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AUTHOR	Munson, Paul J.; And Others
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ABSTRACT

A 20-month old faculty development program at a large urban university, Virginia Commonwealth University, is examined by discussing the strategies employed to facilitate faculty growth, and analyze, in hindsight, how appropriate or inappropriate they may have been in view of faculty or institutional needs. Virginia Commonwealth University's conception of faculty development covers a broad range. It includes development as a teacher, for example, sharpening of teaching and evaluation skills, getting feedback on teaching behavior, and clarifying values of teaching and learning. But it also includes development of other faculty roles, such a planning and managing curricula and advising students. At a third level, faculty development seeks to help design an organizational climate whereby the faculty member may work toward accomplishment of his/her own personal and professional goals. In short, the purpose of faculty development is to help faculty members function more comfortably and effectively in the university setting. Based on those observations, implications for the development of other faculty development programs are noted and discussed in terms of guidelines for initiating, implementing, and evaluating them. (Author/PG)

So You Want to Try Faculty Development?

by

Paul J. Munson, Ed.D.
Assistant Professor
Educational Planning & Development Program

Elizabeth J. Mason, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Medical Surgical Nursing
School of Nursing

Jon F. Wergin, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Educational Planning & Development Program

Medical College of Virginia
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

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Paul J. Munson, Ed.D., Elizabeth J. Mason, Ph.D., Jon F. Wergin, Ph.D.

Virginia Commonwealth University

Faculty development is fast emerging as a major priority in post-secondary education. Reasons for this surge of interest are numerous, but most center around traditionally non-academic concerns. Demands from students and society are becoming increasingly strident for educational programs that are accountable to their needs. Moreover, a new lack of professional mobility both within and among institutions has contributed to demands by teachers for more effective programs designed to facilitate and document their own effectiveness in the classroom.

Whatever the causes, the faculty development business is booming. In August, 1974, more than 300 faculty and administrators from across the country attended the First National Conference on Faculty Development and Evaluation, co-sponsored by Kansas State University and the American Association for Higher Education. In October of last year the University of Massachusetts held the first international conference in the field. Major foundations and government agencies have sponsored dozens of projects in faculty development. Scores of colleges and universities have established such programs, and many more are planning them.

The field of faculty development is so new and undefined that the variety of programs and activities conceived in its name is bewildering. Strategies for facilitating faculty development have been described in several sources (Eble, 1971; Centra, 1972; and Freeman, 1973) and include approaches such as employing teaching apprenticeships, modifying faculty reward systems, experimenting with inter-institutional cooperation, and developing faculty-self-awareness. As is true in many development efforts, the welter of such amorphous

and diverse programs often bears little relationship to clearly defined needs of the faculty.

Our experience at Virginia Commonwealth University is typical. The University is divided into two campuses, housing liberal arts and health science curricula, respectively. During the past two years each campus has spawned its own faculty development program, complete with full-time and adjunct staff. On the Medical College of Virginia (MCV) Campus, the Educational Planning and Development Program (EPDP) functions to assist educational units within MCV to define their goals more precisely and then to assist in goal accomplishment. EPDP is staffed by four full-time faculty members, plus four faculty members holding joint appointments in one of the six health science schools. An interdisciplinary faculty group, the Committee on Faculty Development in Teaching, has also been organized as an advising body to the staff. In its short history EPDP has assisted in such things as grant preparation, educational policy formation, and evaluation research. The bulk of our effort, however, lies in faculty development. Our arrival at VCU was met with immediate pressures from various sources for programs, workshops, inservice courses, and the like, all designed to promote faculty growth. In an effort to respond to these pressures and thus demonstrate our utility to the institution, we proceeded with a number of interventions, relying upon what often proved to be faulty assumptions.

Our purpose in this paper is to examine MCV's fledgling faculty development program by describing the strategies we employed and analyzing in hindsight how appropriate or inappropriate they may have been vis a vis faculty or institutional needs. Based upon these observations we will abstract a number of principles which, we believe, have important implications for faculty development programs in other settings.

As may be seen by the examples below, our conception of faculty development covers a wide landscape. It includes development as a teacher: sharpening of

teaching and evaluation skills, getting feedback on teaching behavior, and clarifying values of teaching and learning. But it also includes development of other faculty roles, such as planning and managing curricula and advising students. At a third level, faculty development seeks to help design an organizational climate whereby the faculty member may work towards accomplishment of his/her own personal and professional goals. In short, the purpose of faculty development is to help faculty members function more comfortably and effectively in the university setting.

The case histories below are described in roughly chronological order.

