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ABSTRACT
                This report synthesizes findings on the facilitators
of school-focused inservice teacher training, describing their tasks
and responsibilities, and determining the skills required and the
training necessary to prepare them to perform such tasks. The concept
of school-focused inservice was examined in terms of its
organizational/managerial ramifications and the implications of these
dimensions as they determine the task of facilitators. Data was
obtained for this report from case studies carried out in eighteen
countries. After a examination of the importance of the topic,
attention is turned to the questions of what is involved in inservice
training programs and who are the program facilitators. The question
of how these facilitators are trained is also addressed. (JD)

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The Role and Training of Teacher Trainers

SYNTHESIS REPORT

OECD ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
(CERI)

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS:
TOWARDS NEW POLICIES

The Role and Training of Teacher Trainers
Synthesis Report

by

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1980

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INTRODUCTION

Background

The interim report concluding the first stage of the CERI/INSET project, summarised and synthesised the main findings from a series of ten national case-studies on INSET policies and the Philadelphia seminar (27th June - 3rd July, 1976) where the case-studies were discussed (Bolam, 1978). This report also attempted to identify some of the key issues in need of further explication before more enlightened INSET policy and practice could be achieved:

1. the relationship of adult learning and development to INSET;

2. the function and role of the school in INSET;

3. strategies for the evaluation of INSET;

4. resource and materials development;

5. the cost and financing of INSET;

6. the training of INSET trainers.

With the agreement of the CERI Governing Board, the Phase Two of the INSET Project, started with a number of activities designed to provide further information about the above six topics and clarify issues attendant to them have been carried out. Included in these activities has been a series of conferences designed to examine "Strategies for School-Focused Support Structures for Teachers in Change and Innovation".

The first Conference on this topic was held in Stockholm (20th - 22nd October, 1976) and reiterated the above mentioned six key issues underlying the organisation and implementation of INSET and, in particular, school-focused INSET.

Among the points raised in the final conclusions of the Conference were those relating to identifying "facilitators" of school-focused INSET, describing their tasks and responsibilities, and determining the skills required and hence the training necessary to prepare them to perform such tasks.

In order to look further into these concerns, a meeting of experts was convened in Paris on 20th - 21st April, 1977 for purposes of examining the concept of school-focused INSET in terms of its organisational/managerial ramifications and the implications of these dimensions as they determine the task of facilitators. Further discussions on these topics took place in other conferences: (i) Palm Beach which examined ways in which a school-focused context could facilitate in-service for teachers (USA - November 1977); (ii) Bournemouth (UK - March 1978) which concentrated on synthetising prior efforts and investigating potential co-development in the area of school-focussed INSET programmes and materials.

An agreement was reached that the "training of trainers" topic would form a report only based on all other contributions available at that time. It was felt that the nature of the topic was such that the subject matter logically followed the other analyses and conclusions and should be the subject of a more vigorous analysis in any future work at national and international level.

Purpose of Report

Therefore, this report attempts to draw together available material from the INSET Project that has relevance for the training of trainers topic. After a brief examination of the importance of the area, attention is turned to questions of what and who are involved. Finally, the "how" question is tackled. Throughout the report, but particularly in this last section, selected material from outside the INSET Project is discussed in the hope of pointing to at least some directions forward.

Two Caveats

Data employed in this report varies in "quality" from personal views based on opinions, personal views based on research, national consensus views, to international consensus views. Perhaps some of the contradictions or dilemmas posed by the accumulation of evidence of such disparate quality could be resolved by the writer providing some sort of "respectability weighting" or status to the various data sources. Obviously such a process would be highly contentious at this early stage in the development of the area and could quickly lead us nowhere. This is not to argue that such an analysis should not be attempted -- but one has to first collect the data and that has been the major emphasis in the current report.

No claim is made that the report is comprehensive. The report's "shotgun" approach, the collection of many pieces of information on the role and training of INSET trainers, all of which, where written with other subject matter in mind and fired at a target is perhaps a messy but necessary first step. It is to be hoped that others with more time, resources and expertise will be stimulated (even if it be from utter frustration at the biases in this report) to turn their attentions to this important INSET area. It is also to be hoped that those accepting this challenge will be magnanimous enough to let those in the field benefit from their deliberations at an early date, for there is currently a dearth of useful data available to guide policy making.

WHY? - THE IMPORTANCE OF THE AREA

OECD statements (e.g. A Statement of overall policy issues and orientations which were arrived at by the Working Party of the Education Committee on Teacher Policies, Paris 1979); INSET Case Studies (e.g. Bolam 1976, United Kingdom, Skilbeck 1976, Australia), Reports (e.g. Bolam: Chapter V of: "Innovation in In-Service Education and Training of Teachers -

Practice and Theory 1978) and Conferences (e.g. Philadelphia and Bournemouth); all underline the importance of studying the role and training of trainers topic for improving INSET. They also point out that it is a new field which is not clearly defined and may require very different approaches than now exist.

There is evidence that problems in the area are being faced and that enough models or examples exist that have adaptability and/or generalisability to enable a start in the detailed collection of data. This fact should become clearer as we proceed with the discussion of what and who are involved in the training of INSET trainers in the next section.

WHAT AND WHO ARE INVOLVED?

Introduction

Because there is an agreement on the importance of the training of INSET trainers topic does not mean that there is agreement on questions of what and who are involved, in fact, almost the opposite. The three separate national inputs for the training the trainers section of the recent Bournemouth conference are illustrative.

The United Kingdom example described a pilot project that would involve trainee teachers and their college tutors and classroom teachers. It was hoped that the project would help develop a school-focus pattern for the professional self-evaluation and development of serving teachers. The Swedish input concentrated on the training of local teams on a nation-wide basis, a scheme that would take eight years to complete. Finally, the Portuguese case outlined the development of a curriculum for teacher trainers through a series of experimental seminars with the dual purpose of testing and re-testing a suitable curriculum and of identifying promising candidates capable of pursuing further study and development work.

Eighteen Case Studies

In order to reinforce the point about the degree of diversity in the training of INSET trainers topic, but also to provide data and implications for later discussion, eighteen case studies in the area have been culled from previous OECD documents (14) and other sources (4). A summary description of both the role and type of training employed in the cases can be found in the following table (Table I). A summary of some of the results/implications from nine of the eighteen case studies is provided in Table II which will be found in the next section of this report (see page 30). Both the case studies and the summary Tables are based on available data (some of which could benefit greatly from follow-up work).

Table I

Summary of the Eighteen Case Studies on the Role and Training of Inset Trainers

Case (see References at end of Table) (Year)	Project Name	Brief Description (Role)	How Trainer Trained
Japan (1976)	I School Based Research Projects	Each medium to large-sized school appoints one teacher as the research and training co-ordinator. He informs and advises teachers of INSET opportunities and plans research projects in which all faculty members participate.	Must have participated successfully in many INSET activities including a year's study leave at one of the universities or equivalent educational research institutions.
Portugal (current)	II The Training of Teacher Trainers	A centre established which aims to define the basic training for teacher trainers, propose and test a curriculum, and discover participants who may become interested in further subject specialisation. The centre has run experimental seminars initially with teachers who have had training experience.	The centre's staff reflect on their own experience and select subjects for experimental seminars that they feel are important, e.g. Group dynamics, communication, school and community, pedagogical evaluation. Experimental seminars led by specialists in one of the subjects (but other specialists also attend).
France (1972 +)	III Integrated Centres for the Training of Adult Trainers	Centres which train for general adult education.	Training presupposes some previous training and experience which it systematically draws on. One year's duration alternating attendance at group meetings at the centre with periods of practical field work supported by the Centre's permanent staff. Detailed programme devised at local level.
Holland (1976)	IV HOLBO Programme for Re-orientation in Maths Teaching in Vocational Schools	An institute involved in the re-orientation of maths teaching. Trains a part-time team to hold meetings across the country in teachers' spare time. Each team consists of a teacher of maths and a teacher of teaching methods.	Team found by advertising and individual contacts. A number of conferences held. In the first two conferences the new programme was explained and results of pilot projects with the approach reported. For the second two-day conference the course materials and potential problems were the focus. A third conference was used as a formative evaluation. In addition, after each two blocks of content matter a conference of trainers was organised. A trainer's manual accompanied each block of teaching content.

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Case (year)	Project Name	Brief Description (Role)	How Trainer Trained
UK (1976)	V Teacher-Tutors and Induction within the School(*)	Project aimed to assist the new teacher to develop effective techniques in the classroom through the use of paid teacher-tutors who also received release time.	Little detailed advice was provided for the tutors, it being left to training course organisers and the tutors themselves. Five to ten day briefing programme that was mainly concerned with exploratory discussions of the tutors' role, lectures on topics such as probationer's needs and external support agencies and visits to colleges of education. Little time was given to training or practice in supervision skills.
UK (About to start)	VI A school focused pattern of training for school personnel using pre- and in-service teachers and college tutors.	In each school there will be a team typically consisting of two teachers, five training students and a tutor from the training institution. Tutors co-ordinate the work of the school-based team and act as a link with other teams. The team will aim to establish a "school-focused pattern for the professional self-evaluation and development of serving teachers". It is hoped that materials will be developed for use in the future training of trainers.	The two teachers will be enrolled in a part-time course leading to a recognised award. Course involves first identifying and examining systematically problems pertinent to their particular teaching situation. Later they are encouraged to broaden their perspective and evaluate the whole curriculum. At the same time they are provided with opportunities to develop skills of working with professional colleagues (pre-service teachers and fellow in-service teachers from other schools). The two teachers will be expected to take a lead in the design of an evaluation and development cycle for their school. The tutors are pre-selected having a certain philosophy i.e. use problems defined in the classroom as a starting point and committed to participative problem solving. Briefing and training sessions to be held with groups of tutors.
UK (About to start)	VII The SITE Project	The schools and in-service teacher education evaluation project aims to explore the practicality of providing a concentrated, co-ordinated school-focused and formulated programme of in-service activities in four schools (primary/secondary, rural/urban, good/poor access to external INSET agencies).	Local Education Authorities re-allocate funds and advisory team time to try to meet expressed needs of schools. Schools will have an internal co-ordinator. External agencies provide courses and resources.

(*) See Results/Implications Summary Chart on page 30.

Case (year)	Project Name	Brief Description (Role)	How Trainer Trained
Sweden (1977)	VIII Country INSET Consultants	Countries within a region collaborate in exchange of consultants. Regions responsible for the basic and continued training of INSET consultants.	Consultants work 2½ days a week - 1½ advisory contacts and 1 at continued training, production of study materials and contributing to planning.
	Study Day Leader Teams	Countries also collaborate in planning of Study Days. Locally recruited teams are trained (usually consist of the Headmaster plus 2 to 3 teachers).	Study material for Study Days is based on lines laid down at annual conferences for consultants and certain other personnel (mainly Heads of Department within teacher training establishments). Training recognises the catalyst, solution giver and resource linker roles but emphasizes the process helper role.
Sweden (current)	IX The MOL Project(*)	The training of school teams thus giving teachers a more active role in INSET while at the same time stressing the stimulating and supporting functions of central and regional authorities. From 50 different school units about 3 to 5 teachers have been given special training to act at their "home school" as resource persons for local INSET activities.	Training of school teams mainly accomplished through a one-week residential school.
Sweden (current)	X Local School Development, Planning and Evaluation Project(*)	A project team working in cooperation with a small number of schools hopes to clarify and describe the conditions under which continuous long- and short-range development, implementation and evaluation could be carried out in individual schools.	Project team co-operate very closely on an action research basis with a restricted number of schools. They plan to take an active role in the development process which the schools have initiated.
Sweden (current)	XI School Leader Education Project(*)	All school leaders will go through a basic education course followed by recurring further education which aims to initiate changes at the local level (to obtain a better balance between education for achievement and co-existence) and develop participants professionally as school leaders and personally.	Training is based on the idea of interaction between the educators in the decision-making process. More and more participation is required as the programme progresses. The programme includes course periods (25 days spread out over 2 years in short periods of 2 to 4 days) home periods (primarily self-initiated observation of the school and attempts to initiate developmental work) and practical society oriented experience. The educators (trainers) make several visits to the school during home periods for discussion.

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Case (year)	Project Name	Brief Description (Role)	How Trainer Trained
Denmark (1976)	XII School Based In-Service Training for Teachers(*)	A group of teachers in a school decided what they wanted to study. Lecturers from a college tried to facilitate i.e. took a "normative re-educative" approach.	School pre-selected in "a rather progressive community". Lecturers visited group twice a month.
Denmark (1975-6-7)	XIII Teacher Course(*)	Teacher study groups which receive books, study work guides, course manuals, access to advisory help and radio and TV broadcasts.	A member of each study group was invited to an introductory course at the branch institution of his area. The course was introduced by members of the production team. Study group advisors were briefed and presented to the group representatives. In 1976 the average advisors made contact with 3 study groups for 1 to 3 hours each (mainly by telephone). (The 1977 results will be analysed seeking differences between those groups who wanted and who did not want advisory assistance.)
USA (1976 +)	XIV The Houston Teacher Centre Project of Training School Based Educators	The project aims to improve the competency of school-based teacher educators through a competency based teacher education training and credentialling system.	Will attempt to: specify competencies for school based teacher educators; design a system to assess demonstration of these competencies; develop and test training systems for selected competencies. Training materials will eventually be made available to the Teacher Centres in the Network.
USA (1969-75 1971 +)	XV The Establishment of Organisational Development Cadres in Two School Districts(*)	Aim to facilitate "adaptable organisational functioning in schools by making OD consultation continually available to the district" - through a team drawn from the district itself.	District and Cadre members preselected for their "readiness". Training is first of a formal kind (to provide interpersonal and intervention concepts and skills) then Transitional, On the Job and Follow Up (to help develop norms that enable members to work together and to create opportunities for them to design the structure of their new group). The Formal training consists of a minimum of 10 days (can be spread over 2 to 3 months) where the following skills are learnt experientially: Paraphrasing, Describing Behaviour, Describing Own Feelings, Checking Perceptions of Another's Feelings, Giving and Receiving Feedback, Taking a Survey, Group Problem Solving, Methods of Decision Making in a Group, Recycling Goals, Using Conflict, Microdesigning, Building the Helping Relationship, Discovering and Using Human Resources, Collecting Data for Feedback to

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Case (year)	Project Name	Brief Description (Role)	How Trainer Trained
			Groups. Transitional training consists of developing skills over at least 5 days associated with Making an Entry, Building Contracts, Diagnosing Client Needs, etc. Replacements for Cadre members are found from those who have completed a 3 term sequence of in-service courses offered by the Cadre itself.
USA (1976)	XVI Training Materials Development: The Improving Teacher Competence Programme	Validated instructional systems designed to provide users with "a set of generic group and organisation process tools that can make the innovation process of initiation, implementation and incorporation work better". The 3rd set of materials aims to prepare educators for the new role of an educational training consultant. This set aims to: provide training in diagnosing client needs and using skills training exercises to help a client meet such needs as goal clarification, communication improvement and improving decision making procedures; train participants in diagnostic and intervention techniques to help a client temporarily add or strengthen a function needed to achieve a goal it desires; prepare participants to help a client organisation achieve structural and normative changes so as to build in and maintain improved functional capabilities when desired and feasible.	The 3rd set of material contains three modules. The first, Skills Training and Group Process Skills, contains 88 hours of instruction part of which is study and the remainder employed in a practicum. The second, Consulting, contains 54 hours of training, 21 hours of individual study and 9 hours practicum over a nine-day period. Participants receive instruction in the basic concepts of consulting, engage in the practicum as well as integrate learnings of the whole workshop in a debriefing session. The third, Organisational Development, has participants meeting periodically over an 8-month period including a 1-day preworkshop assignment, 17 days of workshop meetings and 10 days conducting an actual OD project.
USA (1973)	XVII Training Materials Development: The Michigan University Project	Materials aim to provide trainees with some of the knowledge and skills necessary to function effectively as educational change agents.	Materials consist of three 8-hour training packages. The first provides an overview of the process of change (Havelock's model) the second develops skills in the Building Relationships stage of a change process and the third develops skills at the Gaining Acceptance stage.

