to each component was kept, giving note book entries like the following:

Time	Activity	Comment
9:50 - 10:10	i (individual activity)	Joy/Misery booklet
10:10 - 10:35	d (small group discussion)	in 2's to discuss J/M
10:35 - 10:40	P (presentation)	sum-up of learning
10:40 - 10:50	B. (break)	coffee

A second observation technique was the recording of frequency of influence styles on the tally sheet included in the appendix. The form is made up of behavioural descriptions of a conceptualization developed by Harrison (1977) and described in the literature review. The concepts and descriptions directly correspond; hence the validity of the instrument is assumed.

Questionnaires

Three different questionnaires were used at three different times: a few days prior to the workshop, immediately following it, and five weeks following.

The first questionnaire was designed to look at a number of variables among which were subject and grade level of the participants, teaching experience, experience in groups, and opinions on school climate. The last mentioned was covered by questions from Schmuck _et al_. (1977). These were included also in the final questionn-

aire giving some pre-test, post-test comparison.

The second questionnaire was given at the conclusion of the workshop. These kinds of forms have been referred to by Davis (1974) as "a popularity poll" and by Conroy (1978) as "happiness data." At the end of a workshop participants are happy (to be going, that it's over, or that they have learned something) and their remarks are often soft and nice (Davis, 1973). Such evaluation measures emotional reactions rather than learning (Ronaghan, 1979).

Nonetheless, the forms did give information that was useful in constructing interview questions and the final questionnaire, and information useful in comparing one workshop to another.

One question on the overall opinion of the workshop in relation to other professional development days was included again in the final questionnaire to give some indication of movement away from the "happiness" response.

The first and third questionnaires were tested for face validity by a group of faculty associates at Simon Fraser University. All were knowledgeable in evaluation. The first and second questionnaires were also field tested, checked for validity in subsequent interviews, and revised.

Summary

This study of the Self-Directing Professional (SDP) is a formative evaluation intended for program improvement. The next few chapters follow the Countenance Model of

Robert Stake. They consider the intended workshop and implementation plan along with the observed reality, refer to standards of judgement, and compare these standards with the observations.

The study is also research. In establishing the observed reality, it follows the Developmental Research Sequence of James Spradley. This is an ethnographic methodology that yields a description of the particulars of the workshop and program implementation and an explanation of the broader cultural themes underlying the whole scene. The research methods are participant observation, interviews, observation instruments, and questionnaires.

There are then three parts: first, a description of life in and around the SDP workshop, second, an evaluation of the SDP as a workshop and as innovation intended for implementation, and, third, an explanation of cultural themes.

CHAPTER FIVE

LIFE BEFORE WORKSHOPS

To set the stage for the workshops, this chapter describes the schools, the facilitators, and the steps in organization of the events. According to the Countenance Model, the first two topics are antecedents, and the organizing steps are transactions.

The writing follows the ethnographic research model and includes both the particular and the general. There are concrete descriptions and direct quotations, as well as abstractions and generalizations. The description of events leads to the occasional use of the first person singular.

The Schools

All three of the schools studied were elementary schools. Sir Mark Eggli* and Valleyview each had thirteen teachers and a principal and about the same population, 250, of students from kindergarten to grade seven. Patel school was smaller with 160 students, kindergarten to grade five, and eight teachers. Eggli was the location studied in greatest depth.

Eggli Elementary was located in one of the municipalities surrounding Vancouver. Although the school was bordered on two sides by forest, it was close to several clusters of townhouses and condominiums. The construction of more housing developments posed a challenge to the school. On the

* Names of persons and schools have been changed.

wall of the principal's office was a huge black and white aerial photo of the neighbourhood with planned developments in red. The principal spoke of hundreds of new students expected in the next school year.

The building had two ground level classroom wings and a second floor of classrooms above an assembly/play room. One wing had grades K to three, the other, the intermediate grades, and the second floor had special education classes and the staff room. The physical separation of the different grades was commented on by the teachers as a barrier to social contact.

The special education classes also influenced Eggli's staff relations. The principal, a part-time teacher as well, estimated he spent sixty percent of his administrative time with the three special classes and their teachers. The relationship of one of these teachers and the principal was particularly poor. An open argument between them occurred during the workshop. Some months after the study, the special education section was burnt down after a student started a fire.

A low level of social contact and a high level of conflict were general features of staff relations at Sir Mark Eggli. Contact among staff members was limited because of extensive supervision, a half-hour lunch, and the physical plan. The following comments were typical:

> I don't have time to recess or lunch with the other staff so I don't have time to talk to them.

> The men are involved in sports, if you do see them its just for a few minutes.
>
> We're very overburdened with duties and we never seem to have the same free time.

The second feature was a high level of conflict between some staff members and the principal, and also among staff. Like all conflicts it had an extensive history and a complexity, to the extent that it could be another thesis to portray it adequately. Nonetheless, the tensions were freely commented on by staff, reflected in questionnaire items, and observable at the workshop. Some of the opinions of teachers on the conflict were as follows:

> It's just lack of respect (by the principal towards a teacher) and I'm sick of it.
>
> I can't stand this profession. I love it when I can close the door, but when someone roughshods over another... no democratic process.
>
> The more forceful we get, the more resistance we get.
>
> This school is giving me an ulcer.

The principal spoke of the problem as "strong personalities and inevitable conflicts" and of his responsibility to make decisions. He also explained in an interview a historical context starting with a highly incompetent principal two years ago followed by six months with no principal at all.

Other teachers spoke more highly of the principal or at least sympathized:

> Unlike my other school, the principal here is really supportive.
>
> He's changing. He was really supportive of having this workshop.
>
> He's caught in the middle.

One teacher described the staff as being in two camps: those that go looking for problems and those that hide from them. There were tensions between these camps as well.

Nonetheless, respondents from both camps expressed a desire for the workshop to help to resolve their internal problems.

In sharp contrast, Patel Elementary had little tension. The vice-principal said:

> The school almost runs itself.
>
> They're a good staff. Everyone's co-operative. You know in some schools there are always one or two bad apples, but not here.

Patel is hidden away at the end of a cul-de-sac in East Vancouver. It is small and, like Eggli, it faces a challenge of numbers in the near future. However, its problem is declining enrollment that may soon result in reduced services to the school. The decline has already resulted in Patel losing a resident principal and being appointed a vice-principal who shares responsibilities with the official principal at a neighbouring elementary school some blocks away. Yet as one teacher said at lunch time, "fortunately, the principal is a great guy and our vice-principal has worked with him for several years so there is

no problem in co-operating."

The third school, Valleyview, is, like Eggli, located in a municipality outside of Vancouver. Its most distinctive feature is the large native Indian student population from a nearby reserve. In an effort to respond better to the needs of the Indian as well as the non-native community, Valleyview has become an unofficial community school. It has a community education aide, day-care, an open-door policy for parents, and evening classes.

It was a rainy overcast day when I first visited Valleyview. The principal took me on tour and I was struck by the number of activities. In front of the office was a pink paper post office dispensing stamps for Valentine's Day. An Indian carver came in with two rough cut cedar logs one of which he was to carve at the school, while the students were to carve the other. The evening of the workshop day was a carnival. (I dutifully bought raffle tickets for the prize of a Cowichan Indian sweater.) There were also weekly field trips for cultural enrichment.

Like Eggli, Valleyview had a low level of staff interaction. At several lunch hours when I visited, less than half the staff were present. "I can go days without seeing adults," said one teacher. The school is also spread out. Yet lunch hours were one hour long, and there were regular staff meetings, and activities around which staff organized.

There was some dissatisfaction with the school climate reflected in questionnaires, but the number of respondents was too few to draw any strong conclusions. During conversation with me on the professional development day, three teachers agreed that the staff was "strong, busy, and independent." No conflict was observed at the workshop.

The Facilitators

All of the facilitators for the Self-Directing Professional (SDP) are practicing teachers. They receive a day's leave to present the workshop. There is no pay, apart from expenses, and no additional leave time for preparation.

The presentors were themselves trained in Victoria over a five day period in August, 1980 by Challenge Education Associates, the program developers. In November, 1980, and May, 1981, they attended weekend training sessions.

The four facilitators involved in this research had had no previous experience in professional development workshop presentation. One of the co-facilitators at Eggli was giving the SDP workshop for the first time. The two solo facilitators at Patel and Valleyview were presenting it alone for the first time.

Pre-Workshop Communication

The rest of the chapter describes the transactions involved in organizing the workshop. Figure 5:1 lists the six stages involved and summarizes the major characteristics of each one.

Insert Figure 5:1 about here

Stage One: First Impressions

A large blue and black poster, entitled "BCTF 1980 Pro 'D' Workshops" and mailed out to every school, introduces the SDP with these words:

> The Self-Directing Professional has been designed to be a school-based, one-day workshop with both preparatory and follow-up steps for staffs. The goals of the workshop are to assist teachers to establish a collegially supportive environment and systematically to develop ways of becoming more self-directing in their competence, influence, and joy on the job...

This was the main means by which the SDP was presented to the three schools of this study. However, it was not the only or the first contact for some staff members. According to Marie Kootnekoff of the BCTF, the chairpersons responsible for school professional development often phone her asking "what kind of workshops do you have?" and receive their initial description verbally from her. Alternatively, staffs hear of the SDP by word of mouth.

Stages in Pre-Workshop Communication:	Dimensions of Contrast		
	People involved:	Type of communication:	Decision:
1. First impressions	contact person, some staff	written (poster) or verbal (word of mouth)	on discussing further with whole staff
2. Staff decision	whole school staff	verbal (face-to-face)	on choosing SDP
3. Arrangements with BCTF	contact person, BCTF staff	telephone	on facilitator
4. Arrangements with facilitator	contact person, facilitator, principal	telephone or verbal (face-to-face)	on logistics
5. Distribution of readings (sometimes)	whole staff	written (booklets)	no decision
6. Further staff discussion (sometimes)	whole staff	verbal (face-to-face)	varied: on school goal, on having SDP workshop

Figure 5:1 Stages in Pre-Workshop Communication

At two of the three schools studied, the poster and BCTF verbal description were the initial information sources. At Valleyview, there was also a very positive description of the program by one staff member who had attended a presentation by Maurice Gibbons, one of the originators of the SDP.

Stage Two: Staff Decision

At Eggli Elementary a copy of the poster (which described seven other workshops in addition to the SDP) was circulated to staff by the teacher in charge of professional development (henceforth referred to as the site leader or contact person). Each staff member was asked to check off his or her preferred workshop. The SDP was the third choice after "Structuring the Educational Environment" and "Managing Stress", however the BCTF was unable to organize those and eventually the SDP was arranged. Unfortunately, this left less time for the succeeding stages of organization.

At Patel too, the SDP was not the first choice, but was chosen after "Managing Stress" was unavailable. Valleyview considered stress management, before choosing the SDP.

In response to the question "What kind of questions did staff ask about the workshop when they were deciding on it (at a meeting)?" the Eggli contact person responded:

Will there be written reports on our follow-up meetings?

Is it going to be touchy-feely like the workshop last year?

What is the principal's reaction?

The contact person also said that the staff was very anxious to have the workshop in order to resolve internal conflicts. However, this was somewhat contradicted in later interviews by teachers who said the staff as a whole did not have enough commitment and by those who expressed their own lack of enthusiasm.

At Patel, there were no questions asked at the staff meeting which decided to have the SDP.

At Valleyview there were also questions about the personal nature of the program and some comments on the meaning of the title, Self-Directing Professional.

At two of the three schools studied there was little discussion of the program prior to choosing it for a pro 'd' day. At Eggli, which was faced with a non-instructional day a few weeks ahead and no program to replace the SDP, discussion was more extensive. At the secondary school which cancelled a few days prior to the planned date, the decision on choosing the SDP had been made by the principal, also with little staff discussion.

Stage Three: Arrangements With the BCTF

At this stage the contact person phoned the Teacher's Federation to arrange the workshop. The BCTF contacted a facilitator, gave him or her the site leader's name and number, and the facilitator's to the site leader. The final action by the BCTF was to mail the site agreement to the school (included in the appendix). This agreement lists a number of preparatory steps (coffee and refreshments arranged, no telephone interruptions, and so on) and follow-up items.