Workshops on Simulations and Self-Instructional Packages

Description: During our two years of existence several workshops have been conducted to help faculty produce and try out particular kinds of instructional materials, such as self-instructional packages and written simulations of problem-solving skills. Workshop agenda typically consist of general sessions conducted by staff consultants who explain concepts and methodology and disseminate handout materials; these are followed by individual work sessions with resource staff available as needed. General sessions are also held to share individual progress, to clarify points of confusion, and to answer questions. The roles of the staff consultants are to serve as tutors to the participants and to coordinate the discussion sessions. Typically, workshops are held over a period of two or three days in a retreat setting a short distance from the faculty members' offices. Success for this type of workshop is determined by the degree to which the workshop objectives have been accomplished: e.g., whether in fact a self-instructional package was produced and tried out on students.

Analysis: We have found these programs to be quite successful. Many of the materials produced in the workshops are being used extensively, and their use has not been limited to authors' own courses. Further, campus policies

are currently being formulated which will acknowledge such faculty efforts by equating their products with publications. We see two very straightforward factors responsible for the workshops' effectiveness:

1. Workshops have been responsive to clearly-delineated needs of faculty members. Workshop staff provide the setting and whatever expert assistance is required to accomplish the objectives.
2. Faculty know what to expect from the workshops and are able to self-select on that basis. The workshops contain no surprises.

We have also found that faculty-consultant relationships established during the workshops have led to a number of spinoff projects. One such spinoff is described below.

Conversion of a Departmental Curriculum to Self-Instruction

Description: A faculty member from the department of one of the health science schools became interested in alternative ways of presenting basic course material. Through his prior association at another university he had become acquainted with the idea of developing individualized instruction through self-instructional packages. He discussed the possibilities of implementation with his department chairman, and called upon our office for assistance in running a two-day workshop aimed at training the department faculty in such skills. Prior to the workshop two of us began working with the faculty member and his department, outlining a strategy for changing the curriculum to a self-paced format: we discussed resources, resistances, possible outcomes, and ways of assessing effectiveness. The department became committed to the project and we went ahead with the workshop, after which we worked extensively with the department in planning curriculum change. The entire process took the better part of a year. Upon instituting the change in the fall of 1974, the faculty discovered that students were generally happy with the format, and furthermore their average performance level on examinations

rose markedly over that of previous classes. Other departments in the school are now experimenting with similar changes in their own courses.

Analysis:

1. Our entree with the departmental faculty was on the basis of a particular problem - performance level of students - that all department members shared.
2. Department faculty were willing to devote their time to looking at alternative solutions, which in turn helped clarify the instructional problem.
3. All department members were identified and involved in the planning and intervention process; all had their concerns aired and listened to.
4. Care was taken to anticipate problems of implementing change, i.e., relating to the political structure and climate of the School.
5. The department chairman was a politically-powerful change agent in the School, and had the full support of both the Dean and his own faculty.

Specific expectations do not guarantee success. The following is an account of what can happen:

Subject Matter Objectives

Description: In one School major curriculum decisions are handled by subject matter committees. The chairman of one of these committees contacted our staff to help him conduct a one-day workshop that would help design the course of instruction for students in that subject matter area. The chairman took responsibility for most housekeeping details while the workshop staff served as small group leaders. The purpose of the workshop was to produce objectives, identify procedures for accomplishing the objectives and identify the methods of testing student accomplishment. The format used during the workshop depended upon each group; however, most chose to work in small group discussion sessions. It was clear during the process of the workshop that it was not a stunning

success. Feedback from the chairman, at a later time, confirmed our suspicion: it turned most faculty members off and was seen by them as a complete waste of time. Clearly, the whole experience did not create any new business for our office.

Analysis: Our most critical mistake was to respond only to the chairman's request for help, ignoring the twenty-two other faculty members who attended the workshop. As it turned out, faculty had little choice but to attend: a clear expectation coupled with a little cajolling got them there. The faculty did not support the idea nor did they expect the workshop to solve anything.

A School Faculty Retreat: 1974

Description: The Dean of another professional school on this campus, after seeing the apparent success of faculty retreats in other schools, decided that the time was ripe for a retreat for her own faculty. She put together an ad hoc committee for planning purposes, and recommended that the committee call upon our staff for consultation. Our first contacts with this group centered around theme and topic selection, and the group decided to poll the faculty for their choices. A short questionnaire was designed and sent out to all faculty members. Response to the questionnaire was quite low - about 25% - but the area given strongest emphasis by those who did respond was the need for better organizational communication, particularly regarding administrative decision-making. From these data the committee developed the major retreat goal of increasing faculty/organizational cohesiveness. Committee members insisted, however, that specific back-home problems not be discussed during the retreat: that such issues were sufficiently sensitive and inflammatory to destroy whatever sense of cohesiveness derived from the retreat setting. Our planning proceeded on that basis, and our final plans called for such things as mini-lectures and demonstrations on interpersonal communication, group definitions of "cohesiveness",