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Case (year)	Project Name	Brief Description (Role)	How Trainer Trained
Australia (1975 +)	XVIII Organisational Development in Schools	A planned intervention to diagnose school purposes and processes and develop a plan through which all the staff can, themselves, modify these purposes and processes in such a way that they can sustain the modification process in a changing environment.	Facilitators for OD projects were pre-selected and then participated in four 4-hour training sessions before trying out their knowledge and skills in other settings and actual OD projects. The training sessions involved experiential learning of the exercises to be used in the OD project. Emphasis was continually placed on the applicability of listening skills, the need to guide rather than direct and the development of the role of trainer and facilitator of processes opposed to that of problem solver.

In-school facilitators selected and trained (by working closely with external facilitators and being given more and more responsibility for the process) during the Workshop, not before. |

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Portugal (current)
II The Training of Teacher Trainers

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France (1972 +)
III Integrated Centres for the Training of Adult Trainers

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Holland (1976)
IV HOLBO Programme for Re-orientation in Maths Teaching in Vocational Schools

— Deen, N., Innovation in In-Service Education and Training of Teachers: Netherlands, 1976, Paris: OECD.

UK (1976)
V Teacher Tutors and Induction within the School
UK (about to start)
VI A school focused pattern of training for school personnel using pre- and in-service teachers and college tutors

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VII The SITE Project

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Sweden (1977)
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    Study Day Leader Teams.

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Sweden (current)
IX The MOL Project

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    Teachers - Alternative approaches to evaluation of INSET programmes I Examples
    from Denmark and Sweden - OECD/CERI Paris 1978.

Sweden (current)
X Local School Development, Planning and
  Evaluation Project

  - Eklund, H., et.al. op. cit.

Sweden (current)
XI School Leader Education Project

  - Eklund, H., et.al. op. cit.

Denmark (1976)
XII School Based In-Service Training for
  Teachers

  - Gregersen, J. (ed.), "Example from Denmark" in: _In-Service Education and Training_
    of Teachers. Alternative approaches to evaluation of INSET programmes - 1 Examples
    from Denmark and Sweden OECD/CERI Paris 1978.

Denmark (1975-76-77)
XIII Teacher Course

  - Gregersen, J., (ed.) op. cit.

USA (1976 +)
XIV The Houston Teacher Centre Project
  of Training School Based Educators

  - Rubin, L. and Howey, K. _Innovation in In-Service Education and Training of Teachers:_
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USA (1969-75, 1971 +)
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  Development Cadres in Two School
  Districts

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    1977, Palo Alto: Mayfield Publishing Company.

USA (1976)
XVI Training Materials Development:
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Australia (1975 +)
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WHAT IS INVOLVED?

(i) What Is Involved - Role Content

Taken together, the case studies indicate multiple roles in the training of INSET trainers area. For those outside the school system a wide range of roles are suggested, from facilitating processes and providing resources and packaged materials for in-service teachers to general adult education and pre-service teaching training. For those outside the school but within the system a wide range of roles are again implied, for example, those involving specific content areas and how to teach them, a general emphasis on school process, study day leadership teams and the use of a competency based system. And finally, for those within the school roles are described which involve research and INSET training co-ordination, tutorshop of first year out teachers, facilitation of process and school leadership.

Given this confusion over role, mainly it would seem as a result of the broadness of the topic itself, we are placed in a difficult situation if we wish to pursue a logical line of attack in our analysis. Identifying what the INSET trainer does before we analyse what his training should contain is certainly made more complicated.

The Experts Meeting (April 1977) came to the conclusion that the methods "for training facilitators would be derived from the determination of their roles and tasks and the skills and knowledge necessary to perform such roles". (p. 6). They thus concluded that "in view of the need to first conceptualise the role, discussions of this point during the meeting were necessarily limited to recognition of the need for establishing appropriate training methods applicable to the needs of trainers and the systems in which they would function". (p. 6)

The more recent Bournemouth conference came to a similar conclusion (and also demonstrated the difficulty of separating the "what" and "who" questions):

"The question of what was meant by a "trainer" was discussed in some detail. Within the group there was a very wide variety of opinions on what was meant by a "trainer". One view was that there was a large number of people who could play different training roles and that the task at the moment was to equip those who wanted to work in the school-focused situation, to do so. For such people there was a need to develop skills of a diagnostic kind and also to build up a sensitivity to institutions. Others tended to think in terms of the existing pre-service trainers some of whom had little contact with the schools, as was the case, for example, in Holland. Different countries were adopting quite different solutions to the problems of who were to be tutors in INSET. In Sweden, in spite of the fact that the present trainers were required to spend 4-6 hours per week in schools and therefore might be supposed to have close contact with schools, the trainers for the SIA project

were not to be the existing trainers but to be picked from those who had done a particular job within the schools and need not even have been teachers. In Portugal, with the practical portion of initial training being undertaken in the schools resulting in the existence of teachers designated as trainers in the schools, an ambitious programme was being mounted to train these. In the end it was agreed that "trainer" had so many different connotations in different countries and in different circumstances that it would be more profitable to talk about the tasks that had to be performed and the training which was necessary to enable people to perform these tasks. In any case the word "trainer" gave an impression of "top-bottom" activity when what was frequently required was something more like a resource-agent or facilitator." (p. 8)

However, the Bournemouth participants did go on to identify six aspects of INSET which could help define the tasks for the "trainer/resource-agent/facilitator". These six aspects were:

(a) the encouragement of self-development of teachers;

(b) training for new roles and responsibilities;

(c) updating in educational matters;

(d) guiding responses to change;

(e) providing solutions for job specific problems, and

(f) helping in the transition to fully professional status - a task which was greater than simply undertaking induction training. (p. 8)

Once the Experts Meeting had decided that headmasters play a key role as organisers, catalysts or motivating agents in the provision of school-based INSET but that the actual INSET training/education could best be carried out by teachers selected by colleagues and forming an INSET-facilitating team, it went on to suggest the role of the facilitators in the following terms:

What is the role of the facilitator(s)?

"The essential tasks of facilitators are to formulate a coherent staff-development programme. The following basic steps are implicit in this task.

- Inventory, assessment and formulation of the conceptual bases for INSET.

- Decisions as to appropriate participation.

- Description of feasible and appropriate sequence and timing for both planning and implementation.

- Identification of needs.

- Decision as to priorities.

- Translation of priorities into goals and objectives.

- Development of master plan for INSET.

- Designation of specific elements of staff development programme.

- Establishment of feedback mechanisms.

- Analysis of feedback for purposes of continued programme effectiveness and efficiency.

- Modification (where necessary) for continued programme excellence.

- Contribution of the programme to the schools philosophy and/or programme." (p. 5)

Other writers have suggested varying roles for INSET trainers. The Texas Network of the "Improving the Competency of School-Based Teacher Educators Through CBTE Training and Credentialling System" Project has identified the following school based roles (Rubin, 1976):

- resource specialist;

- design and development specialist;

- supervisors of prospective teachers;

- team leaders;

- in-service co-ordinators;

- individually guided education implementation leaders;

- teacher training design and development specialists;

- other specialised supervisory positions.

They go on to emphasize that "many of these roles have not been well defined, nor the tasks involved systematically analysed". (p. 37)

Eraut (1977), in analysing the relationships between teachers and significant others outside the school but within the profession, has identified a preliminary typology consisting of eleven consultant's roles. These eleven roles are:

The Expert

Resource Provider

The Promotor

Career Agent (a rarely made explicit role of assisting
promotional opportunities)

Link Agent (to sources of information and advice, or to
other teachers and schools)

Inspector/Evaluator

Legitimator

Ideas Man (ideas for consideration rather than adoption
and without claiming any special authority)

Process helper

Counsellor

Change Agent

Another practitioner (Reddin, 1977) has explained his
attachment as a consultant to different organisations as vary-
ing among "servant, master, captive behavioural scientist, visit-
ing professor, tame seal and resident magician". (p. 36)
He goes on to point out that "sometimes I have to remind clients
that I have not walked on water recently" and "sometimes I have
to remind myself." (p. 36)

Howey and Willie (1977) stress that there is a critical
need for programmes to prepare persons who possess "design and
development competencies beyond those of a particular curricular
discipline and who understand the multiple dimensions and inter-
relationships of programme and staff development". (p. 21)
"Otherwise", they state, "the number of /schools7 which cannot
renew themselves will become even more apparent and
appalling". (p. 22).

These last authors suggest that training programmes
should provide their trainees with the knowledge and skills
which allow them to:

1. design and implement alternative governance structures;

2. assess needs and analyse roles;

3. design multiple formats for the pre- and in-service
training of professionals;

4. organise and integrate curriculum;

5. devise and implement alternative information systems;

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6. organise various instructional systems for different time and space needs;

7. create intra- and inter-institutional and organisational matrices and networks;

8. fashion alternative internal and external communication systems;

9. systematically collect data and analyse the multiple dimensions of the teaching-learning interaction;

10. develop evaluative designs for curriculum;

11. conduct research on both programme and teacher effectiveness. (pp. 21-22).

(ii) What Is Involved? - Training

Taken together, the case studies also detail multiple emphases in the training of INSET trainers. The training takes various forms, uses a few days to extended periods of time and employs everything from formal courses to distance learning and packaged materials. For some training pre-selection of participants is paramount, for others it is not mentioned. Training takes place at residentials, at centres (teachers' centres, universities, etc.) and/or at schools (others, own). "Experts" in content and/or process are used in everything from formal information processing, to reflection on experience (e.g. identification and examination of role in a particular situation) and experiential learning (field work or stimulations). Nor do the types of training seem to be consistent in any logical way with the different roles identified.

In an attempt to escape the complexities of this situation, participants at the Bournemouth conference identified the six areas they used to help define the tasks for the INSET trainer as focusing on the ability to enter a dialogue with the teacher and clinical supervision, in other words, the skills which are necessary to bring about attitude change. It was suggested that "a wide range of skills theoretically necessary could be established but the problem was to build a curriculum for "trainers" where they had actually come into existence e.g. where professional tutors had been appointed" and that "in such training it was important that specific skills should not be built up irrespective of the situation in which the 'trainer' was to be working". (p. 8). Reference was made back to the Stockholm Conference and to the skills and qualities already identified as necessary for school-based INSET facilitators. These skills were:

should be: open-minded, far-sighted, sensitive, tactful, diplomatic, thick-skinned, politically aware;

should be able: to communicate effectively, to draw out opinions, to question constructively, to use people's potential, to respond intuitively, to anticipate developments and side effects, to formulate research problems.

The Experts Meeting went on from its identification of the role of INSET facilitators to suggest necessary exemplary knowledge, skills and attitudes for the role.

What are the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes of the facilitator(s)?

"These should be derived from the role ... The guiding principle should be: what does a facilitator of INSET need when INSET is primarily self-help by teachers who are monitoring and shaping their own professional development? The following list is not exhaustive but merely exemplary.

- Knowledge of:

    the educational system, INSET-resources and the basic ideas of group-dynamics, leadership, human motivation, adult learning, communication and problem-solving, etc.

- Skills:

    the facilitator should be able to handle individuals and groups, lead people in a democratic fashion, motivate, communicate, use and stimulate potential of staff, diagnose (c.q. INSET needs), overcome resistance to change, give feedback, analyse performance, etc.

- Attitudes:

    open mindedness, frustration tolerance, patience, trusted and trusting, sympathy, interest in human progress and development, desire to keep abreast of change, co-operation, etc." (pp. 5-6)

Others involved in the area have made more specific suggestions. With regard to school administrator training, Greenfield (1978) emphasizes the importance of taking into account specific contexts and the need for a much stronger clinical base:

/school administrator/ training should move away from attempts to teach a broad science of organisations-in-general towards a familiarity with specific organisations and their problems. That the training should continue to have critical and reflective dimensions should not conflict with this ... It appears essential also for training programmes to develop a much stronger clinical base than is now common in most of them. In such training, both the theoretician and the practitioner must be intimately involved. (p. 92)

June (1977) takes a different point of view than the participants at the Bournemouth conference preferring to use the word "trainers" - but his preference is based on an important reason:

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The word "trainers" rather than "consultants" is used
here to bring attention to a set of dynamics that can
be both exciting and problematic.

In our experience, there is a major difference between
training people who wish to try new things as opposed to
training people to be trainers for others in providing
those things ... Put simply, the major concern is that
the ... trainee may simultaneously identify with both
the role of trainee and trainer. In fact, it is necessary
that the trainee becomes explicitly aware of experiencing
both roles. This invites a short of planned schizophrenia
which can be confusing at best, and dangerous at worst.
Any of us may carry anger about past experiences with
authority figures and/or unresolved feelings of guilt
concerning our impulses and ideas. We may sometimes get
caught between our identification with trainee demands
and our identification with trainer competence. (p. 229)

Jung suggests that training systems need to ease this sort of
conflict, for example, by regulating the timing and nature of
activities that invite self-sharing and interpersonal feedback,
by careful attention to building norms of helpfulness among
trainees and resisting dependence on those conducting the
training.

Schmuck (1978 personal communication) in reviewing more
than a decade of his research on developing cadres of Organisa-
tional Development (OD) specialists within school districts,
also includes "support" as the most critical variable for success.

While most of this type of analysis is useful for pointing
a general direction forward (a topic we will return to in the
final section of this report) it remains much too broad or all
encompassing to be of help in deciding specific trainer roles
and training for these roles. Perhaps an examination of the
personnel involved in the training of INSET trainers will be of
assistance.

Who is Involved?

The previous quotation from the Bournemouth conference
is not optimistic about clearly defining who is involved in the
training of INSET trainers. To requote the relevant sections:

One view was that there was a large number of people
who could play different roles ... Others tended to
think in terms of the existing pre-service trainers ...
Different countries were adopting quite different solu-
tions to the problems of who were to be tutors in
INSET. (p. 8)

As we have already seen, it is an extremely difficult
and perhaps contentious task at this point in time to even
present a clear idea of what is meant by the word "trainer".

The terms "trainer", "facilitator", "consultant", "instructor", and "researcher" (the Danish term) are all employed. Sometimes they are used as equivalents or alternatives and sometimes not. A conceptual analysis of these terms and their interrelationships might provide a useful framework for further writings and discussion in the area but, as we shall increasingly discover, such an analysis is closely linked to "what" and "how" questions.

Rather than heed these warnings and complexities immediately, let us press a little further on into the area and see where it leads. For ease of presentation the classification scheme used earlier in this report based on outsiders to the education system, outsiders to the school (but within the system) and insiders (headmasters and teachers) will again be employed. Both OECD and other data sources have been found useful.

(i) Outsiders (to the Education System)

In their background paper for the Bournemouth conference Bolam and Baker (1978) suggest that in the United Kingdom there are several kinds of external agencies with the potential for carrying out school-focused INSET consultancy. Along with many other writers in the field they distinguish between two kinds of targets for such consultancy - tasks and processes - and then suggest four main types of agent - teachers within any one school, teachers from other schools, local education authority advisers, and lecturers from colleges of education and other institutions of higher education. None of these types of agent they suggest "easily fit the 'pure' consultant model, nor will they normally have experience, let alone skills, in organisation development". (p. 3)

These authors go on to assert that:

(a) existing "consultancy" sources have to be fully utilised;

(b) "task" consultancy will be the most acceptable to United Kingdom schools;

(c) most United Kingdom schools will adopt pragmatic, rather than rational and sophisticated, approaches to problem-solving (p. 3).

The report of the West Palm Beach Conference makes some specific suggestions for the roles and responsibilities of outsiders from the field of higher education in INSET activities:

The roles and responsibilities of higher education in INSET /include/ ... training of school-based INSET trainers which draws up on the work advanced in such areas as organisational development, clinical supervision, psychological consultation, adult development, models of teaching, and advisor-colleagial arrangements. (p. 16)

The same report goes on to suggest that critical to the gathering of needed resources for INSET is "the re-training and/or reassignment of personnel presently based external to the school to more school-based activities". (p. 16) This is not an easy task, as they have found in the United Kingdom:

> At the national level several innovative approaches to the utilisation of INSET agents are reported. For example in the United Kingdom 20 per cent of staff time in colleges of education is, in future, to be given over to INSET work but this policy is not proving easy to implement. (Bolam, 1978)

> At present the colleges' task of planning INSET courses to justify retention of 20 per cent staff is made doubly difficult because they cannot count on teachers being released to attend their courses. (Bolam, 1976)

But as the United Kingdom case study also points out (Bolam, 1976), school personnel do not always take kindly to outsiders:

"One of the main reasons for the appeal of school-focused INSET is because outside experts frequently lack credibility with classroom teachers and school-focused INSET appears to provide the ideal opportunity for excluding them and including other teachers as course lecturers, etc. This credibility gap exists to a greater or lesser extent with all external trainers, including LEA advisers, but it is widest of all between teachers and college lecturers. The latter are invariably labelled as 'remote' and 'theoreticians' with little practical knowledge of contemporary school situations.