Stage Four: Arrangements Between Facilitator and Site Leader

At this stage, the facilitator telephoned the site leader to discuss the program, school and logistics. At all schools there were three different phone conversations prior to the workshop. These overlapped with stage five. At Patel school, the facilitator also met in person with the principal and the teacher who was site leader.

One of the facilitators for Eggli had planned to meet the whole staff when questions arose over the site agreement; however she was unable to do so because of problems at her own school.

Stage Five: Readings (Sometimes)

Before the workshop, the facilitator at Eggli sent out SDP booklet one, The Self-Directing Professional, and booklet seven, A Ten Step Process. The Patel staff received

booklet one only. The workshop leader at Valleyview sent out no literature.

The readings are the second substantial source of information for the staff. On blue paper and spatiously laid out, booklet one defines what a self-directing professional is, gives a rationale, and objectives. In addition it sets a tone of emotion and action as revealed in the following quotations and content analysis:

> Competence and influence make us joyful. Being Being joyful we are better able to pursue greater competence and influence. Together they create an upward spiral of well-being. We are productive. We relate well to others. We control stress. We feel good (p.1).

One out of twelve words over the five pages is either influence, joy, pursue, or their derivatives. The booklet concludes with:

> Our experience with teachers in widely varying circumstances enables us to say confidently that completing this program can be one of the most important acts in your professional life [in type face]. If you decide it will be[in script].

There is no reference in the booklet to the "collegially supportive environment" of the poster description, although the formation of a team is mentioned.

The late arrival of the booklets at Eggli was a source of anxiety for teachers. At Valleyview, the principal, who was also site leader, felt the lack of readings also produced anxiety. He said "it's dangerous to approach a

workshop in that way. You take your chances without a lead-up."

Stage Six: Further Staff Discussion (Sometimes)

At Eggli and Valleyview there were further discussions on the SDP. At the secondary school described earlier there was also further discussion at this stage and a decision to cancel the workshop.

At Eggli there was considerable concern about two elements of the site agreement, the setting outside of the school and the nature of the follow-up. Staff members waited until the arrival of the booklets and then met to discuss the concerns the Friday afternoon before the Monday workshop. After much debate, they voted to continue with the SDP and to agree to a setting outside of the school, a nearby hotel.

At Valleyview, further talks took place about a possible all-school pro 'd' goal. It was communicated to the workshop leader that the staff had decided to focus on improving inter-student personal relations. However, on the workshop day the school goal focus was lost.

What Was Not Said or Not Heard

To this point, this section has described the sequence of the pre-workshop communication and organization. There were, however, gaps in that sequence. For example, until a

chance phone call by me to the Patel facilitator the night before the workshop, she was unaware that the site leader had changed the workshop location. The next day, at the new site there was also a problem with booking arrangements and participants moved to the basement at lunch. The Eggli workshop also took place in a basement, in a large conference room with no windows or heat. Participants sat in sweaters and coats until close to lunch time, and then ate a cold lunch. The Valleyview workshop was in a small private home with yellow and white striped wallpaper; beautiful, but unsuitable to tape paper on, what the facilitator had planned to do for several components.

In regards to communication about the program to staff, there was a good deal of confusion at Eggli about the nature of the follow-up. When asked in post-workshop interviews the question "Would you have preferred a follow-up to the workshop?" more than half of the respondents replied " I thought we were going to have a follow-up. Wasn't she going to come back to visit us?" In fact, this had not been arranged.

In the other direction of communication, the two facilitators at Eggli did not learn that one member of the staff was extremely critical of the SDP. At Valleyview, there was confusion both ways about the choice of an all-school goal.

At all three schools, and especially at Valleyview where there were no readings and Eggli where they arrived late, participants generally wished for more information on the program. Two of those interviewed at Eggli suggested a visit by the facilitator beforehand would have been helpful.

Summary

The climate of the three schools studied was the main distinguishing feature. Eggli was a school with considerable conflict among the staff and with the principal. They looked to the workshop for help to resolve it. Patel was a school with a harmonious climate. Valleyview was a school without noticeable conflict, but one which put many demands on teacher time.

The facilitators were all practicing teachers with no experience in delivering in-service workshops prior to the SDP training. They received the one day leave from regular duties to deliver the SDP. At Eggli there were two co-facilitators for fourteen participants, at Patel one for eight, and at Valleyview one for sixteen (fourteen regular staff members and two student teachers).

The preparatory process for the workshop had six stages: first impressions, staff decision, arrangements with BCTF, facilitator and site leader arrangements, readings, and further staff discussion. Some of the significant features of that sequence were as follows:

1. The nature of the communication from the facilitator was mainly by telephone and always through the principal or site leader, never directly with staff.

2. The BCTF promotional poster communicates a different message in highlighting the "supportive environment" than the reading or, as one will see later, the SDP workshop.

3. One of the booklets distributed to participants communicates excitement and individual self-direction.

4. The pre-workshop communication with two schools raised expectations which were only partly congruent with the program.

5. Insufficient communication raised anxiety levels at two schools.

6. Most participants preferred more information about the SDP prior to the professional day.

7. A frequent concern of teachers was the possible personal nature of the program.

8. A number of problems, especially logistical ones, occurred which affected the workshop.

9. There was little in-depth discussion in the initial decision to choose the SDP.

CHAPTER SIX

WORKSHOP LIFE

> If the program glows, the evaluation should reflect some of it. If the program wobbles, the tremors should pass through the evaluation report.
>
> - Robert Stake in Hamilton, *et al*., 1977, p. 162.

The first section of this chapter describes the events of and responses to the workshop at Sir Mark Eggli Elementary. The Eggli workshop is then compared with the other workshops for overall participant response, timing, facilitation style, design and other domains. From that comparison comes the generalizations listed in the summary.

In keeping with Spradley's admonition to show how things actually happen, the next few pages give a narrative of the Eggli workshop in its glow and wobble. As in the previous chapter, this means the use of the first person voice.

The Eggli Workshop

In good spirits, arms full of boxes stuffed with blue booklets and orange extension cord, the two facilitators, Louise and Jane, and I arrived at the hotel early.

"Could you tell me which room the Sir Mark Eggli school teachers are in?" Jane asked a hotel employee.

"I'll check... I'm sorry, there's no record here. I'll get the clerk."

Joined now by an equally early teacher, we waited

and paced until finally led downstairs to a windowless cold conference room with a yellow carpet, stale air, and stacks of chairs and tables.

I soon grew warmer moving furniture for the facilitators into a semi-circle of chairs with tables behind, and then shaking hands with staff members. We talked of CUSO and Prince George and the differences between elementary and secondary schools.

Margaret, the site leader, arrived shortly with coffee and zucchini muffins.

As 9:00 approached, one or two of the staff were filling out questionnaires distributed days earlier; but we started right on time.

Louise led things off with a warm-up activity, asking us to break into twos to discuss a recent significant change in our lives and our expectations for the workshop. My partner had taught last year at a Catholic school not far from my home, and he was pleased now to be in the public school system and pleased too to be at the workshop.

We introduced our partners to the whole group. The atmosphere seemed lively and positive with frequent banter and laughter. My notes included one of the introductory comments:

"We can learn things here that will help us for our whole life," was one of several very positive opening

statements from the principal.

From the warm-up Louise briefly presented to us the agenda on an overhead projector (for which she had the forethought to bring the orange extension cord). No workshop objectives were given. I recorded one sentence from the introduction that I was to hear in almost the same form in the other workshops:

"We are sure you will have the best possible day today."

Jane joined Louise to give a brief role play presentation of a typical staff room complaint session:

"You know those damn kids ... and then you know the stupid principal, he ..."

Out of the role play, but still with humour and animation, they introduced the booklet, Day of Joy and Day of Misery, a written individual assignment. After twenty minutes we were asked to share the results in groups of two. This was the first variation from the guide for presentation of the SDP, albeit a slight change. The exercise was concluded without any group debriefing, an ommission characteristic of other activities throughout the day and of the other workshops.

After a quick coffee break, the next session began with a lively story from Jane about her first and most miserable year teaching and the support she received from her principal. Shortly thereafter, we were looking at a

stick drawing of a half-man, half-woman in blue and red felt pen on poster paper with the label Super Self-Directing Professional. (This was the second design variation.) As a group everyone thought of one person whom they felt was influential in his or her life and then threw out adjectives to describe that person:

"Dynamic."

"A sense of humour."

"Confident."

They came thick and fast, faster than Louise could write them up next to her stick woman/man. Enthusiasm was high. We wanted to be super self-directing.

At 11:00 Jane told us of her own efforts to lose weight and the support she had got from Terence, a colleagial team member she had met at the training program in Victoria. She described her weight loss program and Terence's humorous cajoling letters. The staff broke into spontaneous applause and someone shouted "Bravo!"

Jane had both explained the rationale of the next component, the Colleagial Team, and emotionally charged us.

We were then asked to choose two people that we normally had little contact with for our team members. We milled around and soon had our teams. Although I was unaware at the time, the instructions to choose unfamiliar partners encouraged several antagonists to be in the same team.

The facilitators introduced the concept of Goal Attainment Style and its acronym GAS with another role play presentation. They then asked us to brainstorm in our teams different ways that one uses to attain a goal. We wrote these down on poster paper and put them up for all to see. There was friendly joking and loud talk, although participants reported later that they did not understand the relationship of GAS to the whole program. (The GAS brainstorming and its position in the agenda before the next component, the Vision, were also variations from the standard format.)

Louise next led us through the Vision, a guided fantasy of oneself one year in the future as the most competent, successful, and happy as one can imagine. Lights were dimmed, people spread around the room, some sat on the floor. Louise asked us to close our eyes and to imagine an apple: "Feel it in your hand, the touch of the skin, notice the colour... now take a taste of that apple..." She then invited us to construct a vision of ourselves, an image of excellence. When the lights were on again and eyes were open, she asked us to write down in another booklet what our vision was and to reflect over lunch on a short-term goal contained in that vision.

My notes read "too fast paced to become involved, real vision (of ourselves) not as concrete as the apple one." Yet in later interviews several teachers expressed appreciation of it, one compared it to a hypnotic induction, others

agreed with my notes, and others dismissed it as not to their taste.

One participant went to the washroom just prior to the Vision, returned briefly at its conclusion, and then left for the day.

We broke for lunch. The staff passed around a "Happy New House" card for all to sign and presented it to one teacher.

As we reconvened, it was discovered that another teacher and the principal had left the workshop. The site leader, Margaret, who had been in the same group as them was angry. "I'm cheesed off. He has no right to ruin my day," she said loudly.

The facilitators had her join another group, made a brief comment expressing their bewilderment with the troubles, and presented the next section.

The afternoon was spent choosing a short-term five week goal towards the more long term vision and planning to achieve that goal. This was done in our teams along the format of the Contract, booklet eight.

Jane introduced the afternoon with a story of poorly prepared students hiking up Black Tusk in the snow with running shoes and no can-opener for their tinned food. Louise and Jane then acted out the completion of a contract for Jane's weight loss plan.

They explained the challenge of the contract and exhorted us to stretch and risk failure.

There were some common problems in planning that were encountered at Eggli and the other workshops. Sometimes goals were too grandiose or complex to be achievable in five weeks. Sometimes teams were poor collaborators.

At Eggli, during this time, another teacher left her team and joined another.

The principal and teacher returned a half-hour before the end. I overhead conversation with them and others that continued to discuss their dispute. They did not join in to the activity.

At 3:00, Louise distributed another booklet, <u>Post Conference Follow-up</u>, which asked us to decide on future meeting dates for our teams and what we would have accomplished by then. Louise also asked us to write ourselves a letter: "Dear ~~me:~~ By the end of five weeks I will have [achieved whatever the participant's goal was]." She mailed these out to us a month later.

The day concluded with the written evaluation forms and half the staff moved upstairs to the hotel bar.

<u>Participants Responses</u>

The description to this point has included participant responses mainly as they were observed by the evaluator. This section will now turn to the participants'

responses when interviewed five weeks later. This will be followed by more data and comparisons on all three workshops.

The number of respondents expressing the same opinion are given in brackets.