and simulated experiences in group process and problem-solving. At the retreat itself, tension was apparent from the start. A number of participants were openly hostile; enthusiasm was low; participation minimal. Most participants went along with the program in a passive way until midway through the retreat, when they were asked to practice basic communication skills in triads. At that point passive hostility became open rebellion: faculty were already teaching such skills to their own students, they told us, and furthermore the entire retreat thus far had been irrelevant and largely a waste of time. We proceeded to throw out the agenda and contracted with the group to spend the rest of the session focusing exclusively on back-home problems. Participants were divided into organizational units (undergraduate, graduate, and administration) and told to isolate factors which both helped and hindered cohesion in the School. The groups went about their task enthusiastically, and the oral reports that followed were received with rapt attention. Participants spent the remainder of the retreat brainstorming ways to overcome the identified barriers to cohesion and assessing such ideas in terms of implementable plans. A followup meeting was held back on campus some three months later to work out specific plans of action in each of the following theme areas: decision-making, communication, faculty development and curriculum. A number of conclusions were reached and recommendations made; few of these, however, were implemented during the next 12 months.

Analysis:

1. In our initial involvement we did not identify the different needs held by the retreat consumers: general faculty, the ad hoc committee, and the Dean herself; furthermore, the original retreat plan was never ratified by the full faculty, thereby insuring low commitment to its success.
2. We did not closely scrutinize the rationale for having a retreat in the first place, in terms of its source, mode of presentation to the

faculty, and faculty response to the idea.

3. We did not heed the early warnings of passive hostility, and we overlooked what data we did have; rather, we trusted the ad hoc committee, whose own security needs pressured us into doing something "safe".
4. The retreat was successful only when participants saw us, the staff, as flexible and willing to change to meet group needs.
5. Although enthusiastically designed, the retreat recommendations were never completely implemented, due to diffuse responsibility for carrying out the plans.

A Followup Retreat: 1975

Description: Responsibility for planning the 1975 Retreat was transferred to a standing committee, Inservice. At the first planning meeting two alternative goals were proposed: to focus on curriculum revision, or to concentrate more directly upon unresolved issues of the previous year's retreat. In subsequent meetings these issues were further negotiated, and finally the committee decided to put the choice before the full faculty at the next faculty Congress. The two choices as presented were the following: 1) Evaluation for change in the curriculum; and 2) Evaluation for change in the School, as regards decision-making, communication, curriculum, and faculty development. The faculty voted unanimously for Option Two. At that meeting it was also decided that these four components would comprise task groups at the Retreat and faculty would select themselves into one of the four groups based upon their interest. Two weeks later a ballot was sent to faculty members asking them to indicate a first and second choice for task group. After sifting through the ballots the Committee was able to make formal group assignments in such a way that everyone was given either their first or second choice. Each group met twice before the retreat to elect a chairperson, select an external consultant, define the problem,

and set retreat objectives. The general objective for each group was to put together an action plan for evaluation. At the Retreat itself each group was free to set its own schedule and agenda between an opening plenary session, where there was a keynote address on a topic relating to the future of the profession, and a final session which was to consist of formal group reports. The salient feature throughout the workshop was the low profile of staff members, who functioned purely as individual consultants to groups. Responsibility for managing the session rested squarely with group leaders, all School faculty members.

As might be expected, the decentralized approach met with mixed success. Some groups were able to accomplish their objectives; others were not. The Inservice Committee met on several occasions to coordinate followup activities, which consisted primarily of delegating responsibility for carrying out recommendations. Each individual or group so assigned was given 60 days to respond to the assignment, indicating either, 1) when and how the recommendation would be carried out, or 2) that the recommendation would not be implemented, with reasons.

Analysis: Although it is yet too early to assess the success of this year's retreat, several points are clear.

1. Faculty had some idea of what a retreat could accomplish, and were anxious to follow up last year's retreat with concrete outcomes.
2. Faculty themselves "owned" the Retreat and were committed to making it work; further, information given prior to the Retreat helped allay fears and calm suspicions.
3. Prior planning by each task group helped mutual sharing and specificity of objectives and activities.
4. Group success depended mostly upon:

a. Effectiveness of chairperson and consultant at keeping the group on the task; and

b. The amount of similarity between what the retreat group was doing and what standing committees on campus were doing. The greater the similarity, the greater the role conflicts and identity problems became.

5. Consultants were most valued for their responsiveness and perceptiveness, not necessarily for their "expertness".

Faculty Inservice Series

Description: Among the recommendations made by the Committee on Faculty Development in Teaching was to have our staff conduct an in-service course dealing with the design and implementation of an Instructional Unit. Nine sessions were conducted, covering the following topics: (1) Factors affecting student performance; (2) constructing and effectively using instructional objectives; (3-5) designing learning experiences to help students accomplish course objectives; (6) evaluating students: an overview; (7) constructing tests; (8) interpreting test results and assigning grades, and (9) improving courses through evaluation. The in-service course was open to all faculty from each of the six health science schools. Faculty could choose to attend any session they desired.