"How far these views are based upon stereotyped thinking is debatable but they are certainly widely held and have to be taken into account particularly in a situation where many lecturers face redundancy. Serious thought is, therefore, currently being given to ways of providing opportunities for college lecturers to renew their school teaching experience and of enabling them to demonstrate their professional competence, for example in joint curriculum development exercises in schools."

Schmuck's (1978) most recent analysis of evidence on the effectiveness of Organisation Development type of INSET, collected over more than ten years, stresses the importance of the following factors: during the start-up phase of a project the consultant should establish "clear, supportive, and collaborative relationships with the key authorities of the school"; the consultants and their clients should reflect "on their interpersonal perceptions and feelings about working together": and there should be a belief on the part of consultants that they "are able to help and when the clients recognise their own needs are willing to be helped to improve the situation." (pp. 139-140) Schmuck adds that "unfortunately such mutual understanding between consultants and clients has been rare, especially when the consultants have been experts from universities." (p. 140)

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Edelfelt et. al.'s (1977) recent research on INSET in the United States of America also came to the conclusion that "teacher education institutions are poorly prepared to provide services that enable teachers to revitalise their school programmes and improve their own performance". (p. 59)

But not all reports of higher education and school linkages in INSET have been negative. A successful collaboration between a university and a school in which teachers determined the content and then taught an in-service programme is reported in a document by Roper and Nolan (1977) entitled "Down from the Ivory Tower: A Model of Collaborative In-Service Education". Also Howey's (1978) survey of INSET in the United States of America indicates that teachers in that country see "professors as the most appropriate instructors for inservice related to general teaching knowledge and competence, the obtaining of credentials, and, somewhat surprisingly, for personal development."

One could express doubts about over employing any outside consultant who is dependent upon in-service training for his/her livelihood - particularly for those types of training that attempt to develop self-renewing capacities on the part of school people. The temptation to prolong the dependency on the consultant is strong in this situation, yet, if he believes one of the major aims of in-service is to promote a self-renewing school, then obviously he should be working to "do himself out of a job" at any individual school as quickly as possible. (Mulford, 1978)

This last argument also applies, but for a slightly different reason to one of the groups outside the school but within the system, that is, curriculum consultants.

(ii) Outsiders (to the School)

"Working oneself out of a job" in any particular training situation certainly poses a difficult dilemma not only for consultants dependent on such work for their livelihood, but also for insiders to the school system but external to the school, for example, Curriculum Consultants, regional personnel such as Inspectors or other members of Departments of Education.

Can curriculum consultants be involved in training that emphasizes process and thus involves "working himself out of a job" and still help train in content (mathematics, social sciences, and so on)? A recent Australian project casts doubt on this question. The project involved fifteen Victorian teachers (mainly curriculum consultants) who were trained to help schools renew themselves and then distributed equally to three technical schools. Early evidence indicates that the project ran into problems, for example: the second level of power in the schools, that is the faculty head, were particularly threatened by the project and provided minimal co-operation; many staff members expressed the view that "whether they /the consultants/ are good fellows or not they are still representatives of the Technical Schools Standing Committee"; and the consultants still appeared to many staff members as experts in Graphic Design, Woodwork, etc., rather than as facilitators of a process. (Conabere, personal communication, 1978)

Can regional office personnel be involved when they may also have an assessment function (of teachers or curricula) as part of their role? (Mulford, 1978). As the above Australian example helps indicate, this assess/assist dilemma is at the basis of many of the conflicts in today's educational organisations. (Mulford and Zinkel, 1976). We will return to it in the final section of this report.

Those who are perceived as "employers representatives" and who are not within the school situation may always face difficulties as effective INSET trainers in particular areas. Bolam's Report (1978) makes this point:

> The /INSET/ agent will be perceived differently by the members of the user system according to its level, location, INSET strategies and status. The latter may be particularly important; INSET agents who are perceived as employer representatives (e.g. inspectors) may encounter difficulties in carrying out say a consultancy role.

Of course, one can get into a conflict situation when one compares what the teachers think they want and what employers' representatives think they should have. The results from a large survey of the perceptions of school personnel concerning various features of the advisory teacher service in Queensland primary schools in Australia (Varley and Cumming, 1976) provides some examples of this conflict. The priorities in order for the various kinds of assistance, excluding "general discussion", were: demonstrating or advising on teaching methods and techniques; advising on resource utilisation; curriculum interpretation; planning teaching programmes; problem solving; problem identification and redefinition; and advising on organisational and administrative matters. However, "the distinctly negative discrepancy scores for showing and describing use of materials, demonstrating appropriate teaching methods and suggesting ways of teaching, suggests that they /the advisors/ would prefer that these aspects of their role should be de-emphasized." (p. 33).

The Queensland survey also found that "the reaction of school personnel is seen by advisory teachers to be less cooperative than ideal", when, in fact, "the data from school personnel suggests that the contrary is the case ...". (p. 34)

However, with regard to the training for the role of a primary school advisory teacher, the report finally argues along similar lines to Bolam and Baker (1978):

> present recruitment procedures requiring practical teaching expertise in a subject area, meets with the requirements of school personnel for subject area support. The current training programme which focuses on subject area developments and curriculum issues seems to provide an appropriate balance. Evidence of role discrepancy problems however, suggest that attention needs to be given to this area in training programmes. (p. 34).

The above evidence on the role of various outsiders to
the school situation in effective training of INSET trainers
(or evidence of the areas for which these "outside" trainers
should be trained) suggests that further analysis is required
to match the constraints of a particular position with the train-
ing emphasis, for example, inspectors assess not assist, curri-
culum consultants consult on curriculum not process, and so on.

What about insiders to the school, that is, headmasters
and teachers - can, or should, they be involved in the training
of INSET trainers?

(iii) Insiders

To the extent that one can argue that the headmaster and/or
teachers can act as trainers of other headmasters, teachers or
fellow staff then an analysis of this role and its training is
important for our discussion. In fact, this is the area that
seems to be in vogue at the present time particularly with the
use of outside expertise coming under increasing criticism and
in a situation where there has been greater emphasis on school
focused/based INSET. My own work (Mulford, 1978) provides an
example:

"To make the first phase of the OD Workshop non-threatening,
for example, it is necessary to avoid having high-powered, high-
status consultants giving a 'proper' introduction. The 'media"
is the message' in this matter. Similarly, over-use of jargon
limits communication with a client and reinforces dependence on
'expertise'. If the OD consultant believes in self-renewing
organisations then an increasingly low profile is highly desirable.

"An 'increasingly low profile' will be difficult to achieve
given Australian educators' phobia about experts. Expertise is
thought to increase with the distance travelled. A local expert
cannot hope to compare with the interstate expert, let alone the
almost divine worship placed at the feet of someone from overseas.
If overseas experts are brought in, as I understand they will be
in at least State Education Department, they will not only lack
the necessary knowledge of the Australian educational scene, but
will also find it extremely difficult to cast off the shackles
of the tag 'expert' and adopt the low profile necessary for self-
renewing schools.

"OD technology is the proper province of school admini-
strators. The individuals who are now called OD consultants
might better consider themselves to be essentially educators,
preparing administrators to utilise OD technology along with other
technologies. As indicated earlier, their major job is to work
themselves out of a job by educating administrators in processes
such as more effective problem-solving."

(a) Headmaster

On the question of the role of the headmaster in INSET
the report of the Stockholm conference is the first material to
take cognisance of the possible differences in that role in
Member countries - although the report goes on to finally indi-
cate a preference for teachers as the facilitators of school-
based INSET:

What are the necessary skills for INSET facilitators?

"Initial discussion revolved around the role of the head-teacher in relation to school-based INSET. Should the head-teacher be an INSET facilitator? A wide variety of responses emerged reflecting the very different roles of headteachers in the different national systems represented in the group. Attention was also drawn to the different relationships which exist between headteachers and classroom teachers in the different systems. It was concluded that while in some systems the head-teacher might have a significant role as INSET facilitator, in others the task might be undertaken by one or more teachers within the school and in yet others by administrators outside the single school. It was thought that ideally all teachers should be facilitators but it was accepted that in reality each system should have designated INSET facilitators." (p. 18)

The Experts Meeting came to a similar conclusion deciding that headmasters play a key role as organisers, catalysts or motivating agents in the provision of school-based INSET but that the actual INSET training could best be carried out by teachers selected by colleagues and forming an INSET-facilitating team.

There seems to be a dilemma here, on the one hand we have mounting research evidence (e.g. Hall, 1978; Fitzgerald et.al., 1976, p. 174; Campbell, 1975, p. 16) indicating the key role played by the headmaster for effective change in schools, for example:

In the Australian situation the commitment of the principal ... is essential. As Fitzgerald et.al. have shown, the principal is seen to be the gate-keeper to, and symbol of, many Australian schools. The power and subsequent legitimacy of many Australian principals is clearly hierarchically based. Indicative of this situation is the statement by one of the principals in Ogilvie's study that, 'the habits and attitudes developed in years of teaching die very hard ... many teachers hesitate to criticise a principal out of traditional. loyalty', and, the results of Campbell's Australia wide study which found that only 20 per cent of teachers were not concerned and 24 per cent only slightly concerned when they had to do things on the job against their better judgement. (Mulford, et.al., 1978).

More specifically, Edelfelt et.al.'s (1977) recent research also found that "where the principal saw his or her role as a supporter and facilitator of teacher involvement in decision-making, projects /where teachers determine the content and design of INSET at the school building level7 succeeded; where the principal offered resistance, projects suffered." (p. 59).

On the other hand, we have the evidence from surveys such as Howey's (1978) in the United States of America that head-masters (and district consultants and supervisors) are not rated highly as INSET instructors:

Teachers generally perceived other teachers as the best instructors for job-embedded and job-related inservice endeavours and professors as the most appropriate instructors for inservice related to general teaching knowledge and competence, the obtaining of credentials, and somewhat surprising, for personal development types of inservice as well. Principals, district consultants, and supervisors were consistently perceived as the least helpful type of instructors for any type of inservice. The role of principal was clearly articulated across all samples as first responsible for providing necessary support and second as a co-participant in the training. (pp. 3-4)

Flynn (1971) reports the case in one large United States high school where a principal who had acquired special training in organisational development during his sabbatical leave achieved only moderate success as a consultant to his own staff because his dual role caused his motives as a consultant to be questioned at each step of the way.

The training role is one of several areas of expertise that must be combined together to bring about a successful INSET programme and the headmaster obviously plays a vital function in facilitating this amalgam. It is a separate question of whether or not the headmaster should serve in a training role or is effective in that role. Available evidence seems to counsel against such involvement.

What then, of teachers as INSET trainers?

(b) Teachers

The increasing evidence/suggestions that teachers should have the pre-eminent voice in decisions about in-service should not be construed that they also desire to be the primary instructors. Howey (1978) has found "only 15 per cent of the teachers indicated they would like to teach in-service courses, another third to half were somewhat interested, and almost half were not interested in such a role at all." (p. 3)

Nor should it be assumed that teachers will be competent in the field of "teaching" other adults. Evidence from the general field of adult education is not promising in this regard:

Two perennial criticisms are levelled at the performance of part-time teachers /in adult education7: (a) too many are amateurs; (b) too many are school-teachers who have little empathy with adult learners and who cannot, or will not, modify their school-room teaching styles. ...

/They tend7 to direct and instruct rather than stimulate and encourage /participants7 in the development of their own sense of awareness. (Lowe, 1975, p. 147).

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Evidence from specific research projects is not very encouraging. For example, Arends (1975) discusses a situation where a group of sixteen staff members of a large United States junior high school were trained to serve as a focal point for school renewal. These staff members experienced extreme difficulty in establishing their legitimacy and expertise as consultants with peers who expected them to continue their old behaviours as teachers and counsellors.

The final report of the research by Edelfelt et. al. (1977) entitled "Teacher-Designed Reform in Teacher Education" which involved the teachers at each of three schools determining the content and design of in-service education at the school building level, indicates similar results to one of the Swedish projects (see Case Study X). Although teachers "were caused to focus more on students" (p. 52) and "get a much broader perspectiv of the school's purpose and their roles as teachers" (p. 56) the following factors were found to be equally pressing:

- ... It became obvious again and again that people in schools need to learn and re-learn ways to work together and to find ways to share power and decision-making. (p. 53)

- Projects like Teacher-Designed Reform in Teacher Education are not easily transferred from one building to another, ... jealousy and resentment develop ... Building faculties and student bodies are sufficiently unique that they must discover their own problems, difficulties, programmes, and solutions. There are things to learn, but learning seems easier across districts than within districts. (pp. 57-58)

- Co-operative working relationships among local, state and national associations are difficult at times. Most of the work in this project fell to local teachers ... Perceived or real status differences, although rarely voiced, strained rapport among people at different levels, and local teachers sometimes saw themselves being used for purposes other than their own.

- ... /Teachers/ were as deeply involved ... that changes often went unrecognised because the past was forgotten and the present seemed to be what had always been ... (p. 58)

- Teacher skills in decision-making obviously need to be at a high level in a project like this one. Where sufficient skill is not present ... sophistication in decision-making will need to be developed. That task was not done adequately in this project. It should have been a first and continuing order of business. (p. 60)

Summary

Because agreement is found on the importance of the training of INSET trainers does not mean that there is agreement on questions of what and who are involved. Data from eighteen case studies was employed to support this position.

The word "trainer" had so many connotations in different writings, countries and circumstances that it seemed to be more profitable to talk about the tasks or roles to be performed and the training which was necessary to enable people to perform these tasks. This approach seemed logical but, as yet, roles are not well defined nor the tasks involved systematically analysed. The first available evidence in this direction was listed. It tended to emphasize, if not explicitly then implicitly, the need for the task focus to go beyond curriculum content to the inter-relationships of programme and staff development. It was sug-gested that this emphasis involves awareness of the importance and interratedness of three factors: personal development (self-development, new roles, etc.), pedagogic development (for both content up-dating and resources and how to teach) and organisa-tional development (alternative governance structures, feedback mechanisms, etc.).

Evidence was also provided to indicate that little work has been reported in the area of matching the training of INSET trainers with different roles or tasks. One approach mentioned was to take skills common to all areas as focusing on the ability to enter a dialogue with teachers and clinical supervision, that is, the skills necessary for attitude change. Another approach was to make lists of the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to be engendered through the training process.

Warnings were sounded that any training needs to be aware of specific contexts, use a much stronger clinical base and employ techniques (such as allowing time for feedback/sharing, building norms of helpfulness/support and resisting dependence on those conducting the training) to help overcome the difficulty faced by trainees simultaneously identifying with both the role of trainer and trainee.

Although a warning was contained in previous OECD material that a large number of people could play different roles and dif-ferent countries were adopting quite different solutions to the problems of who were to be trainers in INSET, a brief excursion into the question of who were the trainers of INSET trainers provided some useful information.

The place of outsiders to the system, particularly those from higher education, seemed particularly limited in the eyes of teachers. Even though suggestions were made that this group could involve themselves in such areas as organisational development, clinical supervision and general teaching knowledge, the major part of the evidence indicated that school personnel do not always take kindly to outsiders of any kind. Teachers complain that personnel from higher education institutions are poorly pre-pared to help, lack credibility, lack mutual understanding and are too remote and theoretical, particularly when school-based activities are preferred. For one country (United Kingdom) it was argued that not only would task consultancy (as opposed to process consultancy such as organisational development and clinical supervision) be most acceptable but that existing con-sultancy sources would have to be fully utilised.

The value of outside trainers who depend on INSET acti-
vities for their livelihood was also questioned, particularly
for those situations involving school or teacher self-renewal
where "doing oneself out of a job" as quickly as possible should
be the trainer's dominant norm.

Evidence was provided to indicate that similar problems
of legitimacy are faced by those external to schools but within
the school system. Curriculum consultants find it difficult
to operate or train in both content and process. Regional office
personnel find it difficult to combine assessment (of teachers
or curricula) with assistance. Further analysis is recommended
in the area of matching constraints of particular positions with
training emphasis.