The most often mentioned positive response (ten out of thirteen respondents) was for the facilitators - their enthusiasm, role plays, and supportive manner. This was a typical comment:

> I liked the keenness of the people who conducted the workshop - Both ladies were really gung-ho about the whole thing. Their enthusiasm and positive manner were refreshing... They never let anything slow them down or stop them. There was always another question instead of an answer where there was a problem... They just suggested other areas - "Well what about this?" - and that opened up a lot of people's minds as opposed to saying this is the way it is and being pessimistic.

Group interaction or sharing was the second most common positive feature (mentioned by seven respondents):

> I liked the point where you could share with people what made a good or bad day and someone listened to you. You could brag perhaps or have a chance to spill out what was really bugging you, but somebody was listening and maybe felt the same as you did or agreed with you. I enjoyed that part.

Other favourable responses were appreciations of the clear sequence of activities (three respondents) and the booklets (two). Certain components of the day were also mentioned notably the Contract (five) - "It made things firm because you've told others and they can hassle you if you don't produce" - ; the Vision (four) - "like a hypnotic

induction" - ; and Day of Joy and Misery (three) - "a real eye-opener." However, except for the Contract, all positive views on the components were mixed with negative comments from other participants.

Participants' negative comments or suggestions for change were grouped into three categories: criticisms of the facilitation, of the workshop design, and of the program assumptions. These categories overlap, for example, the personal aspect of the program was encouraged by both the facilitators and the program design.

Although the opinions of the facilitators were extremely positive, there were five staff members who questioned the inclusion of personal goals.

> Typical "let's all hold hands and have a little group therapy." I don't like those things. I hate them.
>
> We veered from the professional aspect. We started off pairing with someone we normally didn't talk to and shared personal secrets... All their examples were personal... The door was open to role playing.
>
> It should have stated beforehand what it was all about. If I knew it was personal, I wouldn't have gone to them (the facilitators). I wouldn't discuss it in front of my colleagues.

Those who expressed these opinions were among the most critical of the workshop on many accounts.

A second criticism of the facilitation, and that could also be made of design, was the lack of information prior to the workshop.

The major criticism of the design was the lack of time (five respondents) as reflected in these quotations:

> It might have helped to do it over two days. It was pretty rushed. The transitions weren't all that clear. At one point, GAS, we weren't very clear what was going on.
>
> Maybe the way it ended was a little fuzzy. Maybe it was the time constraints.

Another suggestion for design change was to include more large group interaction (four). This was made by those who had expressed most strongly the desire for the SDP to help improve school climate.

> The workshop should have been more on the interpersonal level. I felt that was where the workshop was going well, then it devolved into having a personal goal. It was like we were going to work together, then it left that and we went to our own personal things. After lunch, on the contract, it became individual.

Two teachers felt that the staff was not ready for the workshop. Although it was an opinion of only two respondents, I have included it, because it seems to explain somewhat the problems of the SDP at the Eggli workshop. This was what one of the teachers said:

> The idea of a colleagial group is really neat. I think you need a staff that works together initially to facilitate any kind of enriching change. I think it may have been at too advanced a stage for this particular staff... You probably needed some groundwork, what do they call it at university? Some prerequisite conditions.

The third category of critical responses, on assumptions, are two viewpoints which challenge the nature of the

program. Each of these was mentioned by only one person. They reveal no pattern of response, but have been included because they were unique in their forcefulness of expression and their depth of perception.

One teacher, who had trouble in choosing a goal, lashed out, "What's bothering me is that this presupposes something's wrong with you and I'm bloody sick and tired of this... I don't have anything pressing. There's nothing I have to change."

The second teacher criticized the overall workshop process:

> Telling someone how to swim and swimming are two different things and I really think that workshops should get in and work with people in the situation that they're in. I think that they should see some kind of explosive type things that happen. They should come in and see what's the problem. "O.K. everybody write down what was the major confontation you've had this year which was either teacher-teacher or teacher-administration." It can be done anonymously. The workshop person could pull it out of a hat and they could deal with it through step processes or whatever processes they want. Until things are put into practice there will be little change.

The respondent has acknowledged that the program was not well received by his staff, but unlike those who queried staff readiness, he questions the workshop.

In brief, the Eggli workshop was liked primarily because of the enthusiasm and support of the presentors, the social interaction, and the contract. It was criticized

for its personal focus by those who were most negative about the whole day, and by others for lack of time and not enough whole staff interaction. Two teachers questioned their staff's readiness for the workshop, while another approached the problem from the other side and questioned the workshop's relevance to school practice.

Comparison of Workshops

To this point, the chapter has described the process and participant opinions of a single workshop. From here on, it will compare that workshop to two others in order to define conceptual categories or domains, and to look for common features.

The first comparison is of participant responses, followed by consideration of the tabulations from two observation instruments, on influence styles and timing, then design variations and other domains.

Participant Responses

The overall responses immediately after the workshop are given in Table 6:1.

Insert Table 6:1 about here

Table 6:1: Results of Post-Workshop Evaluation Forms (selected questions)

Question	Median Response on a scale from 1, poor, to 7, excellent		
	Eggli	Patel	Valleyview
1. Please rate the effectiveness of the various workshop components:			
a. Print materials (booklets)	6.5	6.0	6.0
b. Workshop leader's presentations	6.4	6.0	5.3
c. Participants' activities (Joy and misery, vision, etc.)	6.1	6.4	5.3

Question	Median Response on a scale from 1, very much worse, to 5, very much better *		
	Eggli	Patel	Valleyview
2. How would you rate the program in comparison with other professional development workshops in which you have participated?	4.3	4.4	3.8
When question 2 was asked in a questionnaire five weeks after the workshop, the responses were:	3.7	3.9	(insufficient number)

* At Eggli n=13 out of 14 participants; at Patel n=9 out of 9, at Valleyview n=11 out of 17. There were 3 student teachers in attendance at Valleyview.

Below are some written responses by Patel staff to the question "What was the most valuable part of the workshop?"

> Determining I am most responsible for my own "joy."
>
> Scheduling and commitment- -motivation to perform within the critical time frame.
>
> Discussing with my team and brainstorming as to the possible alternatives.

To the question on the least valuable part, only two of the nine respondents replied:

> Goal was not well worked out.
>
> Some of the written material.

In an interview five weeks on from the workshop day, Patel's vice-principal spoke of the warmth of the facilitator and the high quality of the workshop content. Some of his comments were:

> I liked the way the workshop was structured. There didn't seem to be a time pressure. Although there was, it wasn't very apparent.
>
> She (the facilitator) seemed to be able to get everybody to do something with the booklets.

He also liked the break for lunch at the restaurant and being away from the school at a teacher's centre: "it gave the teachers a sense of their own importance to meet at the centre."

Some of his suggested changes were to have teachers choose a goal before the workshop, "maybe some time was

wasted in wrestling with this one thing," and to consider the size and composition of the group. "Maybe twelve should be the maximum number. You have to think of feedback when you're finished and getting together and being aware generally of what people's goals are so you have a community of information which helps. I can go and check on the goals of someone else's group and that provides an opening for communication, and that's good."

At Valleyview, the comments on the post-workshop questionnaire on the most valuable part of the day fell into two groups. Four of eleven respondents valued most the staff interaction; and six mentioned the self-evaluation and goal-setting process.

The least valuable aspects of the day for the Valleyview teachers were the lack of time (eight respondents), the amount of leader talk (five), and the Vision (three). Some examples of comments are below.

> Pacing too fast.
>
> Time spent listening rather than experiencing the <u>content</u> more. Not enough time for finishing.
>
> Setting not conducive for meditation.

The principal of Valleyview was also interviewed five weeks afterwards. Below he describes some of the reactions of his staff to the day.

> We did an assessment afterwards, verbally went around the table, and essentially this is what people said: The interaction was great, but there was too much lead up time to activities.

> There was too much explanation in areas that were known and not enough in areas that needed explanations, for example, the celebration or buddy thing [colleagial team] ... Some activities were referred to and explained as something to look up and read at home...
> There was a fairly strong feeling about the BCTF direction in professional development. They wondered if this was the type of program they should be spending money on. They felt that this didn't help them very much with actual problems they face everyday...
> The people who had been through this particular workshop before with Maurice Gibbons felt that the charisma of Maurice Gibbons had a lot to do with the success of the workshop.

The principal added his own views:

> Part of the difficulty was that there was no lead up. [The facilitator] decided he wouldn't supply any information beforehand so everybody went in cold... There are anxieties before one goes in, especially if they feel they are going to have to expose themselves in some way...
> In the small group activities the staff weren't responding as they usually do. They were holding back... Two people in particular. It could have been anxiety. It could have been questioning something that came down from on high from some academic.

As a caveat, it should be noted that I was unable to collect very much data on the Valleyview school climate. This may have been a factor in the relatively poor reception of the workshop.

Influence Styles

The verbal presentations of the co-facilitators at Eggli, and the solo facilitators at Patel and Valleyview were tallied according to the frequency of use of influence styles. (See chapter three for an explanation

of these styles.) Table 6:2 compares the results.

The Reward and Punishment style was primarily employed for giving directions and expectations. Participation and Trust was used to involve participants. Common Vision was for exciting or exhorting the participants, such as when explaining the challenge. Assertive Persuasion was used mainly to explain the purpose of a component.

Insert Table 6:2 about here

It should be noted that the tallies refer only to frequency of use of a particular style and not to the length of the comment or the quality. This is significant in looking at the number of uses of Common Vision at the Eggli workshop where most of the tallies were for stories lasting several minutes. In fact, Common Vision was more of a feature than the numbers would indicate. On the other hand, at Valleyview the Common Vision influence behaviours were brief, embedded inside a larger explanation, and a with less enthusiastic tone of voice than the stories given by the Eggli leader. In this case, Common Vision was somewhat less prominent than the numbers suggest.

That qualification aside, perhaps the most striking characteristic of the results is the extreme varia-

	Eggli	Patel	Valleyview
Reward and Punishment:			
Evaluation	5	1	1
Prescribing Goals & Expectations	7	7	5
Incentives & Pressures	2	0	0
	14 (24%)	8 (25%)	6 (15%)
Participation and Trust			
Personal Disclosure	9	4	5
Recognizing and Involving Others	11	6	1
Testing and Expressing Understanding	9	2	0
	29 (50%)	12 (38%)	6 (15%)
Common Vision			
Articulating Exciting Possibilities	7	1	11
Generating a Shared Identity	3	0	1
	10 (17%)	1 (3%)	12 (38%)
Assertive Persuasion			
Proposing	4	10	12
Reasoning For or Against	1	1	5
	5 (9%)	11 (34%)	17 (41%)

Percentages refer to the distribution of use of the styles

Table 6:2: Frequency of Use of Influence Styles

tion from one setting to the other. One might well ask: are these the same workshops?

The facilitator at Valleyview seldom used the style of involvement and recognition, while its use was a major part of the other leaders' repertoires. This is consistent with the questionnaire responses wishing for less leader talk and more participant action. It is also confirmed by the tabulations in Table 6:3 on timing.

The facilitator at Patel used Common Vision only once in the day. She was, however, strong in Participation and Trust, and the only leader to consistently invite questions, an important method for involving others.

A possible reason for the varied patterns of use, apart from the obvious explanation of individual differences, was the situation of co-facilitation at Eggli and solo leadership at the other two workshops. At Eggli, one person made the majority of Reward and Punishment interventions. The Common Vision influence behaviour was almost exclusively employed by the other presentor.

Timing

The workshops were also broken down into lengths of time for various components. This was an easily measurable and important aspect of timing, but of course not the only one.

The components included discussions and activities

at the whole group, small group, and individual levels; leader presentations to the whole group; and breaks. Activities were considered as any assigned task, such as group brainstorming or individual completion of a booklet.

Insert Table 6:3 about here

The results shown in Table 6:3 reveal several features:

1. The great variation in use of time in what were basically the same workshop designs;

2. The overall emphasis on presentation, individual activities, and small group discussion, and de-emphasis of large group activities and discussion. This situation was regretted in interviews with some Eggli teachers;

3. The difference between the total time and the division of time suggested by the presentor's guide and the observed reality;

4. The lengthy break time at two of the three schools.

(The last feature probably reflected the social nature of pro 'd' days. At the Patel workshop, lunch was at an Italian restaurant. The Valleyview session was in a private home. The lunch was elegantly catered, one participant left to buy wine, and an award was given to the very pregnant school nurse.)