Reaction to the in-service course can best be characterized as mixed: a strength to some was a weakness to others. A wide range of opinion characterized reactions to almost every aspect of the series, from topic selection to content and mode of presentation. Faculty attitudes, knowledge and style of learning varied considerably. Some participants saw themselves as knowing nothing about the educational process, and attended the sessions with the expectation that the program would tell them how to become a good teacher. They came with high

dependent needs, passively expecting to receive information telling them how to go about the business of teaching. Other participants had contrary expectations. These were people who had had some exposure to educational methodology, and attended with collaborative needs, expecting to share experiences and insights with the staff and others. Faculty with dependent needs therefore focused more upon the "content" of the sessions, while faculty with collaborative needs focused more on the "process" of the sessions.

Despite our mixed success, the participants clearly reinforced the value of such a program, both by their direct comments and by the problems they raised and the questions they asked.

Analysis:

1. When the course was developed we assumed that an adequate description of the program was provided to potential participants so that they could identify their educational needs and select the sessions to attend on that basis. That assumption was incorrect.
2. Participants who were dependent learners tended to respond more favorably to the didactic sessions of the course; participants who were collaborative learners tended to respond more favorably to sessions that were flexible and discussion-oriented.
3. Assessing the educational needs of faculty and their learning styles are important dimensions in designing teaching-learning experiences for faculty.
4. The whole experience taught us a great deal about the political structure and organizational climate within which faculty must work.

Seminar in Human Interaction Skills

Description: Two faculty members in one of the Health Science Division departments communicated to their chairman the frustrations they were having

in advising students. The chairman wrote a letter to the Vice President for Student Affairs seeking assistance. The Vice President called upon three people - two from Student Affairs, one from our office - to discuss ways in which he could respond to the department chairman. They decided to meet with the departmental faculty, then given faculty input, design a program that would respond to their needs. After several months of discussion and planning with the faculty an in-service course in Human Interaction Skills was offered. About half of the departmental faculty chose to attend.

The course was designed to include not only the standard instructional format of lectures, handouts, and discussions, but also video tapes of faculty practice sessions. The minicourse lasted for three hours per day, three days a week, for three weeks. Three months following the sessions a goal-free evaluation was conducted by a member of our staff who knew very little about the program. Overall reaction to the series indicated that all seven participants thought the objectives and process of the series were worthwhile and valuable. All expressed interest in pursuing issues raised during the seminar.

Analysis:

1. The program was a response to a direct need articulated by the faculty.
2. Considerable mutual planning among session leaders and participants, both prior to and during the sessions, insured participant ownership.
3. We were able to establish and demonstrate our credibility early by putting together a rather extensive course handbook.

Curriculum Development Retreat

Description: A staff member was approached by the head of a divisional program and asked if he could help her faculty make some decisions pertaining to curriculum revision. Planning would culminate in a two-day off-campus workshop, some six months hence. Our staff member agreed to help, and first met with the faculty during an all-day debriefing of the spring semester. At

this meeting faculty discussed a wide variety of problem areas, ranging from difficulties in course design to philosophical problems and political pressures upon the curriculum. Our consultant stayed in the background, taking notes. He reconstructed the problem areas he perceived in a memorandum back to the faculty, containing in addition a general strategy for further diagnosing the problems prior to the retreat, so that the retreat itself could be devoted to plans of action. His analysis was well received and the retreat was set for late fall. Throughout the summer the staff member met with the faculty, attempting to further clarify the problem areas. Several techniques were tried: listing and rating sources of influence, force field analysis, and classifying and rating crucial issues. As the summer wore on it became increasingly clear to the staff member that little progress was being made; points of view were so diverse that any kind of consensus seemed unattainable. The staff member also began to notice rather intense interpersonal conflicts surfacing that seemed to hinder fruitful communication. Not only did faculty express different values of what the program should be doing, but they also were far apart on such basic things as the role of the professional in the field. Such conflicts translated into considerable interpersonal friction. The chairman suggested that the retreat time be spent defining curriculum objectives. But, judging from how poorly this group had been able to work together up to that point, the staff member suggested that team-building exercises were probably necessary as a first step. The faculty generally agreed, and the first day of the retreat was set aside for such activities. The so-called "team-building" experience had in fact almost an opposite effect. Plenty of confrontations and conflicts emerged, to be sure, but the faculty mostly dealt with these by denying that a problem really existed. Participants seemed unwilling to express themselves openly, for fear that they would be opening a "Pandora's Box". By the end of the retreat the faculty had agreed upon some general curriculum objectives, but argued

constantly over specifics.