It was suggested that with outside expertise coming under
increasing criticism and the swing to school focused/based INSET
becoming more pronounced, the role of insiders to the school
(headmasters and teachers) in the training of INSET trainers has
become particularly important. However, the headmaster's role
in this training poses a dilemma. On the one hand there is the
mounting research evidence indicating the key role played by the
headmaster in effective change. On the other hand there is evi-
dence that headmasters (and district consultants and supervisors)
are not rated highly by teachers as INSET instructors. The
resolution of this dilemma appears to lie in the suggestion
that although the headmaster is vital for facilitating INSET the
actual training should be carried out by others, perhaps teachers.

Unfortunately the evidence/suggestions that teachers be
given the pre-eminent voice in INSET should not be construed
that they also desire to be, or are currently competent as,
INSET trainers. Available evidence pointed out that only a
small proportion of teachers would like to teach in-service
courses and when they do they tend both to instruct rather than
stimulate or encourage and have problems of legitimacy/expertise
in the eyes of their peers - particularly those who are closest.
Research implied that people in schools need to learn and re-
learn ways of working together, and of sharing power and
decision-making.

HOW? - SOME DIRECTIONS FORWARD

Introduction

Given the present confusion over what and who are involved in the training of INSET trainers, it is not surprising to find that there is little published material on how the training should best be carried out. Most of the available material tends more to emphasize the factors that the training should take into consideration than specific training methodologies. As with previous data, the implications for the role and training of INSET trainers topic has to be drawn largely from material analysing the general field of INSET.

In this final section, an attempt is first made to more clearly identify under eight sub-headings some of the general "factors for consideration". The factors which do no more than summarise the available literature in the area and thus should not be thought of as being ranked in any order of importance are Awareness of Schools as Organisations, Awareness of the Nature of Teachers and Teaching, Emphasis on Participatory Approaches, Emphasis on Experiential Learning, Awareness of the Schools' Context, Emphasis on Educational Administrator Training, Awareness of Trainer Input Dilemma, and Awareness of Andragogy. The results and implications from the eighteen case studies are used as the first source of data with other available material being employed for support and/or elaboration. Second, a brief attempt is made to suggest possible future directions for analysis in the area. To complete the report conclusions are drawn and some recommendations made.

Results/Implications from Case Studies

Available results and implications from nine of the eighteen case studies on the role and training of INSET trainers both confirms and adds to directions already suggested in the previous section. These results and implications are summarised in the following Table II.

Factors for Consideration

(i) Awareness of Schools as Organisations

The Danish School-Based In-Service Training for Teachers case study points out that identifying problems is difficult in schools and the Swedish Local School Development, Planning and Evaluation Project case study found that schools have shown "a rather poor capacity for self-evaluation and self-renewal". A reason for this difficulty or poor capacity may lie in the nature of schools themselves.

A number of writers have turned their attention to the nature of schools as organisations. Two examples follow. Miles et. al. (1978) suggests that the special properties of school organisations include:

goal diffuseness;

technical capability is often sub-optimal;

co-ordination problems;

boundary management problems;

owned by their environment, survival guaranteed and are non-competitive for resources;

for a constrained, decentralised system.

Jones (1978 Personal Communication) suggests a longer list of special organisational problems in the United States of America schools today:

uncontrolled interference;

no profit motive;

no control over raw material;

no quantifiably measurable product;

an emotionally charged product;

anti-management bias;

fishbowl feeling;

"from the neck up" mentality;

"academic freedom" mentality;

how to/fad/gimmick mentality;

accountability;

precedent;

boards (mandates);

fear;

geography;

paper fatigue;

consumerism;

shrinkage;

status/paper credentials;

quasi-unions;

bright, verbal opponents.

Table II

Summary of some of the Results/Implications from Nine
of the Eighteen Case Studies on The Role and Training of Inset Trainers

Case (year) and Project Name	Some Results/Implications
UK (1976) V Teacher-Tutors and Induction within the School	1. The tutors were more pastoral than training in their approach because: classroom observation linked with assessment, particularly where tutors were the headmasters; probationers' professional status would be diminished; general feeling that there was not anything especially difficult about helping a probationer; and few possessed the relevant training skills. 2. Concluded that there was a need for clinical supervision skills, micro-counselling training and change agent training for tutors.
Sweden (current) IX The MOL Project	3. Need for induction into participatory planning and pre-information of local INSET organisations and methods. 4. Need for continuity (in time and content) and breadth (involvement at all stages) in participatory evaluation. 5. Need to base participatory evaluation on work in small groups. 6. Need to develop support structures that provide an inflow of ideas but do not interfere with need/right to work independently.

Sweden (current)
X Local School Development, Planning and Evaluation Project
	7. Initially schools have shown "a rather poor capacity for self-evaluation and self renewal" with little effect on the internal work of the schools.
	
	8. However, staffs "have begun to realise that INSET could be perceived as 'their own' instrument for renewal" with the project contributing to:
	
	    (i) a more intense debate in educational matters (INSET content changing from subject matter to broader school issues);
	
	    (ii) greater openness in relations between groups and individuals;
	
	    (iii) better knowledge of the conditions under which their own school works;
	
	    (iv) increased consciousness of their own responsibility for the solutions to problems.

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Case (year) and Project Name	Some Results/Implications
Sweden (current) XI School Leader Education Project	9. Dependence on training materials may leave the impression that "a fine way to personalise teaching is through material". 10. Only a few educators have taken part as equals with the participants. "Unless they take a more active role the risk exists that groups will become no more than a relatively pleasant fellowship." They "need to accept the role of a sort of inquisitorial catalyst ... a sort of 'teasel'". 11. Participants did not show any particular awareness of how far they had advanced in the programme - this was "not surprising considering the fact that they did not seem to feel themselves influential in its formulation". 12. Participants did not dare to cross the boundaries which had been sketched out by given problems · "the school leaders had a serious backslide into the classical role of the student". 13. Participants were in too much of a hurry to solve all their school's problems in the first long home period.
Denmark (1976) XII School-Based In-Service Training for Teachers	14. The phase of problem identification is difficult with teachers "more oriented towards action than time consuming analysis". 15. Key individuals need to be more than committed and interested participants as "teachers seem more oriented towards teaching than management and allocation of resources". 16. Barriers are difficult to clarify because of their vagueness. 17. The role of facilitator "is not fulfilled through visits twice a month". 18. Facilitators "should be more explicit in commenting on questions from the teachers and more actively present proposals for solutions". 19. "It is very time consuming to clarify the expectations and to establish roles among researchers and teachers ... /they/ do not have the same position in the system and this social or professional perception is not changed simply by moving into a school and meeting the staff." 20. It takes time to become acquainted with one another. 21. "It is of great importance to meet the teacher in his practice ... the concept of relevance means different things to a teacher and to a researcher." 22. Initiative must come from teachers and experts - "the whole idea of school-based in-service training is to increase the mutual amount of knowledge and problems".

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Case (year) and Project Name	Some Results/Implications

Denmark (current)
XIII Teacher Course
	23. The probability of perception of positive benefit strengthened when the study group has:
	
	    (i) members from outside the ordinary school team i.e. non-teachers and teachers from other schools;
	
	    (ii) a formal leader;
	
	    (iii) done preparatory homework;
	
	    (iv) taken advantage of the advisory service from experts.
	
	24. "Although they were experienced teachers, the group members very often had no real training in study group work ... this opportunity for discussions with colleagues was such a rare experience for many of the teachers ... that they preferred to concentrate on their mutual problems of real daily practice instead of the ... theoretical content."
	
	25. Materials need to clearly spell out each step, include supervisory details, be module so parts can be used and be closely related to the practice of participants.
	
	26. "Group advisers should attend groups from the start of the course period instead of waiting for a request from the groups."

USA (1969-75, 1971 +)
XV The Establishment of Organisational Development Cadres in Two School Districts
	27. Pre-conditions before a district launches OD cadre project:
	
	    (i) district readiness with clear goals and commitment;
	
	    (ii) readiness of trainers of specialists because "skills and competence ... are best learned in real interventions under the tutelage of an experienced consultant who is capable of transmitting professional skills and understanding to others";
	
	    (iii) readiness of potential specialists (see 28 below);
	
	    (iv) readiness to co-ordinate interfaces e.g. create a position where the critical factor in the person's ability to link the cadre with other district groups and to co-ordinate its efforts.
	
	28. "While many ... skills can be taught ... the scope of the training task and the amount of time required to prepare the cadre will depend on the trainee's prior level of skill and understanding." Trainee's readiness must show:
	
	    (i) that he is motivated;
	
	    (ii) an understanding of the extent of the commitment required;
	
	    (iii) some consultation competencies or have the ability to learn them;
	
	    (iv) a feeling of optimism that he can influence others and situations for change;
	
	    (v) good standing in the district (it is also important to have representation on the cadre from all important role groups in the district).

Case (year) and Project Name	Some Results/Implications

USA (1973)
XVII Training Materials Development:
The Michigan University Project
	29. Project makes certain assumptions about the learning process and the trainer being trained. These assumptions include:
	
	    (i) demands personal as well as professional commitment;
	
	    (ii) the learning process is self-initiated;
	
	    (iii) motivation is related to relevance (past experiences, present needs and future expectations);
	
	    (iv) all experimentation with behaviour involves some feelings of awkwardness and ineptness;
	
	    (v) learning can best occur when a wide variety of techniques are used.

Australia (1975 +) XVIII Organisational Development in Schools	30. Skill development did not accept the assumption that the simple placing of people would result in effective problem-solving. 31. The workshop went beyond awareness and development of skills to actually using them on school problems. 32. Important that school facilitators take over from the external facilitators before the end of the workshop - these in-school facilitators need to be chosen during the workshop, not before. 33. Important that outside facilitators be carefully pre-selected, particularly on developed capabilities in interpersonal skills.

We might expect, then, that schools would seek assistance with problems generated by one or more of these properties - for example, help with goal setting, co-ordination or environmental buffering - or, less optimistically for effective INSET, avoid help because of these very properties - for example, if goals are diffuse and survival is guaranteed, why aim to change anything?

These characteristics of schools as organisations certainly suggest the inappropriateness of a rational or "hyperrational" /Wise's (1977) term/ model of most educational decision-making and problem solving. Closer to reality would be what Lindblom (Lindblom, 1959; Lindblom, 1968; Braybrook and Lindblom, 1963) calls "disjointed incrementalism" or "the science of muddling through". Awareness of the following specifications derived from this body of theory could with profit be deeply ingrained in every INSET trainer and trainer of trainers (from Mann, 1978):

1. "Let a thousand wheels be reinvented ...
   Each site seems compelled ... to a drudging rediscovery of the inadequacy of sleds and rollers and then to a discovery of the usefulness of an axle struck through a disc." ... (p. 405)

2. "Marginal Change ... Changes are ... always incremental, they are calculated from the existing, unchanged base, and they are calculated in millimetres, not kilometres." ... (p. 406)

3. "Limited Calculation ...
   People use that information which is most convenient - chronologically, geographically, psychically, politically, and economically." ... (p. 406)

4. "Goals to Means Adjustments ... stated goals will be tailored to available means and not ... the other way around." ... (p. 406)

5. "A Remedial Orientation ...
   Despite rhetoric, very few programmes aspire to do much more than make rotten situations somewhat better." ... (pp. 406-407)

6. "Successive Approximations ... the design ... will need to incorporate many cycles, many iterative stop-and-start attempts to reach a goal ... (p. 407)

7. "Social Fragmentation ...
   The multiplicity of roles that contribute even to schooling (let alone education) is extraordinary. A ... system will need to accommodate and arrange these multiple inputs." (p. 407)

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point Mann suggests "is that they use a sort of rationality
that is overarching or architectonic; that rationality is much

more subtle, it reflects more vectors, and it is necessarily
more obscure than we have assumed (p. 407)." He continues,
"It has been called a sort of rough-and-ready guidance rationality
that is not yet adequately captured either in the descriptive
models of academics or in the prescriptive models of
practitioners (p. 407)."

The importance of focusing on the organisation or "back-
home" situation in the training of INSET trainers cannot be
overstressed. Numerous studies have come to this same conclusion
having commenced at different points. Three examples follow.

Hiscox et. al. (1976) found in a field test of the Inter-
personal Influence (INF) training materials from the Northwest
Regional Educational Laboratory that:

> participants will gain knowledge concerning the concepts
> taught on INF and will learn to apply these concepts. At
> least some participants will feel they have learned about
> their needs to influence others and the characteristics
> of their personal style of influence. However, there is
> little evidence that participation in the workshop will
> affect classroom climate. (p. 79)

Similarly, Coad (1976) writes that among the important
reasons for the modest impact of one Organisation Development
(OD) programme on satisfaction, group processes, climate, leader-
ship or student achievement in a school he studied was that
"even with six days to build themselves into an OD team, the
consultants practiced their own strengths (sensitivity training
and confrontation, for example) rather than implementing the
pre-planned OD workshop design". (p. 13)

Finally, Hall's (1978) background paper for the Bournemout
conference argued that for the adoption of an innovation he had
studied that involved moving from a goal of "all teachers teach-
ing science and all kids receiving science" to a goal of "having
high quality configurations of science teaching", it would be
necessary to have a second round of in-service training where
the unit of intervention would need to shift from the indivi-
dual teacher to the school building and its principal. (p. 32)

Perhaps the major reason for taking an organisational
focus in INSET and the training of INSET trainers concerns what
I have previously called the jigsaw analogy (Mulford, 1978):

> Taking individual teachers out of schools and into in-
> service courses is very much like taking out one piece
> of a jigsaw (school organisation), changing its shape
> and then finding it will not fit when you try to put it
> back. Not only will the piece not fit but it then has
> to suffer the anguish and frustration of being 'knocked'
> back into its original shape so as to fit in with the
> total jigsaw. This suggests that for effective change
> the total school, all the pieces of the jigsaw, need to
> be involved.

A body of research evidence has accumulated over the past decade and it all points toward a very clear message - school improvement cannot be accomplished without attention to the fabric of the school's culture and organisation. As a result of this evidence, it is clear that schools need to be developed as organisations.

A growing body of theory and practice has been developed to accomplish this goal - Organisational Development (OD). Arends et. al. (forthcoming) describe the OD perspective in the following way:

> The organisation development perspective says that instead of trying to improve isolated components of schools, training and development efforts must aim towards helping people in schools come together and use the resources they already possess in more effective and satisfying ways. The technology that has grown up around this tradition ... assumes that educators need to practice and have time for thinking about how they communicate with one another, solve problems, make decisions, develop curriculum together, or whatever. It presumes that members of schools, just as members of athletic teams and symphonic orchestras, need to practice ways to combine their skills into synergestic team efforts. Furthermore, this model recognises that school improvement efforts do not necessarily occur quickly or in a linear fashion. Initial progress is likely to be accompanied with back-sliding. The model demands long-term relationships between agents and client systems and requires agents who are knowledgeabl, about the psychology, sociology, and psychology, sociology, and politics of client systems and the theory and practice of planned change in complex organisations.

In brief, OD is (Mulford, 1978):

> a planned intervention by external change agents (OD consultants) to diagnose organisational purposes and processes and develop a plan through which all members of the organisation can, themselves, modify these purposes and processes in such a way that they can sustain the modification processes in a changing environment. OD then aims to develop a self-renewing, self-correcting school. A school that is responsive and, more importantly, adaptive to the need for desirable change. A school that is capable and willing to set its own goals and make full use of the interests and expertise of staff. A school that effectively implements participatively made decisions and continually evaluates its success.

A fuller account of the anatomy of an OD design can be found in the last case study (number XVIII).