Timing was especially problematic at Valleyview. With

KIND OF WORKSHOP COMPONENT	AMOUNT OF TIME (in hrs. and mins.) Presentor's Guide	Eggli	Patel	Valleyview
Presentation to Whole Group	1:55	:55	1:05	2:10
Whole Group Discussion	:10	:30	:05	/
Whole Group Activity	/	:10	/	:05
Small Group Discussion	1:00	2:00	:20	1:10
Small Group Activity	/	:15	:15	/
Individual Activity	2:15	:50	1:40	:55
Total Time (excluding breaks)	5:20	4:40	3:25	4:20
Break	1:20	1:10	2:15	1:50
Total Time	6:40	5:50	5:40	6:10

Table 6:3: Timing

such a large amount of presentation time, the staff broke for lunch at 12:30 well behind the pace of the other two workshops. In consequence, the afternoon was very rushed, frustration was expressed, and the Post Conference Follow-up was omitted.

Design Changes

Most of the variations in format were minor; basically the content of all three workshops was the same. However there were a few significant adaptions.

The changes that were observed by the evaluator to be most successful, and which were also appreciated in questionnaire and interview responses, were those which involved group activities- -brainstorming on goal planning at Patel and the Super Self-Directing Professional at Eggli. The facilitators at Eggli explained in an interview that it had been their intention to increase group activities based on a need perceived at their previous workshops. The Patel facilitator did not give an explanation for her change.

There was another adaption which was judged worthwhile by the evaluator, although there was no observable evidence of it influencing participants. At Valleyview the leader, in his introductory remarks, anticipated some possible concerns- -that the SDP had been field tested, that visualization was involved, that it was okay to speak

out if uncomfortable- -and thus tried to alleviate anxiety. Unfortunately, this was inconsistent with a general approach of high leader control. In fact, I did not record an intervention by a participant during presentations until three hours into the workshop, indicating that they did not feel it was okay to speak up.

One change that was unsuccessful and unplanned was the omission of the Post Conference Follow-up at Valleyview. Because of the great time pressure and rush to complete contracts, the arrangement of team meetings was left out.

Other Comparisons

Debriefing, the questioning strategy described in the literature review, was omitted from all three workshops, as it is from the presentor's guide. The conclusion of an activity was sometimes a small group discussion without guidance, sometimes a few words summary by the leader, and often left out altogether.

In all three workshops there were also considerable problems in choosing and defining goals. About half the goals were personal in nature, weight loss being common, about half were professional. However these latter goals were generally not classroom related.

In all three workshops, there was also some evidence of difficulty in collaboration in small groups, although it was not determined how extensive the difficulty was.

Summary

From the information described in this chapter, a number of characteristics of the Self-Directing Professional workshop and in-service workshops in general become clear. On the SDP itself, here are some of the patterns that emerged:

1. Participants as a whole appreciated the content, notably the division into steps, the clear sequence, and the motivation of a written commitment to a team. They especially liked the Contract activity.

2. Participants highly appreciated the staff interaction.

3. In all workshops, there was an emphasis on presentation, small group discussion, and individual activities. Those activities involved reading and writing.

4. In all workshops, there was little or no large group interaction, no debriefing, and some difficulties in goal planning. Some colleagial groups also had trouble in collaborating.

5. Goals chosen by participants were roughly half-and-half, professional and personal. However, professional goals were generally not related to classroom practice.

6. In two of the three workshops, there was a lack of time to complete the agenda.

7. Both facilitation styles and timing varied greatly from workshop to workshop.

8. Design changes were few. There was general fidelity to the trainer's guide.

9. Of those changes that were made, the most successful were those that involved group activities.

10. The quality of design changes and facilitation was influenced by the available preparation time, skill, and experience of the facilitators. In the SDP workshops studied, all the facilitators were relatively inexperienced and had little preparation time.

There were also some features that seemed to be characteristic, not only of the SDP, but of in-service workshops in general:

1. The use of the full range of influence styles, and the avoidance of overreliance on any one, yields a better workshop. Participation and Trust involves participants; Common Vision excites and interests them.

2. Co-facilitation offers the possibility of a wider range of influence styles than does solo facilitation and hence a better workshop.

3. The quality of facilitation and design adaptions is influenced by the available time, skill, and experience of the facilitator.

4. Social interaction is highlyvalued by teachers.

5. Pre-workshop preparation is extremely important in running a workshop. (This is discussed in the previous

chapters.)

6. The school climate can be extremely important in the running of the workshop.

7. Professional development days are seen by teachers as a social as well as educational occasion.

This summary has described observations grounded in data and logic. Some of the points, such as co-facilitation offering the possibility of a wide range of influence styles, are based on limited data but are logically supportable. After a discussion of the impact of the workshops, these observations are assessed and interpreted further.

CHAPTER SEVEN

LIFE AFTER WORKSHOPS

The last chapter considered three very different presentations of essentially the same workshop. One was co-facilitated and that facilitation was well appreciated by the fourteen participants, especially for its enthusiasm. Nonetheless, there was conflict and resistance. Another presentation, to a smaller staff by a single leader, was also very well received, but there was little excitement generated by the leader. The third, given by one leader to seventeen participants, was not well liked, mainly because of lack of time and too much leader talk. However, at all three locations the overall content was regarded as valuable.

These workshops were the major tactic of the implementation process. Only the Patel facilitator plans to return to the school, and then only for a brief visit three and a half months after the workshop. There were no other interventions.

How successfully has the SDP goal attainment program been implemented? If it is used, how is it used? Are there any side-effects? How have the colleagial teams functioned? Table 7:1 gives some of the results from questionnaires distributed five weeks after the workshop, the stage when participants would have completed their first contracts.

Questions:	Responses: Eggli	Patel
1. One of the main goals of the workshop is to increase the participants' self-direction. To what extent do you think that the workshop helped you become more self-directed?		
1 helped a great deal	0	4
2	2	0
3 helped somewhat	7	4
4	2	1
5 did not help at all	1	0
2. Since the workshop, have you been able to achieve your goal?		
1 no	6	0
2 yes, to a minimum level	3	1
3 yes, to a satisfactory level	2	5
4 yes, to a level of excellence	0	2
3. How many times have you met with your colleagial team since the workshop?		
1 have not met	4	0
2 have met once	3	3
3 twice	2	3
4 three or more times	3	3

Table 7:1 Responses to Questionnaire on Impact (selected questions)

Insert Table 7:1 about here

There was an insufficient number of responses from Valleyview. However, in an interview, the principal said that there were only two or three people who were following through with their contracts. He was vague as to what they were actually doing. There had been no team meetings to his knowledge and no changes in school climate or procedures.

Interviews at Eggli school confirmed the questionnaire results that two persons of fourteen pursued their goals with satisfactory success. One teacher explored new approaches to discipline; the other established a filing system. Three others pursued goals of fitness or weight loss with limited success.

A number of the Eggli teachers pointed to the problems of complex goals and lack of follow-up as reflected in the following quotations:

> Some of the goals are intangible. There are certain contracts that are behaviour oriented and that are hard to measure, especially in the situations where you want to practice them, like staff meetings, don't arise. We really should have some expert coming back with us, someone to coach us, someone who is in our group meetings. One of these ladies [facilitators] should be in our group.
>
> There's a willingness, but not enough time. some kind of check up system would be good.

No changes in school climate or other side-effects were observed.

The one school where there was success was Patel. This was revealed in questionnaire results, informal observation and in an interview with the vice-principal.

When I visited the staff room five weeks following the workshop, there was a chart on the wall indicating the weight loss by one teacher since that time. Beneath it was a similar chart of the secretary who was not at the workshop, but was inspired by the teacher. That same day, the school had completed a half-day professional development day on science instruction that had been given by one teacher who had made it his goal.

The principal listed off several examples of those who were successfully pursuing goals. He concluded with this comment:

> Maybe its something that could be set up and really used by administrators 'cause I know for me, it's made my job a hell of a lot easier 'cause I've got some really enthusiastic people now. Not that they weren't before, but they're more enthusiastic because they've got some kind of direction.

The team meetings at Patel and at Eggli were generally check-in sessions of five to fifteen minutes. Team members reported on their progress and received encouragement, but did not undertake the suggested functions of problem-solving or celebration.

In brief, at Patel school, after five weeks, seven of nine respondents had met twice and completed their goals to a satisfactory level. One other person had reached a minimum level of achievement. At Eggli, two of fourteen made satisfactory progress; three others, minimum progress. At Valleyview, there was little or no impact.

At Patel, the principal said there was a positive influence on school climate: people were more enthusiastic. Research was not extensive enough to measure the nature or depth of the changes.

Team meetings at the two schools where there was implementation were brief check-in times. Members checked up on each other's progress and gave encouragement.

It would appear that the presentation and school setting were the important dimensions influencing implementation. The presentation at Valleyview was leader dominated, a situation encouraged by such things as frequent interventions to move along the agenda, emphasis on presentation, and absence of debriefing questions. The staff rejected the SDP procedures. The Eggli presenttation, had similar design characteristics, but recognized and involved participants much more, as well as excited them with lively testimonials. Nonetheless, it had minimal impact. The climate of conflict was certainly key at Eggli. At Patel school, the leader effectively encouraged participation, but generated little excitement.

That workshop had the most impact of all three schools. Here, the climate of harmony and the principal's personal enthusiasm were influential factors.

CHAPTER EIGHT

EVALUATION

> The hope that an evaluation will provide unequivocal answers, convincing enough to extinguish controversy about the merits of a social program, is certain to be disappointed.
>
> -Lee Cronbach *et al.*, 1980, p.3

The research findings will now be compared with the standards of judgement established in the reviews of the literature. Each factor in successful workshops and program implementation is considered in succession. The following chapter gives a more unified and explanatory analysis.

The evaluation is a formative one intended to provide information for decisions on program changes. Instead of summative judgements, each discussion of a factor concludes with some questions intended to illuminate that decision-making.

The SDP is considered first as a workshop design and then as an implementation process. Facilitation will only be discussed in relation to these.

The Self-Directing Professional Workshop

A Contextual Information

The literature stresses the need to gather information on participants, space, time, and materials in order

to plan effectively. Research suggests also that chances of success are improved with mutual planning by participants and leaders.

In practice, the workshop leaders obtained such information prior to the workship mainly by telephone from their contact persons. The information depended on that one source. On workshop days, there were some problems attributable to incomplete information, most commonly logistical problems.

With a "packaged" design and limited contact of facilitators and school staff, there were no obvious opportunities for teacher participation in planning. However, in one case there was a desire expressed by the school to develop an all-school goal. For reasons not completely clear, this was not included in the workshop and was viewed as a lost opportunity by the principal.

It should be noted here that facilitators, as practicing teachers themselves, have limited time to gather planning information or to mutually plan with staffs.

Given these restrictions, what procedures could give better planning information to the facilitators? To what extent could teachers be involved in planning?

B Readiness

The readiness of the individual and the group is important in deciding whether to include or change certain components, or whether even to give a workshop.

The SDP site agreement stresses that all teachers participate voluntarily, yet at one of the schools studied, the data suggest that sufficient commitment was not there prior to the workshop.

Is readiness important to consider? If yes, how should it be measured and judged?

C Preparation of Participants

The better preparation, the better chances of success. Research findings show that person-to-person communication and a demonstration of sample content by persons respected by the teachers are ideal methods.

At one of our schools, because of late arrangements, written information arrived only five days prior to the session. At a second school the facilitator sent no readings. In both cases, there was anxiety among participants.

In all three schools, there was no personal contact of facilitators and the whole staff prior to the workshop day. In one case, there was a meeting of the site leader, vice-principal and facilitator.

To some extent the message of the promotional poster is inconsistent with the SDP content. The poster message may have explained the strong desire of Eggli school to see the workshop as a solution to staff problems.

Again, lack of time for the facilitators is an important factor in any effort to improve preparation.

To what extent is the existing pre-workshop communication and organization process adequate? If changes are needed, how can they be made given the restraints on the workshop presentors' time? Are there some ways to get around these restraints?