Followup began with some intensive discussions with the chairman. From these discussions emerged two basic difficulties: lack of professional identity and perceived respect within the profession, and lack of full and honest communication within the faculty. One of us suggested that perhaps the second problem was partly an outgrowth of the first. The chairman agreed, and we decided upon a followup meeting to focus on strategies for change. This was arranged, and at the meeting we presented four alternative modes for revising the curriculum. The group, with little dissension, chose the first and most difficult option: to identify and categorize competencies needed by graduates. We are currently working on the problem with full cooperation and interest, using a modified Delphi* technique.

Analysis:

1. Long and intensive association with a faculty group does not necessarily guarantee successful intervention.
2. Identified problems, such as poor communication, may be themselves symptoms of more basic problems (in this case, professional identity).
3. Faculty may resist revealing previously ineffective behaviors in a laboratory or "retreat" setting.
4. Successful consultation in the end depended upon specific solution strategies.

The above case studies represent a broad spectrum of experiences, audiences, and outcomes. As we first debriefed these experiences it appeared to us that the factor most predictive of success was our depth of knowledge about the faculty.

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* See Weaver, W.T., The Delphi Forecasting Method, Phi Delta Kappan, 1971, 52, 267-272, for an explanation of the technique.

In cases where expectations were specifically stated (such as the instructional package workshops), or where considerable planning took place involving all participants (such as the curriculum development retreat), our efforts led to successful outcomes. But in those cases where we attempted interventions or programs without a working knowledge of participant needs and expectations (such as the subject matter objectives retreat), our efforts seemed doomed from the start. To us such a finding was neither surprising nor particularly illuminating: the obvious conclusion was that a thorough needs assessment must be done before any intervention is attempted.

But as we began looking more critically at our experiences, we discovered the issue to be considerably more complex. Facilitating faculty development is more than accurately assessing needs; it is more than collecting and interpreting pertinent data. An effective faculty development program must both collect useful information and establish a positive faculty-consultant relationship. These two features are interdependent; one cannot occur without the other. Needs assessment in faculty development involves collecting data from faculty members relevant to discrepancies between the status quo and some desired state. These data are fed back to the same faculty with interpretations - perhaps judgments - that may reflect upon some very tender issues, such as teaching competence, managerial style, and so forth. If the consultant has not already engendered an open, accepting, trusting, and professionally credible relationship the quality of the information obtained will be superficial, and the responses to it will be defensive.

Therefore, in initiating faculty development activities the consultant must accomplish two things: develop a data base for needs assessment and establish an accepting, trusting, and professionally credible relationship with the faculty. We see this as an evolving process that begins superficially, with a low knowledge

base and low trust, and develops into a relationship characterized by both a greater information base and greater trust, openness, and personal acceptance. Further, the role the consultant should take depends upon the stage of relationship: early stages demand a professional, "expert" consultant role, while for later stages a more personal, "collaborative" role is appropriate. These roles in turn demand different strategies for assessment, planning, and intervention, resulting in different outcomes.

The evolutionary nature of the faculty development enterprise may be represented by the figure below.