In their current nationwide survey of the state of the OD art in North American schools, Miles et. al. (1978) have found that efforts to date have tended to be directed either to

organisational problem solving and communication or to staff/
leadership development. There is only a minimal amount of at-
tention paid to structural issues or student effects. OD ef-
forts reported clearly transcended "training" with a strong in-
strumental (plan-making, problem-solving) emphasis. Some of the
more important findings from this contiuing study include:

> ... the picture is one of active, sustained work by insiders
> with little formal or informal preparation for what they
> are doing, and little sense of external colleagueship.
> (p. 23)

> The most frequently-reported positive effects of OD pro-
> grammes in schools, both expected and unexpected, and
> both in and out of the classroom, be in both task and
> socio-emotional categories. Student effects are more
> likely to be "soft" rather than expressed in test scores.
> Not surprisingly, socio-emotional aspects of the OD pro-
> gramme itself are seen as the prime explanation. Negative
> effects are mentioned by nearly three quarters of the
> sample; these seem equally divided among negative at-
> titudes, and direct negative consequences, such as in-
> creased levels of threat or work load. But these effects
> are largely irrelevant to the degree of positive impact
> noted ... OD is credited with causing a good deal of
> change in these districts, in terms of instructional
> innovation. (pp. 35-36)

> The impact of OD programmes in school districts is larger
> when more energy, resources and time are put in, when
> the approach is task oriented, and well supported with
> technical assistance. School district personnel are
> more likely t have attitudes supporting OD ... when it
> is seen as useful for educational improvement, when
> structural emphases have been important, and when internal
> OD co-ordinators are in place. Questions of scale and
> task orientation are still present, but less central. ...
> it seems likely that the institutionalisation of OD pro-
> grammes in schools is likely for programmes of moderate
> rather than large scale, and those with a structural,
> system-changing emphasis. (p. 49)

> Most generally: is OD a good thing for schools? Generall
> speaking, those who have given it a good try say yes.
> It does appear that it makes life better for the adults -
> and about half the time for students as well. (p. 50)

The reader should realise, before we move on, that OD has been
discussed at some length here because it is an area well known
to the author. Although OD (in certain forms) has proven suc-
cessful in both United States of America and Australia, it does
not follow that it would be effective in other Member countries,
that it is without its problems (see, for example, "Organisation
Development in Schools: An Octet of Dilemmas", Mulford 1978),
or that it is the first step toward successful INSET. Some

would argue that teachers operate in single or small groups but very seldom as "a school" and that only outsiders or "experts" see the school as an organisation. Teachers think more of their classes and teaching than of their school so that the development of criteria for selecting content and working methods in these areas might be a better point of growth for quality INSET. What then of the nature of teachers and teaching?

(ii) Awareness of the Nature of Teachers and Teaching

There are obvious links between the nature of schools as organisations and the nature of teachers and teaching. For example, organisational diffuseness can lead to high personal involvement in the task of schooling by teachers thus making evaluation of others more threatening since they are likely to be taken as evaluations of oneself as a person. Most people in schools are also, at the very least, quasi-professionals; they believe in what they are doing. "Their current teaching or administrative repertoire represents their best judgement about how to do the murky business of education. Because their current practice is the summary of what they believe desirable and feasible, they are not likely to admit the need to change." (Mann, 1978, p. 391)

It is not surprising that we could get the situation reported in the previous section of this report where schools seem reluctant to seek external help or consultancy of any kind or to use it if it is offered. But it is unusual, as the writers of the United Kingdom Case Study (Bolam, 1976) point out, that "there is little published evidence that these problems are being faced in training courses for external trainers."

The materials presented in the previous section, the United Kingdom Teacher-Tutors and Induction within the School case study and the Swedish School Leader Education Project case study all suggest that factors involved in the nature of teachers and teaching as it affects INSET go deeper than personal threat and an attitude of "no change". There appear to be special problems with teacher fear of assessment and concomitant status differentials.

These last emphases seem to be particularly important given the fact that any communication will be complicated by a situation where there is both a power/authority and an epistemological gap between teachers and providers of INSET. The power/authority gap has been raised before in this report. Results of the Danish case study on School-Based In-Service Training for Teachers were clear on the point that "it is very time consuming to clarify the expectations and to establish roles among researchers /INSET trainers/ and teachers." The reason for this situation was that they "do not have the same position in the system." The case study is equally clear in its finding that "this social or professional perception is not changed simply by moving into a school and meeting the staff." The Teacher-Tutors and Induction within the School case study from the United Kingdom also found that tutors were more pastoral than training in their approach partly because of a fear of assessment and status differences. This situation was reported to be particularly strong where the tutor was a headmaster.

Eraut (1977) elaborates on the little researched but obviously important epistemological gap in the following way:

> Because the teacher has to act, his language has to contain a strong prescriptive element which those who do not have to teach willingly avoid. Moreover he has to particularise his thought and action, whereas those outside the school are expected to generalise. He also has to learn to talk about his actions in a way that protects himself from blame and maximises his automomy. His epistemological world is bound to be different from that of the consultant and this can be a major barrier to communication. Both talk to each other in the way that they have learned to talk and neither will literally mean what he says. (p. 99)

The presence of this epistemological gap may help explain why those involved in the Swedish School Leader Education project "had a serious backslide into the classical role of the student" and why other evidence has underlined the negative attitude teachers have to outsiders providing INSET.

One implication of the above situation for INSET training is that although peer teaching is increasingly recommended as an effective strategy, an important caveat may need to be added (Mann, 1978):

> Immediate peers are not useful in this capacity. Dissemination and diffusion appear to skip over the adjacent ring of peers and to be effective with a group of like individuals at least once removed. The probable explanation is that first-circle peer emulation is too threatening (someone doing a better job while working in the same environment with the same resources is probably a show-off, if not a cheat). It is preferable from the user's point of view to learn from a peer far enough from home so that (a) asking for help can't be interpreted as a self-indictment; so that (b) invidious competition and comparison is reduced; so that (c) the ideas can be changed with impunity; and so that (d) they can be credited to their new user. The general emphasis on linkage networks, especially on a regional or state basis, is consonant with this feature. (p. 399)

This discussion of peer trainers leads conveniently into the next factor for consideration in the training of INSET trainers - the emphasis on participatory approaches.

(iii) Emphasis on Participatory Approaches

A number of the case studies are obviously based on a belief in the "goodness" of participatory approaches to INSET and the training of INSET trainers.

The international meeting of senior educational administrators earlier in 1977 on the topic "The School Community" (OECD, CERI 1978) produced at least two important implications for the training area. The first had to do with the transition toward decentralisation:

... the transition towards a certain amount of decentrali-
sation can but be a gradual process calling for thoroughly
different attitudes, hence entailing the preparation of
a long-term training plan for all central, intermediate
and local education administrators.

The second related to the participants' agreement on
specific factors for an improved school community and, in parti-
cular, the importance and implications of "participatory
learning":

Building the school into a real community does not only
depend on amending the legislation to make increasing
room for the partners concerned and on best harmonizing
their relations. It is what happens in the daily life
of the school which is chiefly important and which can
really serve to lay the community foundations ... It
is the quality of the relationship between teachers and
pupils, and especially the introduction of effective
'participatory learning' which in the long run can promote
a continuing dialogue and sometimes make it easier to
bypass any formal obstacles which remain ...

The implications of this type of learning then stand out
more clearly: the role of school administrators and of
the teaching body is transformed. A certain authoritarian
approach based on the possession of knowledge must be
discarded in favour of listening to each pupil's needs
and awakening his active interest in his own learning
process. Teaching is no longer an isolated action but
becomes part of a logical set of sequences in which the
responsibility of the teacher and the pupil is variously
marked. The teacher can therefore no longer work alone,
but must himself work in co-operation with his colleagues,
non-teaching staff and possibly even parents, who can
sometimes help him carry out certain tasks.

All of this calls for a new type of initial training, and
particularly for established staff of in-service training,
in order to correct former attitudes towards the pupil/
teacher relationship and to introduce new types of
relationship with the teacher's "customers" (pupils and
their parents). Such a policy must necessarily be co-
ordinated with other factors, such as administration of
the school, where treatment of the teacher by the local
or national educational authorities (in particular in-
spectors) must also be unauthoritarian and where he should
be granted the initiative, autonomy and responsibility
that they hope the pupil will acquire owing to the
teacher's work.

Another strong argument for increased participation in
schools is found in the following position:

where there is specialisation of function there is a
growing need for the members of the various specialisa-
tions to be aware of each other's role and responsibility
and how they contribute to the larger objectives of
public education. (Renwick, 1978, p. 41)

However, as some of the case study results indicate,
participatory learning is much easier said than done. One can-
not assume that the simple placing of school people together
will result in effective participation.

Returning for a moment to another of the characteristics
of teaching, Sarason (no date) has tagged teaching the "lonely
profession" and noted two important consequences of the tag:

Those of us who received our psychological training in
clinics were brought up in the traditions of case con-
ferences. One of the first things that hit me about the
loneliness of school teachers was that the concept of
the case conference does not exist in the school culture.
People don't talk to each other. And it is even worse
in the high school. Teachers feel alone; we don't. Now
there are some consequences to this difference. (a) Over-
time, the loneliness has effects on the phenomenology of
the teacher. (b) It means that teachers can't use each
other in terms of one another's knowledge and talents.
(p. 200)

A number of other studies confirm Sarason's position.
The results of the evaluation of the Danish Teacher Course case
study pointed out that the "opportunity for discussions with
colleagues was ... a rare experience for many teachers". Miles'
(1974) research in the area of educational innovations and their
adoption in schools highlights the fact that anti-collaborative
norms may permeate teaching:

... we collected data showing that up to 75 per cent of
teachers had thought of innovations that might improve
education in their districts outside of their own class-
rooms, but only half of the 75 per cent had in fact
talked with anyone else about the innovations, and that
only 5 per cent reported that any action had ensued.
Anti-collaborative norms can be inferred. (p. 205)

My own work (Mulford et. al., 1978) in Australia has
resulted in similar observations.

... one of the most positive outcomes of the Wesley
/OD7 Project was the increased interpersonal interaction
it created. It would appear to be a characteristic of
Australian schools that interpersonal interaction is poor.
For example, Ogilvie commented on the high schools he
studied that there "was little evidence of openness and
honesty in interpersonal relationships". Two other
recent Australian studies underscore this argument.
The first, a description and evaluation of a partial
primary school OD Project, includes in the discussion

the statements that 'the principal and teachers had had
no preparation for the collaborative problem solving
approach' and that these are skills and attitudes that
need to be developed." The second, a 1975 study of some
consequences of the Radford scheme, found that in all
schools some teachers reported satisfaction pertaining
to common involvement and help and encouragement had
increased since 1971, but, nevertheless, that this was
a minority opinion. The consensus with respect to con-
cern and affection in the latter study was quite clearly
'no change' - as one teacher quipped facetiously: "We
confer a lot, but haven't really changed. We're still
rude to one another."

/my/ work with the Criteria for a Good School Question-
naire has indicated very clearly the isolation of the
Australian teacher; isolation from parents, students,
informed practitioners, resource persons, professional
educational material and other schools in educational
discussions and decisions, isolation from other schools,
classrooms and other teachers in teaching and isolation
from evaluation of action, goals or teaching. Both
Pusey and Ogilvie have found in different states of
Australia (Tasmania and Queensland) a strong tendency
for 'isolation between strata' in schools.

Bredo's (1977) study of all the teachers from sixteen
San Francisco Bay elementary schools, found that on the whole
interdependence in teaching teams is limited and that this
results from a number of characteristics of teaching itself:

> interdependencies that evolve among teachers appear to
> be both limited and relatively non-binding, and to have
> no direct consequences for collegial control over indi-
> vidual teachers' instructional activities. ... Compared
> to ... /work groups in other organisational settings/,
> teaching is highly individualistic. ... Four characteris-
> tics of teaching make collaboration comparatively un-
> rewarding or difficult: (1) lack of external rewards
> for task accomplishment, (2) immediacy of the task and
> resultant pressures, (3) likelihood of disagreement over
> standards or procedures, and (4) complexity of problems
> of organisation and co-ordination. (p. 307)

It is important therefore that we do not get carried away with
the current emphasis on participation without a great deal more
analysis into when and how it is an appropriate approach to
the training of INSET trainers. Hedley Beare, reflecting on
his experience as Chief Education Officer of Australia's newest
and most participative educational system (in the Australian
Capital Territory) suggests that a participative system is
certain to produce frustration, is bound to reward conservatism
and tends to reward the selfish institution (Hughes and
Mulford, 1978):

a participative system is certain to produce frustration. If one cannot be held responsible for actions over which one has no control, then the exercise of responsibility in a participative organisation will be entwined by a feeling of impotence and the impression that it is not easy to do anything. ... a participative system is bound to reward conservatism, for in a real sense the status quo and the majority voice will tend to prevail ... the sheer volume of work, time and energy needed to pioneer something new in a participative system is likely to deter all but the boldest operators. ... the participative system tends to reward the selfish institution. ... the system tends to make schools compete against each other for limited resources and for system attention and to recruit its parents, community and local politicians in such competition. ...Those with narrow, parochially based objectives can usually overwhelm those few with the synoptic view of what the whole system of schools ought to be, and of what co-operative endeavour could achieve.

On the other hand, there are "new instruments that can be played and the policy question is the extent to which they should be left to play tunes of their own or whether they can - or should - be orchestrated." (Renwick, 1978, p. 39). Perhaps one of the confounding problems of our times is whether co-operative groups can decide when the pre-eminence of one group, the expertise of another group, or democratic decision-making should prevail - or how to make them coexist.

Certainly participative learning is slow, takes time and involves skill development; skills that appear to be lacking among school personnel. It is this lack of skill in participative learning among school people that counsels a certain logic in training designs. I have previously argued this logic (in the context of OD in Australian schools) in the following way (Mulford, 1978):

Almost the first dilemma to be faced in an OD Workshop centres around the balance in the development and sequencing of awareness and skills in interaction and movement toward actual solutions to school problems. Some argue that one should tackle school problems immediately and directly and that effective group functioning will somehow result from the spirit of working on the common problem of what is 'best for the school'. I disagree with this approach. One cannot assume that group effectiveness is just a matter of pushing people in at the deep end of the 'profusely propounded pool of participation', particularly in Australian schools where interpersonal interaction between and among teacher and administrators is poor. We must, in fact, learn how to lose time in order to gain time. Awareness of, and skill development in, group and organisation processes must form the first part of an OD Workshop in most Australian schools.

If a participative emphasis is considered desirable in the training of INSET trainers (and data from adult learning theory to be presented later in this report also suggests that it is), then evidence from the case studies and elsewhere counsels the effectiveness of an approach to training that stresses experiential learning.

(iv) Emphasis on Experiential Learning

One factor that comes through clearly in the case studies and other material is the importance of a clinical/experiential approach to training. Almost fifteen years ago, in an attack on the then current INSET practices, Flanders (1963) described the opposite point of view. He described in-service as:

> a gigantic spectator sport for teachers costing at least $20 million annually. As spectators, teachers gather to hear speeches, usually choosing seats in the rear of the room. They play a passive role in which their ideas and questions are not adequately considered. They react as one does to any performing art and are more impressed or disappointed by the quality of the performance than with how much they learned. (p. 26)

The Danish School-Based In-Service Training for Teachers case study stressed the importance of meeting the teacher in his practice, particularly given the fact that "the concept of relevance means different things to a teacher and to a researcher" (the epistemological gap again). The results of recent Australian research on the value of INSET would agree with this position. Only 30 per cent of the teachers in Ingvarson's (1977) Victorian study who mentioned specific changes in their teaching methods over the last two years considered the changes to be due to in-service activities. The greatest source of change was considered to be self-motivation arising from experience, better understanding of children, or dissatisfaction with existing methods and programmes (66 per cent). Discussion with, or observation of, other teachers (25 per cent) was another source of change.

Jung (1977) suggests the importance of experience in the training of trainers, experience gained through work with recognised experts in the area and not just reliance on packaged materials.

> The authors believe that only persons with considerable experience in training trainers, as opposed to direct training and consulting, should attempt to do so. This experience should come in co-training with persons already recognised as having expertise in training trainers. We once hoped we could objectify the things involved in such expertise. It would be nice to reduce the mystique involved. However, this ability seems to include some things concerning developmental and cultural ways of understanding that we were not able to reduce to readily communicable definitions. (p. 250)

This is an important statement from a man who has spent much of his recent working life at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory developing packaged training materials and running training workshops.

The importance of the experiential component in training can be gauged by the fact that it has gained renewed emphasis in everything from pre-service teacher to school administrator training programmes (see, for example, the case study on the Development of a School-Focused Pattern of Training for School Teachers in the United Kingdom and the papers from the Fourth International Intervisitation Programme in Educational Administration held in Vancouver, Canada, in May 1978) and forms the basis of teacher induction schemes (see the United Kingdom Case Study on Teacher-Tutors and Induction within the School - Bolam, 1976 - and a similar but more recently proposed scheme in Queensland, Australia).