D Physical Environment

In all three schools there were some problems with the physical setting, for examples, a too cold room, a shift of location in mid-workshop, and cramped quarters. On the other hand, although it was not a focus of observation I noticed several efforts to forsee problems and arrange a comfortable setting, for examples, checking the number of booklets, arranging furniture, and bringing spare equipment. Moreover, the site agreement stipulates certain physical arrangements and the presentor's guide encourages the leader to check details.

To what extent and in what ways can the facilitator ensure a suitable physical environment?

E Goals

The literature stresses the importance of clear goals and suggests negotiating gaps between them and participant expectations. Goals should be practical and attainable, and the purpose around which activities are organized.

In one of our sessions, the goals were not announced and in no cases were they offered for negotiation. However,

there was no clear effect of this on participants; in fact, they commented positively on the clear direction of the day and the logical relationship of the activities to each other.

On the other hand, the problem of time pressure and the difficulty participants had in defining a goal and planning raised a question in the minds of some respondents: Are the workshop goals attainable in a one-day workshop?

The overall program goals of increased influence, competence, and joy are discussed at greater length in the following chapter.

F Experiential Focus

Because it is based on a problem-solving model, the SDP builds from the previous experiences of participants. In this, it is consistent with adult learning theory.

The workshop literature also describes the process of experiential learning for activities like Joy and Misery, the Vision, and so on. The process after the initial exercise consists of sharing experiences, interpreting, generalizing, and applying, a sequence that is called processing or debriefing.

For the SDP, processing was sometimes a few sentences by the facilitator about what should have been learned, sometimes a period of small group sharing unguided by the facilitator, and often omitted altogether.

When this happens, there is the possibility that

participants may not have sufficiently reflected on an activity enough to have learned from it. A summary by the presentor without a questioning process increases the presentor's control. It also cuts off the leader from a source of information about participants' learning or feelings, and reduces opportunities for whole group interaction.

. What is the intended learning for each workshop component? What questioning procedures could be used to ensure that that learning takes place?

G. Transfer

Joyce and Shower's research (1980) has shown the importance of theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and coaching in a successful training session. Practitioners have also mentioned the need to discuss transfer with participants, the inclusion of relevant content, activities with personnel who also work together on the job, and inclusion of time for participants to discuss back home application.

The SDP, to a certain extent, is a training session because its purpose is to teach a particular process of personal problem-solving. There is action planning by teachers on relevant content, their own goals, and establishment of support teams. The intended behaviour of the teams is not discussed at the workshop except in a

very general sense. There is no simulated practice of action plans, feedback, or coaching.

To what extent would the inclusion of practice, feedback, and coaching improve the chances of success of the SDP?

H Variety of Group Dynamics and Activities

Kirschenbaum (1977) suggests varying group dynamics. Neuro-Linguistic Programming suggests varying sensory modes.

The SDP emphasizes presentation, small group and individual activities, and small group discussion. There is little or no time spent on large group activities or discussion. The design adaptations that teachers liked the most were large and small group activities.

There is a significant amount of reading and writing in the SDP. There are no planned non-verbal activities or physical movement.

Is the present format sufficiently varied? How can successful design adaptations be shared among facilitators?

I Sequence

A clear and logical sequence was viewed by participants as a strength of the program. No questions of sequence arose.

J Timing

Timing is a complex topic involving at least five aspects: 1) the amount of time in relation to goals,

2) types of activities for certain times, 3) the correct length of time for components, short enough to avoid fatigue, but long enough to allow for learning, 4) timing of the facilitator's interventions, appropriate but not too frequent, and 5) the inclusion of the cycle of risk and retreat, the design element advocated by Roger Harrison (1978) to encourage self-direction. We will comment in sequence on the SDP in relation to each of these.

First, there was a pressure to finish in two of the three workshops studied. This overall dimension coloured many of the other aspects of timing. As under the discussion of goals, there is the question: Is there sufficient time for the workshop goals?

The relationship of activities to times of the day was not a focus of this study. However, a general observation in two workshops was that participants were tired after lunch. Should a warm-up activity after lunch be built into the design?

The third feature, length of time for specific components, has substantially been covered in discussing the experiential learning cycle.

The timing of facilitator interventions varied considerably and this too was not a focus of observation. In general, however, it was noticed that there were frequent interventions to move the group on. What effect do frequent facilitator interventions have on participants?

The agenda at all three workshops was very full and did not allow self-directed time for participants. Nonetheless, at two workshops teachers took extended time to socialize over lunch. Is it possible in a one-day workshop to have flexible time in which participants have choices about what to do?

K Supportive Climate

This is a function of both facilitator style and design. A supportive climate is encouraged by the influence behaviours of Participation and Trust - testing and expressing understanding, recognizing and involving others, and personal disclosure. Davis (1974) suggests that a supportive climate can also be planned for by: 1) warmly greeting participants, 2) getting everybody comfortable, 3) spelling out ground rules, 4) warming up, 5) discussing expectations, and 6) negotiating goals.

In practice, most of these steps and the use of Participation and Trust were features of two of the three workshops. One facilitator anticipated in his introduction possible concerns and tried to alleviate them.

A concern that was frequently mentioned by teachers before the workshop was the possible personal nature of the SDP. In assessing the workshop itself, a third of the respondents at Eggli disapproved of the personal aspect. Two teachers of fourteen at Valleyview questioned the BCTF's involvement in such programs. The Vision exercise was the focus of intense dislike by

a few.

The principal of Valleyview felt that this concern about personal exposure may have formed a barrier around all aspects of the program.

How could the fear of personal exposure be lessened? Should teachers work only on professional goals? How does the emphasis on presentation and the lack of debriefing influence the climate?

L Risk Taking

A successful workshop moves from a supportive climate to a climate of risk taking.

This is encouraged by processes that disconfirm previously held "mind-sets" of participants. These could be group decision-making, disconfirming information, an emotional stir-up, or rhetoric. A retreat-like setting also encourages disconfirmature.

The SDP includes several components that are intended to disconfirm or to "unfreeze", especially the Day of Joy and Misery, the Vision, and the Challenge. Moreover, there is the overall rhetoric of the booklets. The facilitators' program and the presentor's guide encourage the presentor to use similar rhetoric and testimonial.

In practice, the unfreezing activities, like the workshop itself, received mixed responses (based on limited evidence). Only the Contract received general praise. The rhetoric of risk-taking, that is, the Common Vision style, was effective only at one school.

At another location, it was almost not used at all.

How important is it for the facilitator to communicate risk-taking? Would more attention to a supportive climate first increase the success of unfreezing activities? To what extent would debriefing influence risk-taking?

M Excitement

Heightened feelings can be generated in a workshop when participants work together for goals that they themselves value. The writings of Berlew (1974) and Miles (1964) suggest that this happens when members of the workshops participate vigorously, take risks, take responsibility for themselves, see the potential for action, and have a shared common vision of a greater purpose. Equality of relations, increased communication, and the limited time frame also can encourage excitement.

The SDP design includes the elements of an exciting workshop, yet in practice only one workshop was regarded by participants as exciting. This discrepancy may have been due to infrequent use by the facilitators of the Common Vision influence style, time pressures, emphasis on presentation, or the individual focus of the design. (There was the suggestion in interviews that the focus on individual goals after the Vision diffused some of the potential of excitement.)

In what ways can the SDP be altered to realize its potential for excitement?

The SDP Implementation Plan

A Teachers as Origins

Evidence from research on implementation is that the requirements, needs, and preferences of teachers should be the starting point of an innovation. School-based programs, instruction by teachers, mutual planning, mutual assistance, individualization, and locally developed materials are all strategies which follow this principle.

Except for mutual planning which has been already discussed, and locally developed materials, the SDP design includes these strategies. In practice, it is worth noting that teachers did not usually choose classroom goals and in some cases they commented that the SDP was not concerned with these goals. The explanation for this is not immediately evident.

Moreover, the collaboration of the colleagial teams after the workshop was limited. The members reminded each other of their commitment and encouraged each other to persevere. They did not meet often or for long, nor did they engage in problem-solving.

How could collaboration be improved?

B Planning

Successful implementation needs a plan that includes large and long-range goals, but also includes a good deal of ongoing on-the-line assistance by program staff.

Planning needs to be adaptable to changing conditions. This is helped by a map- -a conceptualization of the change process- -and by frequent, regular monitoring.

The site agreement of the SDP is a list of preparatory steps and post-conference tasks "necessary to ensure success." The performance of all of the tasks by the site leader would constitute an extensive implementation program. In practice, they were not followed.

The site leader is left alone to institute what may be a major role change for himself and others. There is no conceptual explanation of the implementation process for either presentors or site leaders, leaving the site agreement as more of an itinerary than a map.

Moreover, it is not clear what teacher behaviour over time constitutes implementation of the SDP, whether it is the individual completion of contracts or the more collaborative activities of the site agreement.

As regards to interventions by program staff, there are only the pre-workshop contact and the workshop itself. The inclusion of collegial teams and contracts are innovative attempts to overcome this limitation of little staff contact. Where the program was well received, they were useful structures.

<u>What teacher behaviours constitute implementation of the SDP? In what ways could follow-up assistance be supplied to the site leader or participants? Should a conceptualization of the SDP change process be part of the facilitator's or site leader's training?</u>

C The Institutional Setting

Implementation of an innovation means changes in patterns of behaviour, in this case, that would mean increased self-direction and colleagiality. For this to happen, there must be a responsive school climate, active administration support, and participant commitment. Initial institutional readiness is important for a program to have a chance to take root. Also important are on-going strategies such as coalition-building, advocacy, and regular meetings which can build support.

The question of readiness was discussed earlier when considering the SDP as a workshop. Support-building for the program is mainly done through the negotiations of the facilitator and site leader over the site agreement.

The one school where there was success was where there were relatively harmonious staff relations, a supportive administration, and personal contact with that administration by the facilitator before the workshop.

<u>What steps could be taken to prepare a school and to build support?</u>

CHAPTER NINE

THEMES

This inquiry has three levels. At the descriptive level, it has depicted the ebb and flow of workshop life and its impact on school teachers. At the evaluative level, it has generalized from the description and made judgements about how the program could be improved. Now at the elucidatory level, this chapter throws light on the broader features of innovative change and workshops. From the jumble of findings, it seeks general patterns of meaning. Although this has implications for program improvement, it will be more explanatory than evaluative.

The analysis is of the cultural themes discussed in the methodology: principles which recur in a number of domains and serve as a relationship among them. Principles, or themes, are general assumptions about the nature of experience, and they may be tacit or explicit.

I have chosen three areas to explore for themes: first, the process of change used by the *Self-Directing Professional*, second, charisma as a technique of social influence and a model of behaviour, and third, the contradiction or gap between the reality of participants and the program reality, and the facilitators' efforts to bridge the gap.

The themes were developed by several different methods suggested by Spradley (1980): immersing myself in the data,

constructing a diagram of domains and their relationships, searching for important similarities and differences, identifying organizing domains which relate many of the findings together, and searching for themes in the literature on innovations and workshops. Often there are universal themes such as techniques of social influence or ways to resolve cultural contradictions.

The domains examined here were chosen because they emerged through this analysis as the most powerful explanations of research results. For example, the domain of stages in a change process linked together all of the SDP components. An examination of the literature helped reveal the themes behind it.

Strategies of Change

> Man has a tropism for order. Keys in one pocket, change in another. Mandolins are tuned GDAE. The physical world has a tropism for disorder, entropy. Man against nature... the battle of the centuries. Keys yearn to mix with change. Mandolins strive to get out of tune. Every order has within it the germ of destruction. All order is doomed, yet the battle is worthwhile.
>
> \- Nathaniel West, Day of the Locusts

Individuals, groups, and organizations, all try to make order from chaos. When the process is gradual, one talks of growth, learning, or development. When it is sudden, one talks of crisis and confusion. This worthwhile battle is the process of change.

In most cases change is tacit, it operates at the unconscious level. However, purposeful change, the attempt to alter a system consciously to ensure orderly adjustment or adaptation, has become, in recent decades, a field of intense study.