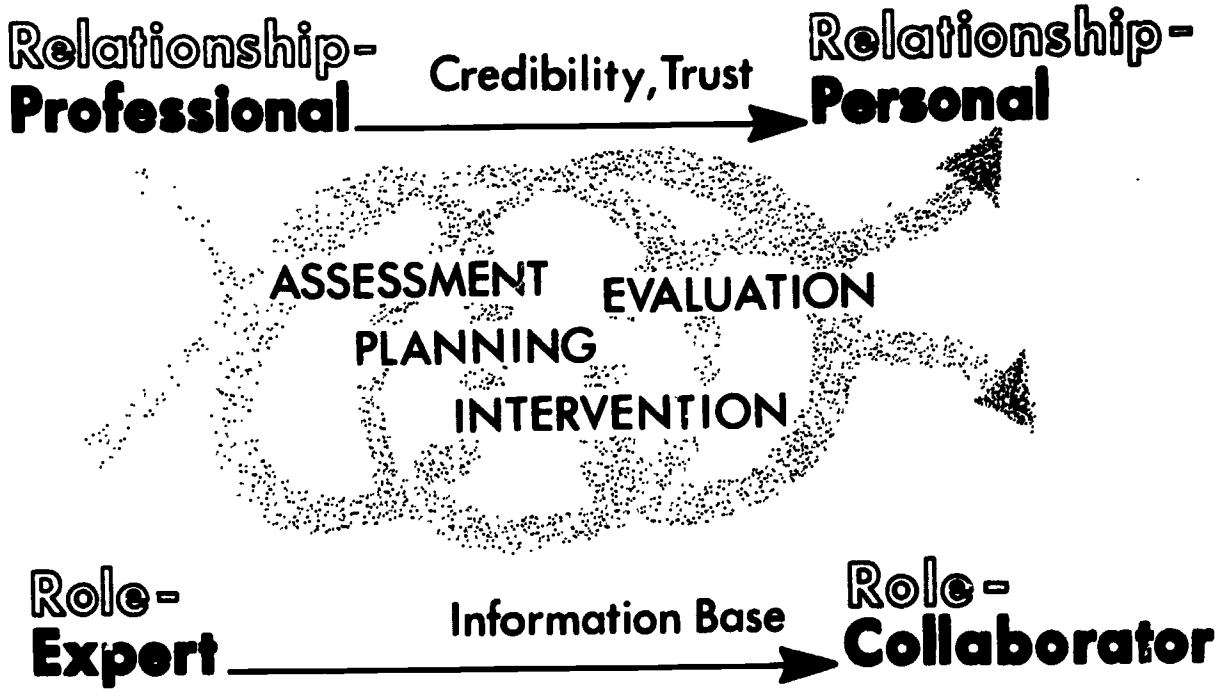

Figure 1. A faculty development model.

In initial encounters with faculty, credibility, trust, and mutual knowledge are all likely to be low. Thus, the relationship is likely to be professional, and the consultant will be most effective functioning as an expert. Through a continuous and cyclical process of assessment, planning, intervention, and evaluation both the relationship and the information base change; interactions become more personal and the consultant becomes most effective as a collaborator. These two extremes of the model are described separately, below.

Professional-Expert Phase

The consultant's major purpose during the professional-expert phase of the model is to establish an aura of trust and credibility. This is an absolutely necessary condition, and it must be satisfied first. A secondary purpose is to gather as much data as possible about factors and conditions requiring intervention. Although assessment, planning, intervention, and evaluation are all carried out during this phase, the steps will be blurred and there may be a great deal of movement back and forth before an intervention is implemented.

Assessment. The first few meetings will be exploratory in nature for both consultant and faculty. Faculty may not trust the consultant much, and as a result will often approach him in a superficial, exploratory way. The problem brought forth for discussion will often not be a self-disclosing one for faculty. More likely, it will be a "safe", superficial problem covering a hidden agenda; faculty will try to identify competencies of the consultant and to reveal whether he can be trusted. Sometimes the faculty member has decided upon a solution to the problem already and asks for assistance only to implement the solution.

The situation poses several implications. First, the consultant should accept what is presented him, and focus on the faculty's strengths, not deficiencies. There are at least two ways to solve problems: one is to remove deficiencies, the other is to expand strengths. Trust and credibility are fostered when the

faculty-consultant relationship is based upon mutual respect and acceptance - i.e., a desire to see the strengths in the other person. The consultant should be willing to intervene based on the information he has so that he can demonstrate responsiveness, help clarify the problem by looking at alternative solutions, and build a data base for further needs assessment. Although continued discussions may identify problems of a more profound nature, the consultant should not spend any more time in assessment than the faculty are willing or able to commit.

This notion of "solution solving" (i.e., responding to requests for assistance) is an important one in the professional-expert phase. Devoting too much time to diagnosing the problem, especially when faculty already think they have identified a solution, may communicate to the faculty that either the consultant has a personal need to play a "scientist" role, or that he does not have the expertise to assist faculty in the solution of their problem. Viewed in this manner, solution solving serves, as Lindquist (1974) notes, "as a catalyst to further clarify the problem". Thus, the consultant must accept faculty's perceptions of their own needs or problems and work from this point. This is not to say, however, that the consultant must accept faculty solutions carte blanche. Some probing is necessary; for example: "if the solution were implemented, what would its impact be?" Or, "what will the implementation of the solution do to help you?" These questions may also assist in identifying probable consumers - that is, those affected by the problem or those who will benefit by its solution.

Obviously, as much data as possible about the setting and consumers should be obtained prior to intervention; but because of the limited time faculty are willing to spend in the assessment step and the superficial nature of their relationship with the consultant, the data base available for planning in the professional-expert interaction phase will be low. The consultant must be very sensitive to the threshold reached when increased data collection will result in decreased trust.

Planning. During planning, consultants are generally utilized by faculty as experts. Many faculty are unaware of interventions that might provide a solution to their expressed problem, and may lack the skill or resources to implement them. The consultant may therefore be expected to perform these functions. One caveat, however: in order for action plans to be implemented by faculty - even with assistance - the plans must be congruent with the political climate and structure of the school. This means that all affected by the plans should be "sounded out" prior to any intervention. (Our neglect of this principle led to disastrous consequences in the subject-matter retreat.) Our experience has been that negotiation of conflict is a far simpler process while plans are still fluid; when they solidify, so do vested interests, and considering the consultant's rather precarious role in this phase he can ill afford to be viewed as a troublemaker.