It is surprising given the recognised importance of school administrators for most matters in schools, including effective INSET, that induction programmes based on experiential learning have not been devised for this role group. This is especially so if the first post as an administrator is as all pervasive as Mann (1978) suggests:

> The first post as a principal or a superintendent shapes the rest of an administrator's career so powerfully that there is evidence to indicate that many administrators simply repeat whatever they did in their first job as they move through subsequent posts. The apprehension and uncertainty of such moments, combined with the need to perform, create a marvellous opportunity for assistance. (pp. 398-399)

There has been some preliminary work carried out on the reasons for the effectiveness of, or mechanisms at work in, experiential training situations. Awareness of these mechanisms (for example, the apprehension, uncertainty and need to perform mentioned by Mann) should be of value for the trainer of INSET trainers. Lennung (1978), for example, has produced a tentative list of potential change mechanism in experiential social processes. He is careful to make the point that different mechanisms assume differential importance "depending on the goals, focus, and composition of a specific group" (p. 33). It is suggested that the participant in experiential social processes learns/changes:

1. ... from receiving feedback about his behaviour through the impression he makes on other participants. (p. 33)

2. ... because his mental equilibrium is upset or confused. (p. 34)

3. ... because he clarifies, recognises and expresses feelings. (p. 34)

4. ... because subconscious personal or interpersonal processes are made available for consideration and review.   (p. 34)

5. ... because he is subjected to a "corrective emotional experience".   (p. 35)

6. ... because he can rid himself of unnecessary constraints and inhibitions.   (p. 35)

7. ... because some needed important skills have been infused.   (p. 36)

8. ... because he feels more secure and/or sure of himself.   (p. 36)

   Experiential training is based on direct experiences of the participant - as opposed to the vicarious experience garnered through didactic approaches.   It is also an inductive rather than a deductive process - the participant discovers for himself the learnings offered by the experiential process. Five revolving steps are usually included in an experiential approach (after Pfeiffer and Jones, 1977, p. 4)

Experiencing

Applying   Sharing

Generalising   Processing
                        (explore, discuss,
                         evaluate)
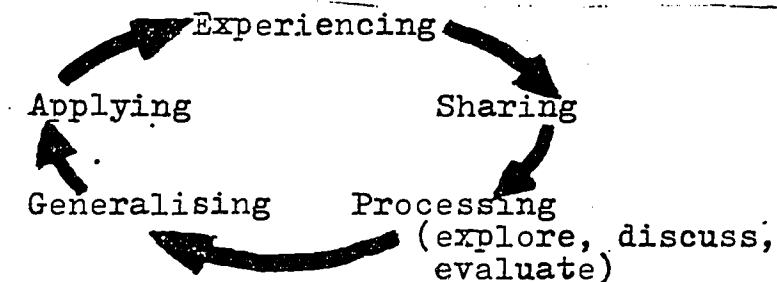
   Various design components can be employed by the trainer of INSET trainers to achieve an effective experiential programme.   In fact, the components or training approaches can be placed on a high to low involvement/risk/self-disclosure/ interaction continuum.   The following diagram summarises this continuum (after Pfeiffer and Jones, 1977, p. 2):

| Low Involvement/ Risk/ Self-Disclosure/ Interaction | ⟵————————⟶ | High Involvement/ Risk/ Self-Disclosure/ Interaction |

The figure contains the following labels:

Didactic: Meaning External to Learner

Experiential: Meaning Internal to Learner

Columns (top): R / L / EL / D / PT / CS / RP / I / SE / IGG

Column labels (bottom): Reading / Lecture / Experiential Lecture / Discussion / Participation Training / Case Study / Role Playing / Instrumentation / Structured Experience / Intensive Growth Group

Training Approaches

If training programmes were experience-based then they would tend automatically to take into account the next factor for consideration, the environment or context of the school.

(v) Awareness of the Schools' Context

It seems relevant here to state the obvious point of view that schools reflect a culture, society or context and are fundamentally constrained by that culture, society or context. What is equally relevant is that an analysis of this situation should have important implications for the role and training of INSET trainers.

The results of Sussmann's (1977) recent detailed case study research on implementing organisational change in the elementary grades in American schools (research originating with an earlier OECD contract) provides an example of the importance of the schools' context for the types of innovations ultimately adopted. One of the conclusions to her study is as follows:

> ... innovations of the 1960s and early 1970s were
> largely the expression of a set of values - a pale
> reflection of the counterculture - which flourished in
> the upper middle-class while the economy was growing
> rapidly - and died when the economic growth ran into
> trouble.

> The humane values of the innovative classroom can only
> be sustained in an environment of abundance, where the
> need of the individual to compete for scarce material
> rewards, and of the society to use the schools as a
> preliminary mechanism for allocating people to different
> levels of the occupational and social structure, have
> eased. Just as soon as material abundance for virtually
> all the offspring of the upper middle-class is no
> longer assured, the schools reflect the change in the
> economy by returning to 'traditional' schooling with
> its harsher value system, geared to the harsher reali-
> ties of the economic situation. That is what is
> happening today. (p. 245)

INSET needs to take into account the current context of educa-
tion - a context which in most (but not all) Member countries
involves the little known phenomena of contraction. Will the
gains of a higher average age and lower turnover in the teaching
force (e.g. more experienced staff, stability, loyality, con-
tinuity of teaching, and time to benefit from INSET, and, in
particular, school-focused training) outweigh the losses (e.g.
insularity, inflexibility, frustration of ambition and ex-
pectations, lowered morale, lack of innovation, and a need to
manage the inept at the institutional rather than system
level)? If not, will there be any effect on the role and train-
ing of INSET trainers?

It would seem that some of the key elements in the pro-
fessional development of school personnel, that is, motivation,
status and rewards, will need to be brought together in ways
not previously contemplated. (For example, greater use of the
"lateral arabesque"?) On the other hand, training approaches
(for example, Organisational Development) found effective in
bringing about such changes and that were developed in a world
of critical manpower shortages where there was a great deal of
stimulation to search for effective means to maximise the utili-
sation of existing resources may not be so welcomed in times of
oversupply.

Guba and Clark (1978) point out one other important
dilemma of the present contraction in education for those
advocating better training of the trainers programmes:

> Reducing costs and staff size while simultaneously in-
> creasing the quality of production makes excellent ora-
> tory for political campaigns but seldom occurs in the
> real world. (Schools, Colleges and Departments of
> Education) have been operating with low-cost in-
> structional budgets in periods of collegiate affluence.
> The demand for better instructional programmes is, in
> fact, a demand for programmes with more individualised
> teaching, field-based experiences, and internships -
> in short, for more expensive instruction. (p. 11)

Both awareness of schools as organisations and the schools'
context in the training of INSET trainers have implications for
a training approach that relies heavily on, or hopes to develop,
"packaged materials". Bolam's report on Phase One of the INSET
programme (1978) suggested that "it seems clear that training
strategies are most easily packaged for dissemination since
they are less culture and context bound than are agency structures
and particular programme contents". The report wisely adds that
"the fate of analogous curriculum packages ... is not always en-
couraging" and that "particular attention will need to be paid
to the needs of the users of such training packages."

As the OECD/CERI International Transfer of Microteaching
Programmes for Teacher Education project so clearly pointed out,
the choice of focus for packaged training material must be deli-
berate, conscious and mutually agreed upon, and it must be in
consonance with the basic intent of the group being trained. If
the last requirement is violated we can have a "ready-made solu-
tion" in search of a problem to solve - a means in search of its'
end, so to speak. We can also have the situation criticised in
the Swedish School Leader Education Project of dependence on
training materials leaving a wrong impression that "a fine way
to personalise teaching is through material."

Even specific techniques or exercises from a training
package can work differently in different cultural contexts. An
example from my own research on the use of North American OD
technology in Australia should help make the point (Mulford,
et. al., 1978);

> ... the 'Ball Game', worked well but with an entirely
> different emphasis than had been found in the American
> literature on the exercise. Goals of the original version
> of the 'Ball Game' were: "(1) To explore the dynamics.
> of assuming leadership in a group; (2) To increase aware-
> ness of the power held by the member of the group who is
> speaking at any given time; (3) To diagnose communication
> patterns in a group." These goals were to be achieved
> by having a group discuss a subject with the constraint
> that one could only talk when in possession of a large
> gaily coloured ball. The person with the ball could
> decide who could speak after him by choosing to throw
> the ball in a particular direction. Contrary to what
> was expected, it was found that little sense of power was
> attached to possession of the ball and that emphasis was
> very much on the importance of listening and the desirable
> control, order or structure the exercise gave to discussion.

The improving Teacher Competence Programme and the Michigan
University Change Agent case studies were included in this report
as examples of available packaged materials for the training of
INSET trainers. Results of extensive evaluation of the materials
developed in the first of these projects would agree with need
for careful "tailoring" according to the purpose, personnel,
school organisation and context involved.

Butman and Lohman (no date) who have had a great deal of experience with the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory's Improving Teaching Competencies Programme and the concomitant development of training materials have recently included the following in their guidelines for tailoring packaged training materials:

A variety of useful materials, training programmes, collections of exercises, theory papers, project materials, etc. exist as working materials for the tailoring of training.

Modules, training programme materials, or collections of exercises are most useful if they contain statements describing:

- their goals;

- intended audience or client;

- complete instructions;

- prerequisites;

- constraints and contra-indications for use;

- copies of all necessary materials;

- backup resources, references, bibliographies.

In the process of tailoring training materials, including pre-existing modules, training programmes and exercises, need to be adapted in order to:

- increase their responsiveness and targetedness to identified needs;

- provide contextual relevance to the specific situation;

- provide opportunity for participants to work from their own experience;

- take into account the dynamics and interpersonal, historical and socio-political relationships within the project and its relational networks;

- provide missing prerequisites or follow-up experiences. (p. 51)

Key design, training, and interpersonal skills needed by trainers in order to tailor designs and implement them include: working with resistances, recognising and accepting individuals' differences, and recognising and dealing with value conflicts. (p. 52)

Butman and Lohman conclude:

> Packages and modules should be seen as raw materials and
> resources to be used by the skilled trainer to form and
> adapt in the process of developing a specific design for
> a specific client group to meet a specific purpose in
> response to a contextually diagnosed and agreed upon set
> of needs or issues. Such raw materials and resources
> are important, even necessary, if the trainer is not to
> spend an inordinate amount of time and energy developing
> materials for training. They are critical to keeping
> training costs within reasonable bounds. But they are
> not sufficient. No collection of modules, whether in
> packaged training format or in sourcebook form, can be
> expected to be used 'as is' or to substitute for the
> diagnostic and design skills of a qualified trainer because
> of the limitations built into their construction and
> conceptualisation as 'general purpose' tools. (p. 35)

A number of recommendations are made by Bell et. al. (1976)
as a result of their attempt to use a modified form of the PETC
/See Table I Case Study XVI7 system to assist in establishing
a Cadre of educational training consultants in the Countries
of Monterey and Santa Cruz in California. These recommendations
include the following:

> If consultants are using the PETC systems with partici-
> pants that have not been 'socialised' in the procedures
> of the 'do-look-learn' model of laboratory training, they
> should (1) be prepared for some resistance to the train-
> ing procedures early on in the training and (2) stress
> the importance of all members attending all training
> sessions so that work flow and the training sequence is
> not disrupted. (pp. 104-105)

> If a concurrent practicum experience is not available to
> the participants, issues of relevancy will become para-
> mount and every effort should be made to engage the parti-
> cipants in some sort of practicum experience. (p. 107)

> Consultants using the PETC system to train intact groups
> should expect the various exercises and procedures to
> generate information about the group's internal problems
> and dynamics and they should prepare in some way to help
> a group deal with the internal issues that will inevitably
> arise. (p. 108)

> With intact groups care must be given to matching the
> requirements of a particular exercise with the norms of
> the training group. If a match does not exist, structural
> modifications may be required before the exercise will
> accomplish its intended purpose. (p. 110)

> If consultants are to use the PETC systems as resources
> to be modified and adapted, an OD stance should be as-
> sumed. This implies that the consultants should be

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experienced in organisational consultation, should be
knowledgable in organisation and group theory, and
skilled in assessing and diagnosing the needs of a group
and matching intervention techniques to these needs.
(p. 111)

(vi) <u>Emphasis on Educational Administrator Training</u>

At various points in this report the importance of school
administrators for INSET has been emphasized. Some of the case
studies revolved around leadership training.

It would seem important to look upon school administration
as an important focus for future training efforts. In his recent
paper on the preparation of educational administrators in Europe,
Dalin (1978) notes that the topic has been a neglected one because
of "existing educational policies, traditions, and structures,
rather than a lack of resources or professional capacity" (p. 4).
He continues:

> Schools can no longer be managed by static laws and regula-
> tions. As delegation of authority becomes a reality, local
> problem solving capacity is a necessity to cope with the
> many educational problems caused by a changing society.
> Educational administrators need help to tackle new and
> difficult situations. This <u>need has now become evident</u>
> <u>in several European countries and has resulted in a series</u>
> <u>of in-service training programmes for educational</u>
> <u>administrators.</u> (p. 4, emphasis added)

Dalin outlines some of these programmes in Sweden (PLUS project),
the Federal Republic of Germany (the Harzburger Modell in
Koblenz - a correspondence course emphasizing the interpretation
of existing regulations and planning techniques; the Alfa project
in North-Rhine-Westphalia - a heavily research-based project
which concentrates on economic aspects and the use of data-
processing; and the Saarbruecken project in Hesse, Rhineland-
Palatinate, lower Saxony and North-Rhine-Westphalia - a one-week
course in which group work receives large emphasis and a con-
siderable amount of new material has been developed) and France
(a compulsory twelve weeks' training course in the year prior to
a headmaster's first appointment which involves "practice" in
a firm, an internship in a school, and work in seminars with
other candidates on a wide range of administrative and educational
issues). He also briefly mentions some emerging developments
in educational administrator training in Norway, Switzerland,
Finland and Holland.

In the final address to participants from thirty-one
countries (almost one third being OECD Member countries) at the
Fourth International Intervisitation Programme in Educational
Administration in Vancouver in May 1978, Culbertson assesses
where educational administration was at the present time and
where it was going in the years ahead. A topic given major
importance in his paper was administrator training.

As we look toward the year 2000, we can say with some
confidence that administrator study and preparation will
continue to expand, develop, and to be diffused within
and among more and more countries throughout the world.
... buttressing the projection is a recent study of train-
ing needs toward the year 2000 conducted in middle- and
low-income nations which identified educational manage-
ment as one of the three major priorities to be met.
/M. Scully, Reassessing the Overseas Links to American
Higher Education, The Chronicle of Higher Education,
14, 20, 1977, p. 5/

... Given a continued expansion in the numbers of pro-
grammes during the next two decades, it is clear that we
are faced with a solemn responsibility; namely, improving
the quality of preparatory programmes. (p. 20)

More specifically, Culbertson outlines a number of areas that
need to be tackled:

- appropriate long-range models to guide preparation.
  (p. 26);

- the development of information systems supportive of
  training and the development of a theory of practice.
  (p. 27);

- the development of more explicit understandings of the
  role of tacit knowledge in practice and training
  contexts. (p. 28);

- development of systems for evaluating effective leader
  and management behaviour in practical settings.
  (p. 28);

- new programmes to prepare professors or trainers.
  (p. 29).

Among the more important objectives "which might be pursued by
interested organisations, institutions, or individuals within
the shorter time frame of the 1978-82 period" Culbertson lists:

1. The development of more comprehensive information on
   training institutions, professors and other trainers,
   and professional associations interested in admini-
   strator study and preparation throughout the
   world. (p. 30)

2. The development of more effective arrangements for
   facilitating personnel exchange between and among
   countries. (p. 31)

3. The formation of new national and regional structures
   to facilitate idea exchange and co-operative
   endeavours. (p. 31)

4. The development of better systems for sharing professional expertise within the international community. (p. 31)

5. The conduct of additional studies on preparatory programmes in Commonwealth and non-Commonwealth countries. (p. 32)

6. The design of more effective ways of sharing research and development findings. (p. 32)

There are a number of descriptions of effective training designs for educational administrators appearing in print for the first time. Many others are to be found in every day practice. As an example of a published design, the following sequence and rationale for a leadership development laboratory is provided in detail (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1977).