Kurt Lewin's work in the 1930's and 40's provided a highly influential model for change of a social system, one that has significance for a study of an innovation like the SDP. He divided change into three sequential phases: unfreezing, the dissolution of prior group standards of behaviour, moving to some new state or level, and refreezing, stabilizing the new behaviour (described in Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley, 1958, Lippitt *et al.*, 1977, and Smith and Keith, 1971). Assumed in this sequence is a change agent, someone who guides a group or organization through the change, and the clients, those who are to change.

Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley in the *Dynamics of Planned Change* (1958) have further refined Lewin's model to include the following:

Unfreezing:

1. Development of a need for change by the client system;

2. Establishment of a change relationship between the change agent and the clients;

Moving:

3. Diagnosis of problems through collaboration between clients and the change agent;

4. Action planning;

5. Action implementation, a trial period with feedback;

Refreezing:

6. Generalization and stabilization of change, most importantly, by developing a body of people who are committed to the change and seeing it bear fruit;

7. Termination.

Other models and research about change are discussed in chapter two.

These categories give a simple and useful way of conceptualizing the SDP workshop. The comparison in Figure 9:1 also helps highlight some of the themes of the SDP.

Insert Figure 9:1 about here

There are several assumptions which both models have in common. Among the most important are:

1. Change begins with unfreezing. Examination of undesired situations and the possibilities of action, such as Joy/Misery, help establish the need for change.

2. Diagnosis and action planning are necessary to ensure successful action.

Stages in the SDP workshop:	Stages in the Change Process:
1. Pre-workshop contact	Unfreezing: establishment of a change relationship between the presentor and site leader; possibly, through the booklets, establishment of a need for change
Workshop: 2. Introduction	Unfreezing: establishment of a need for change through the rhetoric of presentor
3. Joy/Misery	Unfreezing: establishment of need for change; Moving: diagnosis
4. Choice of teams	Preparation for Moving: action planning and Refreezing
5. Vision	Unfreezing: establishment of need for change
6. Choice of goal	Moving: diagnosis
7. G.A.S.	Moving: diagnosis
8. Goal Planning	Moving: action planning
9. Contract	Moving: action planning; Refreezing: stabilization of change
10. Follow-up arrangements	Refreezing: stabilization of change

Figure 9:1 <u>Comparison of the Self-Directing Professional with the Model of Planned Change</u>

3. The declaration to others of a commitment to action helps ensure that the action takes place.

However, there are also some themes underlying the SDP that contrast with the planned change model:

1. The majority of the change process can take place in one day.

2. The trial period and feedback are either not necessary or will occur incidentally without planning.

3. Effective diagnosis can be made by the individual.

4. Teachers possess the necessary skills for the SDP goal attainment process.

5. The pursuit of individual goals is the best means to achieve change.

Underlying most of these themes is a more fundamental one: the individual is the most important factor in change. This assumption explains the exclusion of other possible change efforts such as outside input by a change agent, peers or others in diagnosis; attempts to build institutional support; or the development of group goals.

The positive influence of the school setting at Patel and the negative influence at Eggli suggest that organizational dynamics also play a powerful role in individual change. Moreover, the individual teacher was often unable to diagnose and plan effectively. The lack of a group purpose and process skills inhibited the development of

the colleagial teams. Team members, in general, pursued their goals independently. These results point to the importance of group development and the expanded role of the change agent. These topics are elucidated further in the discussion of the program-participant gap.

Charisma

When one reads of the dramatic results of such teachers as Leo Tolstoy (1862) or A.S.Neill (1960), one might well suspect that their extraordinary personal qualities explain their success more than their particular teaching approaches. Some individuals seem able to create an aura of extra-ordinariness around themselves, to appear larger than life, and to make claims on others for commitment and respect - what sociologists call charisma.

Other accounts indicate that the qualities of charismatic leadership - heightened feelings of purpose and commitment to action - can be taken on by teachers as a group (Runkel *et al*., 1978), workshop participants (Miles, 1964), and curriculum innovators (Macdonald and Walker, 1976).

The language of the booklets and suggested model of presentation of the SDP have characteristics of charisma. Many of the findings of this inquiry can be explained by considering the consequences of a charismatic approach.

The term charisma is widely used but seldom with the precision of Max Weber's initial definition. He defined

the term as "a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional qualities." Followers are devoted to him and to "the normative patterns of order revealed or ordained by him" (in Swidler, 1979, p.72).

William Friedland (1964) has argued that charismatic leaders are successful when they express widely held but previously unarticulated popular sentiments, when they appear to take unusual personal sentiments, when they appear to take unusual personal risks on behalf of the group, and when their endeavours appear crowned with success.

In her study of alternative schools (1979), Swidler described teachers who used shared group values and self-dramatization to achieve charismatic influence. Some teachers appealed to group accomplishments and shared meanings, such as the position of their school as an embattled enclave. Others cultivated an unusual style or mystique.

Runkel _et al._ (1977) have pointed out that groups too can inspire themselves to action in the same way a charismatic leader can. The authors draw on Berlew's concept of charisma (1974), discussed earlier in chapter three, to describe the characteristics of such a group: "When members of a group enunciate a common vision, when they can strengthen one another and help one another control their common destiny in a way that individuals prize, and when they can choose opportunities for action that fit their

vision and their values, then that group can take action with alacrity, decisiveness, and vigour" (p.91).

Miles, in his treatment of temporary sub-systems, also discussed in chapter three, attributes similar potential qualities to groups involved in events like a workshop or a conference. Workshops can be "short-term quasi-Utopias... to which one can become committed intensively, meaningfully, satisfyingly - and impermanently" (p.465).

Finally, Macdonald and Walker, in their study of curriculum change (1976), describe the positive functions of visionary rhetoric in innovative programs to help bring about the rhetoric's own fulfillment, to fix aspirations, to deflect interference, and to minimize unproductive conflict.

How does the Self-Directing Professional display these characteristics of charisma either in leadership or group behaviour?

First, in the rhetoric of the workshop presentation there is an appeal to the extraordinary qualities of being self-directed. There are exhortations to push and stretch, and testimonials of struggle eventually crowned with success. At the Eggli workshop, the testimonial of the one facilitator on her weight loss yielded applause. The presentation and booklets also refer to shared group values, especially the embattled position of teachers. For example, in the Contract the reward is explained with a reference to teachers being never rewarded. The Self-Directing Profession-

al's claims of grandeur - to increase joy, influence and competence; to pursue excellence; to create an upward spiral of well-being - these too can be seen as efforts at charismatic influence.

The workshop also tries to promote in the participants heightened feelings of their own charismatic potential. The Vision exercise is specifically intended to release fantasies of power and success. (Impoverished power fantasies are a block to the recognition of exciting possibilities and action, according to Harrison, 1977) The challenge is an exhortation with a similar purpose. Both of these encourage individuals to act charismatically.

The suggested activities for the colleagial team members after the workshop, problem-solving and rewarding each other, could result in the group charismatic behaviour that Runkel et al. describes above. At Patel Elementary, there was some evidence that the small staff, though not the teams, did realize some of that group potential.

A potential way that either charismatic leadership could be exercised or charismatic group behaviour encouraged is through the use of jargon. In their study of Kensington school (1971), Smith and Keith noted that jargon could serve as a rallying point or dramatize the innovative qualities and uniqueness of the program. However, the data on the SDP workshops showed little use by participants of

the program jargon. Only common terms, like team or contract, were used spontaneously in interviews with users of the program.

Underlying the SDP's model of presentation is the belief that charismatic appeals are an effective influence technique. In the efforts to empower individuals with heightened feelings, the assumption is again that the individual is the key. There are no intended group visionary exercises in the workshop itself like those suggested above by Runkel _et al_. (1977). The inclusion of two collaborative activities and the dynamic presentation at Eggli did create powerful group feelings; however, the move to the individual focus of the Contract diffused the excitement. Group dynamics seem to be important for releasing energy as well as problem-solving.

The process by which Patel was able to generate some group enthusiasm would be a worthwhile area of research.

Another finding of this study is the importance first of participation and trust before charismatic appeals can be effective. Despite a significant amount of Common Vision behaviour at one school, the overall leader dominance alienated the participants. At Eggli Elemtary, where there was participation and trust, the participants were very appreciative of the appeals to exciting possibilities or a shared identity.

The success of the program at Patel, where, in the words of the vice-principal, the facilitator was "warm" and got "everybody to do something," but did not use charismatic rhetoric, and the lack of success at Eggli, which did have excitement, point to the limited effect of the charismatic influence technique.

The Gap Between Program and Participants

Knowledge and behaviour are often organized around opposites. For examples, antinomies such as teacher and student, school work and fun, school board and teachers, and so forth make up much of the dynamics of our schools. Common to these are efforts to reconcile the gap between the opposites. Teachers joke with students. School boards negotiate with teachers.

The Self-Directing Professional presents an ideal image of a teacher systematically striving for goals of excellence. Its major theme is quite explicit: this model of goal attainment is worthwhile and feasible. The teachers' principle is also equally evident: given the working conditions, we're doing the best we can. Moreover, by all popular and academic accounts, what the teachers do is not the same as the model of the Self-Directing Professional. As with any innovation, there is a gap between the program and teacher.

How then do the teachers and the program staff adapt to this gap? To use the words of the social sciences,

how is the contradiction mediated? The teachers themselves, to some extent, mediate the contradiction. They read the booklets or hear the presentors, and decide in their own minds how to implement or reject the SDP. Yet the relationship between the program and teacher spheres is also mediated by other means: teacher attitudes towards professional development days, the norms of the school culture, representations of the program by the site leader, and, most of all, the presentation by the facilitator. All of these influence how the program is seen by teachers. There are other related dynamics which will not be discussed here: the feedback of information on the workshop by the facilitators and this evaluator back to the program originators, and their subsequent adaptations back to the facilitator. Figure 9:2 represents the gap and its dynamics.

Insert Figure 9:2 about here

The facilitator mediates by adapting the program, changing a component here or omitting another there, and by presenting or selling it in as effective a manner as possible. (It is not commonly realized, according to MacDonald and Walker (1976), how close "what is implemented" is to "what is sold.")

For the SDP and workshops in general, there are several barriers to effective mediation: time in which to plan

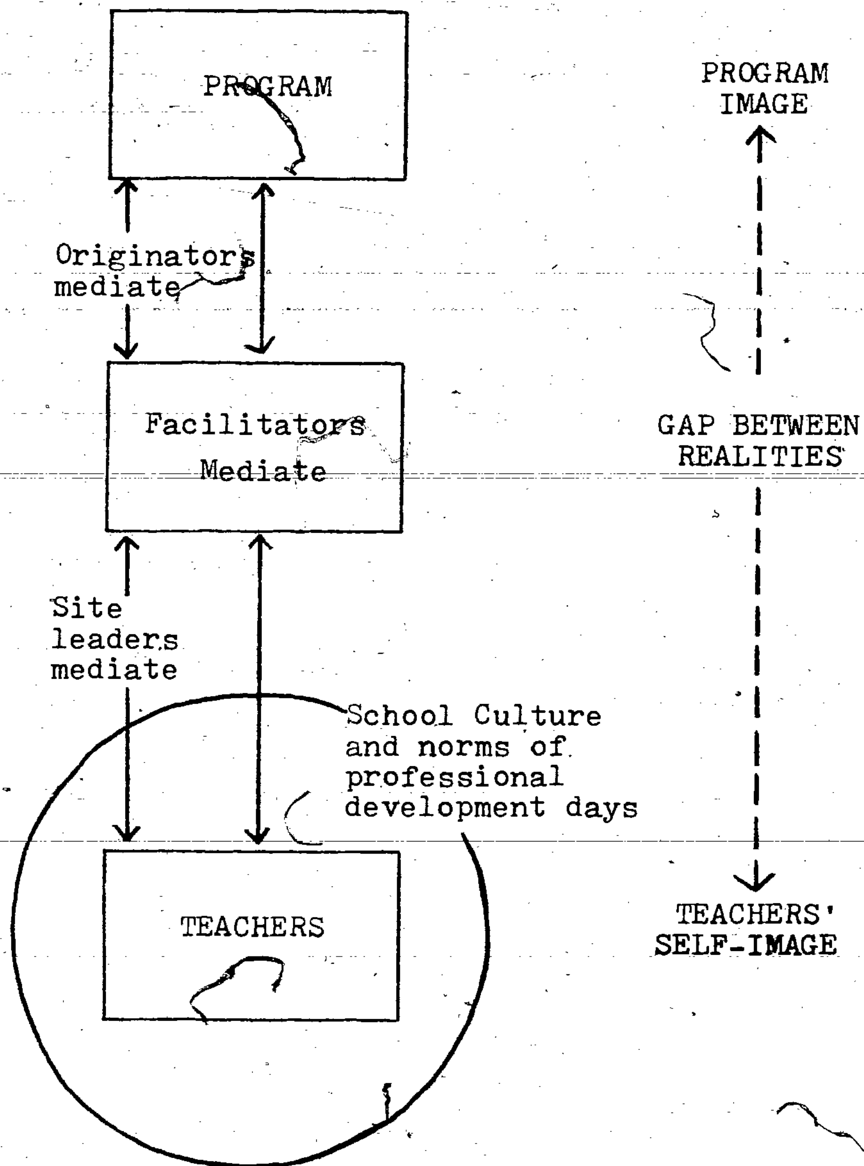


Figure 9:2 Program Mediation

adaptations, lack of experience and skill in design and presentation, lack of knowledge of the content, and so forth. From the evidence of this study the culture of the school can make or break facilitator efforts. The attitude towards professional development days as social occasions, such as at Valleyview and Patel where lunch periods were two hours long, can influence the mediation. Professional development is also strongly associated with one-shot workshops and the SDP follow-up activities and collaboration can go against teacher grain.