Intervention. Many faculty who are just beginning to learn more about their own teaching will respond to new knowledge somewhat passively, in a dependent learner role. They want content present by "experts" on concrete topics such as "teach me how to better develop a lecture for presentation to 175 students in 50 minutes"; not a discussion of "the learning styles of students with implications for teaching" (see our earlier discussion of the inservice course). These faculty have a strong need to obtain specific answers for problems they see as hindering their teaching effectiveness. Only when faculty receive answers to their immediate concerns will they begin to ask questions that reflect more abstract thinking and problem solving. When faculty knowledge regarding teaching is low and faculty are afraid to expose their teaching limitations to the staff, the lecture method coupled with a question and answer period will probably be most useful. Content should be presented in a logical sequence using a deductive mode of presentation.

Faculty at this beginning level of development also need an advance organizer concerning the format of the program if the mode of presentation is one not commonly used. In the first School faculty retreat, for example, faculty were unsure of their individual and collective roles at the retreat before it began. Although directions were given before the beginning of each activity, it would have been more helpful to the faculty had they known the overall mode of presentation before the retreat began. The advance organizer method was used in the second retreat and faculty came to it prepared to begin the planned activities.

Evaluation. In initial encounters with faculty, judgments of success or failure should not rest solely upon achievement of specific program objectives. Their accomplishment may, in fact, be almost incidental. Rather, given the limitations of information and trust between the consultant and faculty, the effects are likely to be rather covert, catalytic* effects. For example, a common outcome of this phase is for faculty to begin raising questions about their own teaching effectiveness, and thus set in motion another round of assessment, planning, and intervention - this time on a more personal level. Another catalytic effect occurs when informal communication among faculty from various schools stimulates requests from other sources for assistance. (We have found this to be especially true in the instructional package workshops). One further note concerning such effects: faculty may not be sensitive to small increases in their own personal and professional growth. If so, followup planning becomes doubly important: small changes that are unnoticed may quickly wither on the vine. Followup will also enable staff consultants to maintain

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* By "catalytic" effects we mean those effects which serve as precursors to more long-term outcomes.

contact with the faculty so that more intensive needs assessment may take place. In short, followup "keeps the fizz in the gingerale". One way to insure followup and continued involvement is to insist upon specific action plans. These plans must include goals, tasks, responsibilities, and target dates.

Now if catalytic effects indeed comprise the most significant outcomes of the professional-expert phase, then the following questions appear most important for evaluation:

1. Has credibility and trust been established from the faculty's point of view? Is the consultant seen as someone with something to offer?
2. Have communication links been established to allow for followup activities?
3. Has a bank of data been built for use in further dealing with the faculty? Do these data help further define the problem?
4. Has the consultant's own visibility to other individuals or groups increased as a result of the intervention?

In summary, the professional-expert phase of the faculty development model is characterized by high consultant visibility for the primary purpose of establishing trust, credibility, and a data base from which to work more effectively. But this phase also involves substantial risks, and these are enumerated below:

1. Consultants will walk a tightrope between satisfying their needs for collecting needs assessment data and satisfying faculty needs for action. Clearly, data are needed to clarify the problem, generate alternative solutions, and identify probable consumers. But faculty patience with comprehensive assessment may be limited. When it runs out, the consultant had better be prepared to "do something", or else lose trust and credibility.

2. Because the data base will often be low, interventions may well treat symptoms rather than problems. If consultants are unable to pick up on feedback and make immediate modifications accordingly, they will probably be viewed as unresponsive.
3. Such spur-of-the-moment changes will require a broad range of consultant skills, ranging from facility in group dynamics to expertise in such technical matters as test construction. The consultant should be prepared to deliver, or find resources who can.

Summary Principles Pertinent to the Professional-Expert Phase

1. Credibility and trust must be established before effective problem solving is possible.
2. Identifying needs is more difficult than devising solutions.
3. Never diagnose beyond where people are willing to go.
4. Interventions will provide data leading to a further clarification of the problem.
5. Attempt to change only those areas amenable to change.
6. When participant learning styles are dependent or when the information base is low, didactic modes will be most effective, particularly if they are concrete and deductive.
7. Action plans for followup must include goals, tasks, responsibilities and target dates, or they will be ignored.
8. Catalytic, not direct, effects will be most significant.

Personal-Collaborative Phase

The amount of time required before faculty and consultants may work through the professional-expert phase will vary tremendously. Sometimes the bridge is almost immediate, as in the project which converted a curriculum to self-instruction; other times the entire assessment-planning-intervention-evaluation process must be recycled over and over (as in the curriculum development retreat) before a personal and collaborative relationship is established. When that point is reached, however, the nature of the consultation will change in several significant ways.