The following sequence is, we believe, an organic, logical and effective flow of activities that need to take place in leadership development laboratories. Again, this sequence is proposed as relevant whether the laboratory takes place over a weekend or during a semester-long course.

1. Getting Acquainted. Here the basic need is to infuse a note of psychological safety into the proceedings by familiarising participants with each other and with staff members on a personal level. The effort is to create a climate in which people can have easy access to each other. It is important in the beginning of such laboratories for people to be able to establish their credentials. Often participants feel a strong need to impress people with who and what they are.

2. Closing Expectation Gaps. In a leadership development laboratory, as in a personal growth laboratory, it is important that the goals of the laboratory experience be made explicit and correlated with the goals of participants. It is equally important that participants and staff have a clear understanding of what each expects of the other. If the facilitator determines that there is a wide expectation gap, he must immediately negotiate to close it.

3. Roles and Shared Leadership. The concept of roles and functions of different group members and the notion of dynamic, shared leadership is introduced. This sets the tone for using theoretical material in an experiential format to focus on ourselves as leaders in relation to other people.

4. Learning About Feedback. Soon after the beginning of the laboratory experience, it is useful to provide instruction in the feedback process so that effective sharing can be heightened. Lecturettes, structured activities, instruments, and trainer interventions can serve to provide an atmosphere in which feedback becomes expected and experienced freely.

5.   Developing an Awareness of Process. After the leadership
development laboratory has had a brief history, it is highly
useful to begin to explore the dynamic processes emerging in
the group. This may be done through a fishbowl procedure or a
variety of other designs previously discussed. The group can
develop effectively if it stops occasionally in the interaction
among members to process the kinds of leadership and roles that
are beginning to emerge.

6.   Competition Task. Early in a leadership development
laboratory we introduce an activity that is likely to result
in participants' exploring the functional and dysfunctional ef-
fects of interpersonal competition. Sometimes a competitive
atmosphere is established deliberately, such as in an intergroup
model-building activity, or it may arise spontaneously in a
relatively unstructured task experience.

7.   Collaboration Task. It is useful to follow a competitive
experience with an activity in which people are expected to at-
tempt deliberately to collaborate with other people on a task.
We want to demonstrate that collaboration is possible within a
culture that rewards a competitive spirit.

8.   Consensus Task. Closely related to the collaboration
task is consensus seeking. Many structured experiences can be
chosen from the point of view of involving a number of people
in arriving at collective judgments that are superior to indivi-
dual judgments. What we attempt to illustrate in this kind of
experience is the concept of synergy.

9.   Planning Back-Home Application. Toward the end of the
laboratory experience it is important for participants to begin
making definite plans for particular behaviours that they want
to experiment with and/or change in their back-home leadership
situation. It is sometimes useful to have participants write
themselves letters about what they are going to attempt to change
based on both cognitive material and their own experience
during the lab.

        In addition to a sequence of activities fostering skill
building and the development of a set of leadership concepts,
some material is thematic throughout a leadership-development
laboratory design. Three concepts need to be stressed during
the laboratory itself: process awareness, criteria of effective
feedback, and theories of leadership. The design of the leader-
ship development laboratory in general, then, consists of
encouraging participants to experiment with leadership phenomena,
involving them in a series of activities to explore leadership
from the point of view of looking at themselves in roles, look-
ing at group effects and the dynamics of competition and col-
laboration, and planning the transfer of learning to the leader-
ship situation back home. (pp. 27-28)

Havelock's (1973) work on training change agents also deserves
close consideration for not only INSET trainers in general, but
also educational administrators.

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(vii) Awareness of the Trainer Input Dilemma

The Swedish MOL Project concluded that there was a need to develop support structures in INSET that provide an inflow of ideas but do not interfere with participants need/right to work independently. The School Leader Education Project in Sweden has recommended that "unless /trainers/ take a more active role the risk exists that groups will become no more than a relatively pleasant fellowship." It goes on to suggest that trainers "need to accept the role of a sort of inquisitorial catalyst ... a sort of 'teasel'". Case Study XII from Denmark on School-Based In-Service Training for Teachers (Table I) emphasizes that initiative must come from teachers and trainers; "the whole idea of school-based in-service training is to increase the mutual amount of knowledge and problems."

In contrast, Jung has recommended that one way to help overcome the difficult situation in which trainees vacilate between trainer and trainee roles during training is to reduce the dependence on the trainer. Schmuck and other researchers in the training of INSET trainers area have continually stressed the importance of developing mutual support structures for the continuation of effective trainer groups.

On the one hand we have the arguments pressing for greater trainer input and on the other the arguments and evidence suggesting that too much input will have a negative effect on training. Both positions make sense. The dilemma facing the trainer appears to be one that can only be resolved by his modus operanti - given the particular training context, he has to make an input but in the least obtrusive way possible. In other words, it would be to the trainer's advantage to heed the advice of a wise Chinese writer, Loa Tuz, who wrote in 640 B.C. "When the best leader's work is done, the people say we did it ourselves". Once a situation has been reached where teachers have "control" over their own INSET then the trainer input dilemma will not be so pressing. Here the most essential thing is that the trainer can give a clear account of his ideas and general position.

As Hall (1978) pointed out in his background paper for the Bournemouth conference, there is not a lot of glamour in implementation:

> The glory in relation to change comes at the front-end and at the end of the long run. But in the middle, where all the struggle is, there is a great deal of hard work with little immediate pay-off. The glamour usually comes with the front-end flag waving, announcements, and proclamations. Attempting to resolve Personal and Management concerns and to facilitate each individual's move into and beyond a Mechanical Level of Use requires a great deal of time and energy. Individual consultation, hand holding, cajoling, answering the same question over and over while keeping in mind where it is all supposed to be going is a hard and highly skilled job. The pay-off from these

implementation efforts does not come until the point,
down the road, when one can observe an individual or an
entire staff that has developed a new capacity and has
fully internalised use of the innovation. Unfortunately,
it appears that for all too many, the front-end flag
waving is all that they have time for. (p. 34)

This situation strongly implies that the trainers of INSET
trainers need to be carefully preselected, for "frontend flag
waving" would seem to be a difficult trait to modify during
actual training sessions. We will return to the importance of
preselection in the next factor for consideration.

Similar implications of the above dilemma stem from a
recent study by Logan et. al. (personal communication, 1978).
The study established empirical hierarchies of needs for in-
service education perceived by teacher, school administrators
and system administrators in government and non-government
schools in Queensland and the Australian Capital Territory in
Australia. Included in the major perceived needs were:

- in-service education programmes should aim to develop
  and to capitalise on teacher strengths rather than con-
  centrate on remedying weaknesses;

- in-service education experiences should be based on a
  problem-solving rather than on a solution giving model;

- in-service education wherever practicable should be
  school-based and system supported.

The third of the major perceived needs from the above
study and previous evidence in this report suggests that there
is a third horn to the trainer's dilemma. Training of trainers
must cover at least three very broad approaches (for a slightly
different version see the top of page 46): convergent, which
involves fitting people to a technology, for example, a speci-
fic sequence of problem solving steps or activities; develop-
mental, which builds upon the person's own unique approach to
his or her role functions; and organisational, which focuses
upon the social-organisational environment in which certain types
of behaviour are expected to occur. These alternates may be
viewed as mutually exclusive, however, it is suggested that an
inclusive, both/and perspective is more likely to produce maxi-
mum long-term gain.

Corrigan et. al's (1979) (in the United States case study on the
applications of Adult Learning Theory to the in-service education
of teachers) makes a similar plea in the final concluding
sentence:

the position taken here is that in-service must move
beyond the normative practice which emphasizes knowledge
acquisition or skill development in a context basically

external to the classroom to more coherent and compre-
hensive approaches which consider various facets of both
the teacher's psychological development and the organisa-
tion structure in which he or she teaches as well.

(viii) Awareness of Andragogy

It is important to realise that the educational principles
employed by trainers of INSET trainers need to be based on adult
learning and not child learning. It is the difference between
andragogy and pedagogy. Knowles (1974) was the first to make
this distinction clear:

> The androgical model is a process model, in contrast to
> the content models employed by most traditional educators.
> The difference is this: in traditional education the
> teacher (or trainer or curriculum committee or somebody)
> decides in advance what knowledge or skill needs to be
> transmitted, arranges this body of content into logical
> units, selects the most efficient means for transmitting
> this content (lectures, readings, laboratory exercises,
> films tapes, etc.) and then develops a plan for present-
> ing these content units in some of sequence. This is
> a content model (or design). The andragogical teacher
> (facilitator, consultant, change agent) prepares in
> advance a set of procedures for involving the learners
> (and other relevant parties) in a process involving these
> elements: (1) establishing a climate conducive to
> learning; (2) creating a mechanism for mutual planning;
> (3) diagnosing the needs for learning; (4) formulating
> programme objectives (which is content) that will satisfy
> these needs; (5) designing a pattern of learning experiences
> with suitable techniques and materials; and, (6) evalua-
> ting the learning outcomes and rediagnosing learning
> needs. This is a process model. The difference is not
> that one deals with content and the other does not; the
> difference is that the content model is concerned with
> transmitting information and skills, whereas the process
> model is concerned with providing procedures and resources
> for helping learners acquire information, understanding,
> skills, attitudes and values. (p. 116-117)

There is little point in elaborating. The adult learn-
ing area forms the basis of other more detailed case studies
in CERI's current INSET programme. It is sufficient to make two
points. The first point is that the directions indicated by
the adult learning material strongly support the positions taken
in many of the other "factors for consideration" in the training
of INSET trainers mentioned above, for example, awareness of the
nature of teaching and the trainer input dilemma, and emphasis
on participation and experiential learning.

The second point is that awareness of adult learning
theory should result in careful attention being given to the
preselection of those to be involved in the training of INSET

trainers. The results/implications from three of the case studies make a similar plea. The Establishment of Organisational Development Cadres in Two United States of America School Districts case study is clear in its position that "while many ... skills can be taught ... the scope of the training task and amount of time required to prepare a cadre will depend on the trainee's prior level of skill and understanding." The Michigan University Change Agent Training Materials Development Project and Organisational Development in Australian Schools Project also take this position.

Criteria considered important in the preselection of trainers include developed capabilities in interpersonal skills, personal as well as professional commitment, self-initiated commitment, ability to learn consultation competencies and a feeling of optimism that he or she can make a contribution. Ogilvie, (1977), writing about the difficulties facing an OD programme in Australian schools, has highlighted the importance of a significant minority of teachers and administrators who may possess such characteristics:

> The difficulties facing such a programme are considerable; organisational inertia, privilege, authoritarianism, disinterest and insecurity, at both teacher level and administrator level, will work against the success of organisation development. Nevertheless, there exists a significant minority of teachers and administrators in the schools who can be expected, because of their idealism and professional zeal, to facilitate such programmes and it is around this core of change accelerators that organisation development programmes need to be developed. (p. 51)
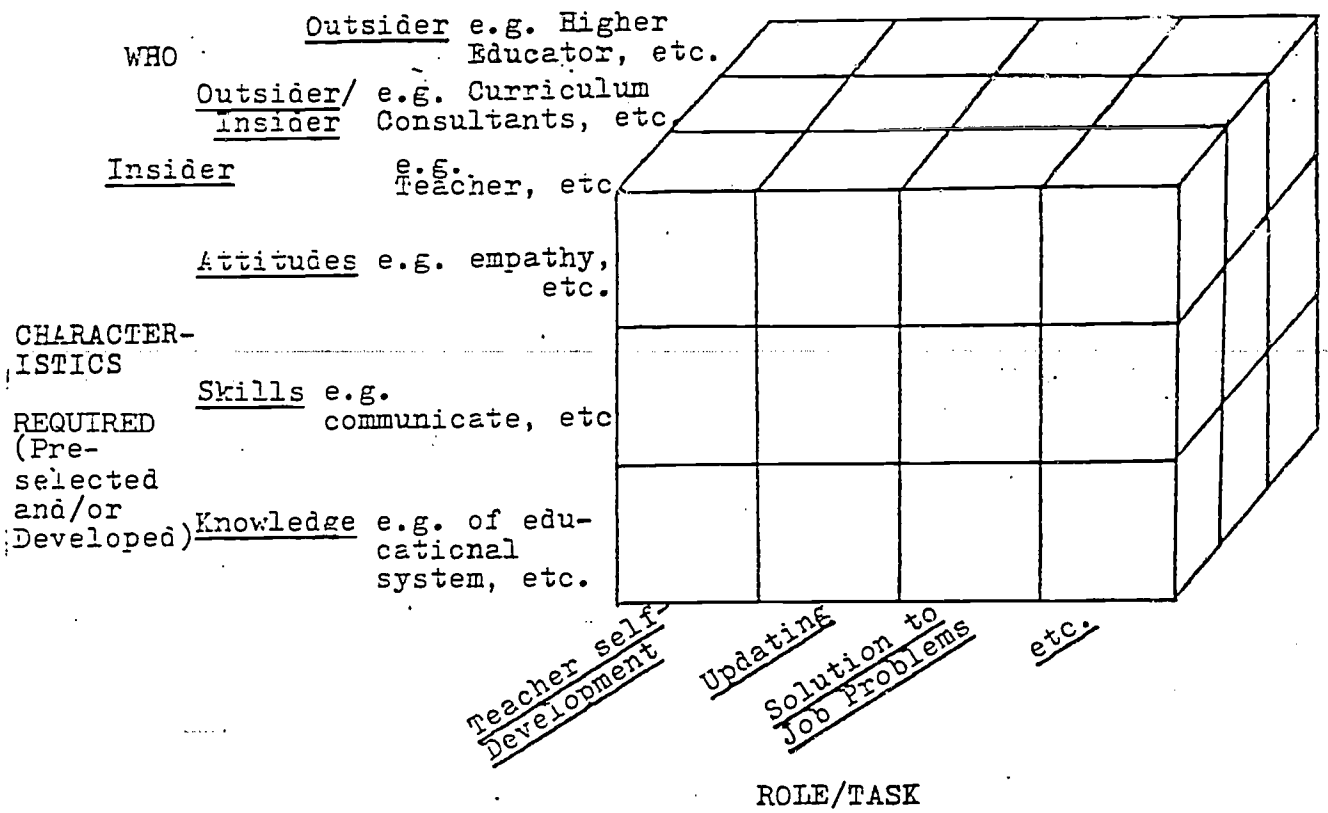
In the preselection of trainers from "inside" the school (headmaster and/or teachers) it is important to remember the lessons from being aware of the school as an organisation. As I have written elsewhere (Mulford, 1978):

> ... when should the training of in-school facilitators commence. Some argue that they should be trained prior to the Workshop. I do not agree. Apart from the need to select in-school facilitators as a result of seeing their ability during the Workshop, there is the danger of pre-selecting those who have had previous 'OD type' in-service experiences. As Franklin /1976/ has shown in his study of successful and unsuccessful OD Projects, the unsuccessful organisations tend to have internal change agents who receive more change agent training prior to a workshop and have more previous work experience in personnel departments. Internal change agents in unsuccessful OD efforts tend to do little or nothing at all after the Workshop or draw on their previous training and experience as a basis for action. This previous training and experience can be with 'OD techniques' but this is not OD. For example, discussing the process and implications of a consensus decision-making structured experience with a group of principals from twelve different schools is vastly different to the same discussion with twelve of a principal's own staff.

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Directions for Analysis

The major purposes of this report have been achieved.
From the available material (not all case studies had been
received at the time of writing) it has been shown that the
role and training of INSET trainers is an important area.
Questions of "what" and "who" are involved have been broached.
The "how" question has been tackled indirectly with an analy-
sis of general factors that need to be taken into considera-
tion in the design of any training. Evidence has been provided
to demonstrate that problems in the area are being faced and
that enough material, examples and models exist with adapta-
bility and/or generalisability to enable a start in the more
detailed collection and analysis of data. But it would be
remiss of the writer if as a result of the work that went into
the report he did not suggest some possible directions for
future analysis.

There is a need to clearly separate the area of INSET
training from the training of INSET trainers. However, clari-
fication of the first area seems a prerequisite for the second;

WHO
Outsider e.g. Higher
       Educator, etc.