MacDonald and Walker have developed a very similar concept, curriculum negotiation, in their study of curriculum innovations (1976). Curriculum developers play a similar role to that of the facilitators. They negotiate between an ideal project image which is presented to academics and the practical image presented to teachers. Their role is to sell the curriculum, because the project and their own survival depend on it. To do that they trade-off certain aspects of the curriculum in order to gain overall acceptance.

In a case-study of a geography curriculum project in the United Kingdom, MacDonald and Walker examined the efforts of developers to ensure dissemination. To teacher audiences, the developers downplayed the cognitive content so as to avoid threatening the identity of teachers, identity based on teacher knowledge. To academic audiences, the conceptual aspect of the curriculum was highlighted. The effort to

bridge the gap and gain teacher favour was exceptionally successful. However, MacDonald and Walker warn that this approach also carries with it the danger that, in an effort to be acceptable, a project may disguise the very conditions which would enable it to survive and take root.

In a second case study, the authors described an example of a quite different approach to the program-participant gap. The Humanities Curriculum Project, a values education program lead by Lawrence Stenhouse, offered a "dream image" to teachers of professional expertise. "It was a long way from the secondary modern school..., but many were seduced by the dream and tempted, by the powerful rhetoric and charisma of the project team, to undertake the journey." In other words, the Humanities Curriculum Project kept the gap wide and offered a clear and compelling alternative to existing practice. However, "many teachers who joined the 'crusade' found themselves imprisoned in a gap between the project's implicit model of the school and the realities of the institutional milieux in which they were located" (p.81).

<u>The Self-Directing Professional</u> and the model presented in Figure 9:2 have some differences with the situation described above. First, the SDP is not developed by the facilitators, hence their sense of ownership and commitment may be assumed to be less. Other rewards such as the special group solidarity of the presentors, time off, free

training from the Teachers' Federation, and recognition compensate somewhat. Second, the program originators are members of the academic community and the program content is not that of an academic discipline; thus there is no need to manipulate the program image for a university audience.

However, the program-participant gap is much the same in both cases. The high aspirations, charismatic rhetoric, and visionary exercises, which keep the gap wide, can create a need for change and motivate teachers as they did with Patel. They can also be seen as unrealistic and rejected. From the evidence of the Eggli interviews, many teachers were stranded in the middle: they aspired to their contract goals, but because of their own shortcomings, the lack of a supportive climate, an inadequate plan, unrealistic goals, or a poorly functioning team, they failed.

The SDP also tries to narrow the gap. It is already a one-day workshop, which fits the common mode of British Columbia schools. Certain sections of the program are left out in presentation in order to meet the time restriction. The site agreement post-conference tasks, which would involve considerable effort by the site leader, are forgotten. In addition, the facilitator makes several minor changes in their efforts to make the program as well received as possible. Unfortunately, the data suggests that some

of these efforts, especially the short time frame and neglected site agreement mean the omission of the very implementation strategies necessary for success.

When workshop delivery and the implementation process are considered as program mediation, the importance of the mediators becomes evident. Both facilitator and site leader need to "own" the product to sell it. Both need skills and theory to deal with problems.

The site leader, in order to perform the post-conference tasks of the agreement, such as arranging release time or consulting with teams, must also have access to power. Only at Patel, where the site leader was the vice-principal and he was enthusiastic, did the program succeed.

CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSION

The findings of this thesis and the ideas of program mediation and planned change point to some broad conclusions about workshops and innovative change.

Because the workshop, as a mode of instruction, recognizes participants' experiences and emphasizes practical application, it is an effective way to mediate the gap between program and participants. The findings show that participant involvement and trust are necessary for the success of the workshop and program. The Self-Directing Professional workshop involves teachers by building on their own experiences. It could do more if there was sufficient time for the content, debriefing of exercises, and mutual planning.

The research results and the diagram of program mediation (Figure 9:2) show that the workshop presentation is not the only variable between the program and the participants. The institutional setting, especially the school climate and administrative support, is also important. Where there was enthusiastic support by the vice-principal, a relatively harmonious climate, as well as a facilitation style of participation and trust, the program was well received.

Key figures in the mediation of the Self-Directing Professional, apart from the workshop presentors, are the site leaders, the program representatives. They are expected to be models, consultants, organizers, and so on; they need the skills,

theory, and power to play those roles. The evaluation recommends that the site leaders be seen as change agents and supported in that position.

The dilemma in program mediation is to steer a course between the Scylla of overly grandiose ideals and the Charybdis of overly accommodating mediation. Lofty goals inspired some teachers, but they floundered when left unsupported by their colleagial team and institutional milieu. Efforts to adapt the program to the norms of professional development in British Columbia meant the neglect of elements, such as an extended time frame and follow-up tasks, that were necessary for implementation.

The concept of mediation gives a dynamic description of program presentation and implementation. However, it lacks the dimensions of time and sequence that are features of the model of planned change. The Self-Directing Professional workshop can be understood as having three stages of planned change: unfreezing--establishing a need for change and a relationship between the facilitator and teachers, moving--diagnosing and planning, and refreezing--stabilizing change.

However, the SDP does not have the same extended time frame or extensive personal contact by the facilitator that the literature suggests for change to take place. One of the chief recommendations of the evaluation is to extend the amount of time and contact.

A theme that underlies the Self-Directing Professional is individual responsibility for change. When the workshop was

presented in a charismatic manner, the testimonials and visionary exercises about individual responsibility excited the participants. However, the reliance on the individual to diagnose and plan his or her goals and the focus away from group or organizational goals led to problems of poor planning and poorly functioning groups.

In conclusion, I feel that this thesis provides a model for the development and evaluation of similar workshops. The list of factors that were established in the literature review give a list of key points to consider, or, to use an earlier metaphor, an itinerary. The concepts of program mediation and planned change give the cognitive map necessary to adapt particular program goals to the workshop format.

APPENDIX

A Description of the Self-Directing Professional

B Interview Schedule

C Influence Styles Tally Sheet

D Pre-Workshop Questionnaire

E Workshop Evaluation Form

F Follow-up Questionnaire

G Site Agreement

DESCRIPTION OF THE SELF-DIRECTING PROFESSIONAL

The Self-Directing Professional was developed by Challenge Education Associates, "a professional research and development group" composed of Maurice Gibbons, Peter Norman, and Gary Phillips.

They define a self-directing professional as "one who sets goals for improvement, and then plans and implements a systematic procedure for achieving them. The self-directing professional attempts to become more competent on the job, more influential, and more joyful."

The one-day workshop attempts to teach the skills required to be such a person. "Teachers who complete this brief program will enjoy a number of important benefits.

1. They will choose and achieve at least one important goal for themselves.
2. They will be part of a team of colleagues working for personal and professional improvement.
3. They will learn a method they can use regularly for developing their own in-service programs.
4. They will model self-directed learning to their students--the most powerful teaching method.
5. They will learn methods for teaching their students to be self-directed."

The introductory booklet concludes with "Our experience with teachers in widely varied circumstances enables us to say confidently that completing this program can be one of the most

important acts in your professional life [in print]. If you decide it will be [in script]."

The program was purchased by the B.C. Teachers' Federation for implementation in the school year 1980-81. Twenty teachers were trained as workshop leaders during a five day training session at the University of Victoria in August, 1980. They had further weekend training programs in Vancouver in November, 1980 and May 1981.

The workshop itself has ten parts. (In addition, individual presentors made their own changes.) These ten components are:

1. The Self-Directing Professional: introduction by leader to the concept of self-direction and the goals of the program;
2. A Day of Joy: A Day of Misery: reflection by participants on past successes and failures and an analysis of patterns of behaviour;
3. How Important Is It To Be a Self-Directing Professional? Should We Bother?: lecturette giving rationale;
4. The Colleagial Team: formation of groups of three for the day's activities and for meetings after the workshop;
5. A Vision For Tomorrow: Goals For Today: a guided fantasy given by leader and the selection by participants of a single important goal;
6. Goal Attainment Style: explanatory lecturette and

completion by participants of an inventory assessing individual styles of achievement with the selection of styles which apply to their particular goals;

7. Directing Your Own Personal and Professional Development: A Ten-Step Process: a brief overview given by leader of SDP process;
8. The Self-Directing Professional's Contact: a kind of individual problem solving activity on the goal combined with choosing a challenge and a reward.
9. Post Conference Follow-Up: selection of a meeting date by each team and discussion of possible problems in implementing contracts.
10. Becoming Influential: suggestions for future activities.

Other components of the overall program include pre-workshop contact and post-workshop activities based on the contracts and team meetings.

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. I'd like first to discuss the workshop itself. As you recall the day, does anything stand out in your mind?

1.1 Were there any things that particularly impressed you, positively or negatively?

1.2 Anything you liked or disliked?

1.3 Anytimes when you were confused or didn't see the purpose of an activity?

1.4 Anytime when you were excited or confused?

2. I'd like to ask you about a few specific components of the program and how you felt about them. What were your reactions to the:

2.1 Day of Joy and Misery?

2.2 The Super Self-Directing Professional?

2.3 The Goal Attainment Style?

2.4 The Vision?

2.5 The Contract?

3. When you've heard other staff talk about the workshop, in the staff room or other places, what kinds of things have they said?

4. I'd like to ask you some questions about your contract, if I may. Could you tell me what your goal is?

4.1. Have you had a chance to work on that goal?

5. (If yes to 4.1) Could you describe to me what you did the last time you...(refer to specific goal)?

5.1 Were there any particular blocks?

5.2 What did you do to overcome these?

5.3 About how much time have you spent on...(refer to specific goal)?

6. (If no to 4.1) Could you describe to me what some of the reasons or circumstances were that meant you didn't work on the contract?

7. Have you had a chance to meet with your colleagial team?

8. (If yes to 7.) Could you tell me who is in your team?

8.1 What are their goals?

9. (If yes to 7.) As you recall when you have met, could you describe for me what you discussed?

9.1 About how long did you meet for?

9.2 How has the progress been for your team members?

9.3 What was your impression of your meeting?

10. I'd also like you to tell me any other things you've heard people say about the program?

10.1 Any changes in behaviour you've observed?

10.2 Any comments about their teams?

10.3 Their contracts?

11. Have any changes taken place in the school that might be connected somehow to the workshop?

12. Finally, I'm interested if you have any suggestions for changes or improvements to the Self-Directing Professional?

TALLY SHEET

Write the names of the persons observed at the top of the columns below. Make a tick under the person's name each time you observe him/her exhibit the BEHAVIOR CATEGORY. Several categories may be scored for one "speech," but not repetitions of the category within the same "speech."