Assessment. First, the consultant has a much greater likelihood of accurately assessing faculty needs. The relationship is more trusting and open, and faculty are likely to be less intimidated and threatened by feedback. The consultant will be freer to concentrate on identifying problems rather than implementing solutions. Greater available data should also help identify the probable consumers more clearly. In our planning for the Faculty Retreat - 1975, for example, we knew from our previous year's experience that particular interest groups within the faculty would be the primary consumers, and so we were able to focus upon them more clearly in the scheduled activities.

Once trust and credibility have been established, a collaborative style of interaction is more effective than an expert style. There are two reasons for this. First, because of the trust relationship that has been built, faculty will want to work collaboratively with much greater give-and-take. Assuming an exclusively "expert" role at this stage will put faculty members off just as much as will a "collaborative" role in the professional-expert phase. Second, the consultant's collaborative role is crucial to a thorough needs assessment. Professional development of faculty members is interlocked with needs they have as persons and the pressures they experience as members in an organization. Working with one problem sets a series of other problems

in motion, all of which must be dealt with. Reaching ultimate problems is not feasible; but working with many small problems is.

Planning. During the planning phase, the consultant may be occasionally used as an expert, but more commonly will be used as a catalyst and resource person. Faculty who have had considerable contact with the consultant staff are aware of the resources that exist and know better how to use them. Accordingly, it is important that all probable consumers be involved in the planning. High commitment will be obtained when faculty have the responsibility for determining how the consultant will respond to their needs.

From this involvement an action plan should emerge for the intervention (as opposed to action plans for followup in the professional-expert phase). As was previously noted, action plans should include goals, tasks, responsibilities, and target dates. In order to remain consistent with the collaborative nature of the consultant's involvement, the weight of the responsibility for coordinating task accomplishment should shift to the faculty. A clear illustration is the recent work we did as a followup to the Curriculum Development Retreat, where we worked together with the faculty in determining how we could best respond to their needs. Action plans were developed, and to date are being implemented by them, on schedule.

Intervention. Faculty who have had considerable exposure to teaching and have examined the literature regarding teaching typically respond in a collaborative learner role. They prefer colleague-learning, i.e., to share and examine what their colleagues are doing, especially if this sharing takes place within subject-matter areas. Further, their learning tends to be inductive and conceptual rather than deductive and concrete. Faculty are able to use their knowledge and experience to conceptualize working models for themselves.

The faculty inservice series best highlights these ideas. Faculty reactions to the programs were at opposite poles because of their knowledge base, their

earning styles (collaborative vs. dependent), and the relationship that existed among the participants and between the participants and the consultant.

As previously noted, the responsibility for supervising the intervention rests with the faculty. The consultant should take responsibility only as requested, and should normally function as a facilitator, peer-learner, and resource person. As a result, both his visibility and risk-taking will be considerably lower.

Evaluation. Outcomes to be expected in this phase will differ significantly from those expected at the professional-expert level. The distinction is clear: results should focus more on direct effects of intervention (i.e., accomplishment of mutual objectives), and less on catalytic effects - assessment in this phase will be more thorough, and intervention efforts are more likely to match real needs. Therefore, the following evaluation questions would be most appropriate:

1. Does the responsibility for success shift from the consultant to the faculty and do the faculty accept this responsibility?
2. Were the objectives of the intervention accomplished? Which critical incidents served to foster or hinder effectiveness?
3. Were faculty needs satisfied? What remains to be done?

Summary Principles Pertinent to the Personal-Collaborative Phase

1. Once credibility and trust have been established, the faculty-consultant relationship should become more collaborative.
2. All probable consumers must be identified and involved in the assessment, planning, intervention, and evaluation process.
3. Ultimate problems are difficult if not impossible to identify; incremental strategies are more appropriate, and these require considerable collaboration with the consultant.
4. Action plans for intervention must include goals, tasks, responsibilities and target dates, or they will be ignored.

5. Colleague learning is powerful except when the participants' learning styles are dependent and when the knowledge faculty possess is low.
6. Faculty who are collaborative and possess considerable knowledge about the teaching-learning process tend to learn in an inductive and conceptual fashion.
7. Direct, not catalytic, effects will be most significant.

Conclusion: So You Want to Try Faculty Development?

The business of faculty development poses complex issues for which there exist no simple solutions. We hope that our model at least helps to crystalize these issues more clearly. We would like to end this paper on a more personal note. Unquestionably, working in faculty development taxes the ego: there is constant change and uncertainty, and faculty growth is slow. Consequently, we get little concrete feedback about our own effectiveness. But the rewards, while intangible, are often profound. Our involvement with faculty is exciting and stimulating, particularly when we are able to share ideas with people of varied interests and backgrounds. Helping faculty meet their own goals and seeing them experience success with their students is a professional high. If the risk is great, so are the opportunities for creativity and imagination. The greatest challenge of faculty development is also its greatest luxury.

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