STYLE AND BEHAVIOR CATEGORY					
REWARD AND PUNISHMENT (R&P): Evaluation: approving and disapproving; using value loaded words or expressions or moral judgments.					
Prescribing Goals and Expectations: communicating demands, requirements; setting standards for behavior and performance.					
Incentives and Pressures: offering bargains, rewards, threats, punishments. Invoking power, status, authority.					
PARTICIPATION AND TRUST (P&T): Personal Disclosure: admitting mistakes, errors; openness about lack of knowledge and resources; letting uncertainty show.					
Recognizing, Involving Others: inviting contributions; building on other's ideas; sharing responsibility with others.					
Testing, Expressing Understanding: "playing back" another's feelings, ideas or actions to test understanding.					
COMMON VISION (CV): Articulating Exciting Possibilities: letting enthusiasm show; appealing to values, emotions, feelings; using images to kindle excitement; helping others to imagine a better future.					
Generating A Shared Identity: appealing to common values; helping others to see common interests; building group cohesion.					
ASSERTIVE PERSUASION (AP): Proposing: putting forward ideas; taking initiative to suggest what could be done. Asking questions that present a position.					
Reasoning For and Against: giving reasons, arguments, facts, in support of or against one's own or others' facts or logic.					

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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS IN
THE SELF-DIRECTING PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

Please write in the last four numbers of your telephone number:______________

Please check inside the appropriate box for each question. Check only one box except where otherwise indicated.

1. Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Occupation: ☐ Teacher ☐ Administrator ☐ Other (please specify):______

If you are a teacher, please answer all of the following questions. If you are not a teacher, please answer only questions 7 to 11.

3. What grade level do you teach?

☐ grades K-3 ☐ grades 4-7 ☐ grades 8-10 ☐ grades 11-12

4. How many years teaching experience have you had prior to this school year?

☐ first year teaching, no previous experience ☐ 1 year experience ☐ 2-5 years experience ☐ more than 5 years

5. If you teach in a secondary school or if you are an elementary subject specialist, please write in what subjects you teach:

____

6. Of which of the following have you at one time been a member or are currently a member? (Check one of the three boxes for each group.)

Have not been a member	Currently a member	Member in the past	
			a PSA
			the executive of a PSA
			school staff committee
			a delegation to the Annual General Meeting of the BCTF
			committee of local association
			BCTF committee
			executive of your local
			School Board committee
			Ministry committee
			Other education group (please specify): ______________

7. How much of your own ability and skill can you put to use at your school?

- ☐ I wish that I could put more of my abilities to use than my job now allows
- ☐ I can put my abilities to use to about the degree that I want
- ☐ I wish my job did not demand as much of my abilities as it does

8. How do you feel about who makes the decisions about what you should do in your classroom?

- ☐ Other people make too many decisions for me about my work; I'd like to be making more
- ☐ I like the degree to which I myself make decisions
- ☐ I am expected to make too many decisions; I'd like to leave more of them to others

9. How do you feel about the sharing and co-operation of the people with whom you work?

- ☐ I like the amount of co-operation we have at work; it's not too much and not to little
- ☐ I wish we had more of a feeling of sharing and co-operation at work
- ☐ There is too much buddy-buddy straining to be co-operative where I work

British Columbia Teachers' Federation

General Secretary, R.M. Buzza 105 - 2235 Burrard Street, Vancouver, B.C. V6J 3H9 Telephone 731-8121

SELF-DIRECTING PROFESSIONAL WORKSHOP

F10-42/Rev. December 1980

EVALUATION:

To aid us in maintaining quality control, would you please complete this questionnaire.

Date: ______________________ **School/Intact Group:** ______________________

PD Associates: ____

Please answer the following questions to help us evaluate and improve the program. Use the reverse side to expand your answers.

1. Please rate the effectiveness of the various components of the workshop:

a. Print materials (booklets)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. Media materials (videotapes)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. Workshop leaders' presentations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. Participants' activities (joy and misery, vision, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. What, for you, was the most valuable part of the program, and why?

3. What, for you, was the least valuable part of the program, and why?

4. As a result of this workshop, what action will you take?

5. How would you rate the program in comparison with other professional development workshops in which you have participated?

   very much worse   worse   about the same   better   very much better

6. Please let us know anything else which you think would help us improve the Self-Directing Professional.

7. Please give any comments which you feel would help the workshop leaders improve their presentation.

Thank you for completing this evaluation.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS IN
THE SELF-DIRECTING PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

Please write in the last four numbers of your telephone number ____________

Except where otherwise indicated, please write in the box on the right, the number next to the response that best represents your opinion.

A. About what length of time has passed since you participated in the Self-Directing Professional workshop?

1. about two weeks
2. about three weeks
3. about five weeks
4. other (please indicate) ____________ [ ]

B. One of the main goals of the workshop is to increase the participants' self-direction. To what extent do you think that the workshop has helped you become more self-directed?

1	2	3	4	5	
helped a great deal		helped somewhat		did not help at all	[ ]

C. Below are a number of pairs of opposite words or phrases which could be used to describe a workshop. For each pair, please rate the Self-Directing Professional workshop.

1	2	3	4	5	
exciting				unexciting	[ ]
useful				useless	[ ]
stimulating				not stimulating	[ ]
uncomfortable				comfortable	[ ]
leader controlled				participant controlled	[ ]

D. How would you rate the Self-Directing Professional in comparison with other professional development workshops in which you have participated?

1	2	3	4	5
very much worse	worse	about the same	better	very much better

E. At the workshop, you chose a goal and developed a plan to reach that goal. About how much time have you spent working on that plan?

1. spent no time on plan
2. worked occasionally on plan
3. worked often
4. worked regularly

F. At the workshop, you formed small groups called colleagial teams. How helpful do you think your colleagial team has been since the workshop in helping you work on your goal plan?

1	2	3	4	5
helped a great deal		helped somewhat		did not help at all

G. Please think about when you have discussed your goal with members of your colleagial team. How many times have you met with the team since the workshop?

1. have not met
2. have met once
3. twice
4. three or more times

H. If you have met together, for what amount of time at the average meeting did you discuss each others' goals?

1. less than five minutes
2. five to fifteen minutes
3. more than fifteen minutes

I. Since the workshop, have you been able to achieve your goal?

1. no
2. yes, to a minimum level
3. yes, to a satisfactory level
4. yes, to a level of excellence

One possible outcome of the Self-Directing Professional is a change in participant's opinion of their school. Your answers to questions J to L will help us assess that by allowing comparison with responses to the questionnaire before the workshop.

J. How much of your own ability and skills can you put to use at your school?

1. I wish that I could put more of my abilities to use than my job now allows
2. I can put my abilities to use to about the degree that I want
3. I wish my job did not demand as much of my abilities as it does

☐

K. How do you feel about who makes the decisions about what you should do in the classroom?

1. Other people make too many decisions for me about my work; I'd like to be making more
2. I like the degree to which I myself make decisions
3. I am expected to make too many decisions; I'd like to leave more of them to others

☐

L. How do you feel about the sharing and co-operating of the people with whom you work?

1. I like the amount of co-operation we have at work; it's not too much and not too little
2. I wish we had more of a feeling of sharing and co-operation at work
3. There is too much buddy-buddy straining to be co-operative where I work

☐

M. As you recall your impressions before taking the workshop, would you have preferred more information about the Self-Directing Professional beforehand?

1. yes, a lot more
2. yes, a bit more
3. no, I had enough information

☐

N. Would a follow-up to the workshop (other than the team meetings or this evaluation) have been useful to you?

1. yes
2. no

☐

O. If yes, what kind of follow-up would you suggest? (Please indicate)

____

____

____

____

P. If yes, at what time after the workshop would you suggest follow-up? (Please indicate)

Q. In what ways do you feel the workshop itself could be improved?

R. What effect, if any, has the Self-Directing Professional workshop had upon your personal or professional life?

S. Considering the time, effort, and results, do you feel it was worthwhile for your school to have had the Self-Directing Professional?

1. yes
2. no

British Columbia Teachers' Federation

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SITE AGREEMENT: THE SELF-DIRECTING PROFESSIONAL WORKSHOP

F10-41/September 1980

Workshop date: ____________ Site leader: ____________

School name and address: ____________

PD Associates: ____________

The following conditions must be agreed to between the BCTF Professional Development Division and the site contact person (the person responsible for the workshop, the site leader). The agreement is necessary to ensure success by planning carefully both pre- and post-workshop preparation. The expectations of the contact person must be made clear by the BCTF PD staff booking the workshop.

Essential Preparatory Steps by the Site Leader

___ 1. Participation by teachers must be on a *voluntary* basis.
___ 2. The participants are (or, are part of) an intact group, e.g., a school staff, local PSA, etc.
___ 3. A person on site or part of the intact group receiving the workshop must be identified and agree to assume the responsibilities as the site leader.
___ 4. Invitations distributed (may be oral) to participants.
___ 5. The pre-workshop task sheets should be distributed to all participants at least one week prior to the workshop.
___ 6. Coffee and refreshments arranged.
___ 7. Video tape and overhead projector ordered.
___ 8. Room and seating arranged to accommodate both large group and multiple teams of three.
___ 9. If workshop is held on school site, all bells, phones and intercom announcements are suspended for the day.
___ 10. Identify a person who will assist the participants in locating resources of assistance for their PD needs within the district and external to it. This person could be from a resource centre, administrator, or other.
___ 11. Agreement must be secured from the site leader regarding commitment to post-workshop follow-up plans.
___ 12. The PD Associates leading the workshop agree to act as liaison in the follow-up by mail and/or telephone and/or return visit.

Suggested but
Not Essential Preparatory Step to Ensuring Success

___ 1. The preferred workshop is away from normal working conditions. Try to locate a pleasant, retreat-like site.

Post-Conference Agreement: Ensuring Success

The following is a follow-up checklist for the site leader. Agreement must be negotiated on essential items prior to the workshop presentation by the PD Associate(s).

___ 1. Time and place will be arranged for the collegial group meetings at least twice monthly. The site leader may be required to assist teams with scheduling problems.
___ 2. Through the resource person identified in preparatory step 10, begin a survey resulting in a file or publication of potential resources for the participants' professional development needs. This list might include:
   a) School district personnel who could present, model, or collaborate.
   b) BCTF programs or personnel.
   c) University or community college faculty.
   d) Print or media materials.
   e) Future workshop possibilities on site.
   f) Visitations to other school districts.

___ 3. Methods of recognizing and confirming competence and the pursuit of excellence are identified or created. How does your school encourage and support professional competence?

___ 4. Clarify for participants what administrative assistance might be available. For example:
a) release time for professional development endeavors?
b) funds for conferences or travel to other sites?
c) access to existing consultant or administrative and supervisory personnel on sites?

___ 5. In consultation with the PD Associate(s), the site leader should understand the necessary stages of dissonance and expect periods of frustration.

___ 6. Permit collegial teams to change membership and reform as needed. Perhaps a procedure for facilitating that process is needed before the fact.

___ 7. Progress of collegial teams and individuals should be shared and celebrated regularly with entire staff.

___ 8. Report progress and problems at regular intervals to BCTF via PD Associate(s).

___ 9. Plan for re-negotiation of the professional development plan by participants as the participants make new discoveries and develop insights or they complete the first contract and move on to another.

Suggested but
Not Essential Post-Conference Steps for Ensuring Success

___ 1. Incorporate the self-directing professional goals of individuals into a comprehensive staff development program for the school.

___ 2. Utilize the existing supervisory personnel to encourage and assist collegial groups and individuals in the pursuit of excellence.

___ 3. Include the self-directing professional goals as a part of the staff evaluation procedures.

___ 4. Encourage teachers to apply the methods and techniques of the self-directing professional to their own classroom as a way of:
a) challenging students to pursue excellence.
b) individualize/personalize instruction.
c) develop student responsibility and self-direction through contracting.
d) include home and community in the educational process.

___ 5. Arrange for special workshops on site where needed to assist participants with their collegial teams or self-directing contracts. Examples of such workshops might include:
a) Time management.
b) Conflict resolution.
c) Stress management (available from BCTF).
d) Communication skills (available from BCTF).

NOTE: Two forms are enclosed. After completion, please retain one and forward the other to:

Professional Development Division
B.C. Teachers' Federation
2235 Burrard Street
Vancouver, BC V6J 3H9

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