Outsider/ e.g. Curriculum
Insider   Consultants, etc

Insider   e.g.
               Teacher, etc

        Attitudes e.g. empathy,
                       etc.

CHARACTER-
ISTICS

        Skills e.g.
               communicate, etc

REQUIRED
(Pre-
selected
and/or
Developed) Knowledge e.g. of edu-
                     cational
                     system, etc.

Teacher self
Development

Updating

Solution to
Job Problems

etc.

ROLE/TASK

WITHIN A CERTAIN CONTEXT e.g. Contraction, etc.

AND FOR A SPECIFIC GROUP OR GROUPS e.g. teacher trainees, induction,
                                     administrators, faculty, school
                                     organisation, etc.

just which aspects of INSET are involved should have implications for the "what", "who" and "how" in the training of the trainers. Previous analytic frameworks should be of use here (see the Appendix for two such frameworks). Putting together the dimensions touched upon in this report in the form of a matrix should also be of value. For example, the following matrix puts together dimensions on the nature of the role or task in which the trainee is/will be involved, the characteristics or skills required and the role group undertaking the training all within a given context and for a specific group or groups. As the multiple use of "etc.s" implies, each of the sub-dimensions can be broken down even further.

In fact, a valuable early direction for future analysis would be the development of more comprehensive consistent typologies for each of the dimensions. The framework provided in this section are only suggestive of broad, general areas that might profitably be analysed together. Questions of comprehensiveness ("Why are there X items in this list rather than X+1, X-2, or 2X?") and consistency ("Do all the items in the list belong to the same category and are they of the same conceptual order?") are logical next steps for analysis. The method of derivation of any such list would also need to be known. One recent direction worth pursuing is that provided by the factorial analysis of training and development practitioner roles in the United States of America.

In July 1978 the American Society for Training and Development published the results of a survey of the roles and activities of over 2,000 members. The survey was the most comprehensive ever conducted of experienced training personnel from a vast range of areas. Personal contacts with those involved in the field outside of education indicates both that the roles identified confirm work already carried out in Canada on core competencies, and that moves have been made in the United Kingdom to modify its Train the Teacher Programme to address these core competencies. The roles identified were as follows:

Training and Development Practitioner Roles
Identified Through Factor Analysis

(a) Needs Analysis and Diagnosis
   - Construct questionnaires and conduct interviews for needs analysis, evaluate feedback, etc.

(b) Determine Appropriate Training Approach
   - Evaluate the alternatives of "ready made" courses or materials, use of programmed instruction, videotape, computer managed and other structured techniques versus a more process-oriented organisation development/team building approach.

(c) Programme Design and Development

- Design programme content and structure, apply learning theory, establish objectives, evaluate and select instructional methods.

(d) Develop Material Resources (Make)

- Prepare scripts, slides, manuals, artwork, copy, programmed learning, and other instructional materials.

(e) Manage Internal Resources (Borrow)

- Obtain and evaluate internal instructors/programme resource persons, train others how to train, supervise their work.

(f) Manage External Resources (Buy)

- Hire, supervise, and evaluate external instructors/programme resource persons: obtain and evaluate outside consultants and vendors.

(g) Individual Development Planning and Counselling

- Counsel with individuals regarding career development needs and plans; arrange for and maintain records of participation in programmes, administer tuition reimbursement, maintain training resource library, keep abreast of EEO.

(h) Job/Performance-Related Training

- Assist managers and others in on-the-job training and development; analyse job skill and knowledge requirements, determine performance problems.

(i) Conduct Classroom Training

- Conduct programmes, operate audio-visual equipment, lecture, lead discussions, revise materials based on feedback, arrange programme logistics.

(j) Group and Organisation Development

- Apply techniques such as team-building, intergroup meetings, behaviour modeling, role-playing, simulation, laboratory education, discussions, cases, issues.

(k) Training Research

- Present and interpret statistics and data relating to training; communicate through reports, proposals, speeches and articles; design data collection.

(l) Manage Working Relationships with Managers and Clients

- Establish and maintain good relations with managers as clients counsel with them and explain recommendations for training and development.

(m) Manage the Training and Development Function

- Prepare budgets, organise, staff, make formal presentations of plans, maintain information on costs, supervise the work of others, project future needs, etc.

(n) Professional Self Development
  - Attend seminars/conferences, and keep abreast of training
    and development concepts, theories, and techniques, keep
    abreast of activities in other organisations.

Another profitable direction for analysis would be to
replace a dimension of the above matrix with one, or a combina-
tion, of the developmental sequences mentioned in this report
or available in the literature. Alternatively, each of the
roles/tasks could be analysed in terms of a developmental sequence.
Some examples of these sequences would be:

Sequence of a School INSET Facilitator's Tasks

> Develop Conceptual Base
>
> Decide on Alternate Governance
>   Structures
>
> Assess Needs
>
> Establish Priorities
>
> Develop a Master Plan
>
> Implement
>
> Evaluate
>
> Modify

Stages of Concern with an Innovation (see Hall, 1978)

> Awareness
>
> Informational
>
> Personal
>
> Management
>
> Consequence
>
> Collaboration
>
> Refocusing

Levels of Use of an Innovation (see Hall, 1978)

> Non-use
>
> Orientation
>
> Preparation
>
> Mechanical Use
>
> Routine
>
> Refinement
>
> Integration
>
> Renewal

Adult Development (see Corrigan et. al. 1979)

> Impulsive
> Self-protective Opportunistic
> Conformist
> Conscientious
> Autonomous
> Integrated

Stages of Group Development (see Mulford, 1977)

(titles summarise, in sequence, the major emphasis in the personal/interpersonal, task and behavioural aspects of each stage)

> Inclusion/Orientation/Politeness
> Power/Organisation/Conflict
> Affection/Data Flow/Cohesion
> Interdependence/Problem Solving/Self Renewing
> Disengagement/Organisation/Selfishness

Having clearly spelled out the task, skills, role group, context and stages of development of the INSET trainer(s) (trainee) it should be an easier matter to then turn to similar analyses of the trainer of the INSET trainers. At least two examples have appeared in the literature that could be used for such an analysis. The first appeared in Giesbers (1977) background paper for the Experts Meeting. Giesbers put forward for discussion at this meeting the following two dimensional model and suggested "correct" emphases (from matching characteristics for development with selected strategies):

	Knowledge	Skills	Attitudes
Lectures	x		
Observations	x		
Demonstrations	x	?	
Workshop	x	x	
Seminar	x		
Supervised practice	x	x	x
Role playing	x	x	x
Simulation	x	x	x
Group discussion	x	x	x
Case study	x		

Burgoyne and Stuart's (1977) work provides a second example. As a result of "a review of the literature on learning theory and the design of management development programmes", they differentiated what they called eight "schools of thought" about learning theory (p. 6) These "schools of thought", their summary meta... and an example strategy are described as:

Conditioning (Telephone Exchange) Programmed Learning
Trait Modification (Took Kit) Profiles
Information Transfer (Library or Filing System) Telling
Cybernetic (Complex Computer) Simulations
Cognitive (Navigator with a Personal Map) Learner/Problem
    Centred Discussion
Experiential (Like Us) Structured Experiences, Encounter
    Groups
Social Influence (Actor with Rights and Responsibilities)
    Role Playing
Pragmatic (Learning is Common Sense) Case Studies, Project
    Work

The authors suggest that the nature of the learning theories adopted in the fourteen management development programmes they studied(1) has implications both for the level of, and areas in which, learning outcomes will be achieved, and hence the degree to which the learning will be that intended or "unintended" by programme organisers. Conclusions on the learning theories that were found appropriate for different kinds of learning goals(2) can be summarised as follows (see next page).

The important outcome of Giesbers' suggestions and Burgoyne and Stuart's research should be a greater realisation and acceptance that there are indeed "horses for courses", that the nature of the learning theories adopted in the philosophy, strategy and methods of a programme has implications both for the level of, and the areas in which, learning outcomes will be achieved.

The types of suggested directions for future analysis in the general area of INSET can also be used to extend the results of the above authors' work as it applies to the trainer area, for example (see page 87):

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(1) An important point about the form they adopted for describing learning theory assumptions was that it relied on three levels of analysis; Philosophy of a Programme, Strategy (or sequence) and Methods (or tactics). This approach helps overcome the possible differences between what course organisers or documents espouse and what actually happens.

(2) The ten goals had previously been established as relevant to managerial performance. (See Burgoyne and Stuart, 1976 and 1977)

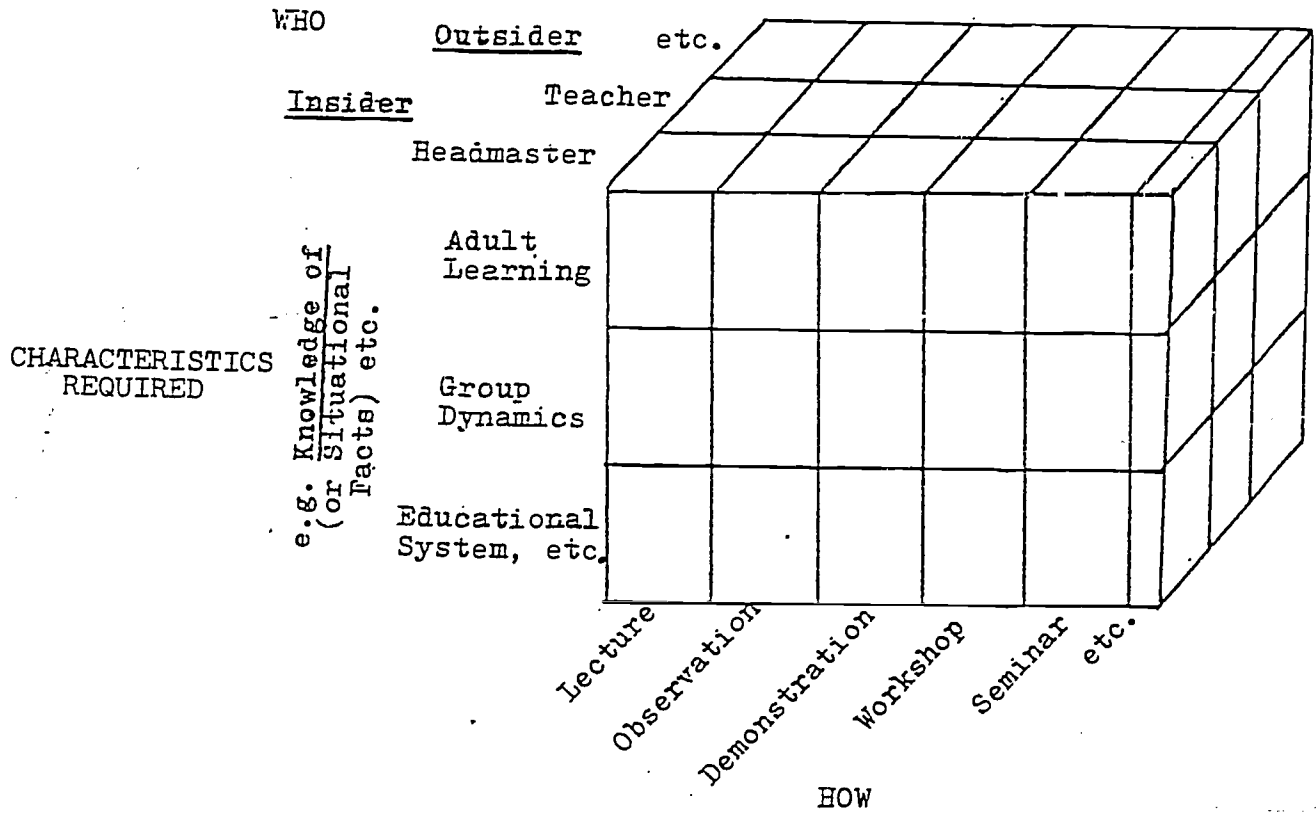| Learning Goals	Learning Theories							
	Conditioning	Trait Modification	Information Transfer	Cybernetic	Cognitive	Experiential	Social Influence	Pragmatic
Situational Facts	✓*		✓		-		✓	
Professional Knowledge		✓		✓				✓
Sensitivity to Events					✓⌒✓	✓	✓	
Problem Solving Skills				—				✓
Social Skills						✓	—**	
Emotional Resilience				✓		✓	—**	
Proactivity				✓			✓***	
Creativity					✓	✓⌒✓	✓⌒✓	✓
Mental Agility			✓⌒	✓⌒✓				✓
Balanced Learning Habits			—	✓⌒✓	✓⌒✓			

* ✓ = positive relationship

— = negative relationship

✓⌒✓ = combined positive relationship

** The programmes studied "tended to develop people for some fairly specific expert role, in which they should be listened to because of their expertise or status, so that they could...do without social skills..." and remain detached not taking risks themselves(p.12

*** Where programme is developing a unified approach but not where it is more eclectic.

WHO

Outsider   etc.

Insider   Teacher

Headmaster

Adult
Learning

CHARACTERISTICS
REQUIRED

e.g. Knowledge of
(or Situational
Facts) etc.

Group
Dynamics

Educational
System, etc.

Lecture   Observation   Demonstration   Workshop   Seminar   etc.

HOW

- WITHIN A CERTAIN CONTEXT
- FOR A SPECIFIC GROUP OR GROUPS WITH PARTICULAR TASKS,
  REQUIRED SKILLS, AND A GIVEN CONTEXT.

Summary

Given the confusion over what and who are involved in the
training of INSET trainers, it is not surprising to find that
there is little published material on how the training should
best be carried out. Most of the material tends to emphasize
the factors that the training should take into consideration
rather than specific training methodologies. In this section
an effort was first made to more clearly identify some of these
general factors under eight sub-headings. The results and impli-
cations from nine of the eighteen case studies were used as the
first source of data with other available material being employed
for support and/or elaboration. Second, a brief attempt was
made to suggest possible future directions for analysis in the
area.

The first general factor (no order implied at this point) for consideration was awareness of schools as organisations. Schools have special properties, for example, goal diffuseness and guaranteed survival, which result in a "dis-jointed incrementalism" in their approach to problem-solving and highlight the importance of a "back-home"/organisational focus in INSET training. A jigsaw analogy of INSET (the one piece/teacher having to return to his previous shape to fit in with the total puzzle/school) also pointed to the need for an organisational focus and helped suggest Organisational Development (OD) as a proven approach - an approach to INSET based on the awareness of schools as organisations.

The second general factor for consideration was aware-ness of the nature of teachers and teaching. There are obvious links between this factor and the "schools as organisations" factor. For example, diffuseness may result in a deep personal involvement in task which may, in turn, make evaluation and/or change personally threatening. In addition, the possibility was raised of power/authority and epistemological (teachers tend to be prescriptive, have particularised thought/action and talk about action so as to protect themselves from blame and maximise autonomy) gaps between teachers and trainers; a situation that suggested a caveat to peer training, that is, peers need to be at least "once removed".

A third general factor was emphasis on participatory approaches in training. Elements as diverse as decentralisa-tion and specialisation of function stress the importance of a participatory learning approach to training. But it was emphasized that this approach was "easier said than done" because teachers are seen as belonging to the "lonely profes-sion" and being anti-collaborative or low in inter-dependence. Success in participative learning would therefore be slow, take time and involve skill development. It was argued that such skill development should logically form the first part of any INSET training and that there was a need for further analysis into when and where the participatory learning ap-proach was most appropriate - it may, for example, simply create frustration and reward conservatism or the selfish institution.

Emphasis on experiential learning was the fourth general factor for consideration in the training of INSET trainers. It was pointed out that this approach had gained recent support in many different types of training; from teacher (pre-service and induction) and administrator training to actual INSET trainer training. Emphasis in trainer training was placed on working with recognised trainers in the field. Mechanisms thought to be at work in experiential learning (that trainers ought to be aware of) included apprehension, uncertainty, need to perform, feedback and involvement of emotions, personal feelings and other people. Experiential learning was seen as direct, inductive and usually involving five revolving steps;

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experiencing, sharing, processing, generalising, applying, experiencing, and so on. Finally, various training approaches (lecture, case study, role playing, etc.) were shown to fit on a high to low involvement/risk/self-disclosure/interaction continuum.

The fifth general factor for consideration was awareness of the school's context. By way of example, it was suggested that the educational innovations of the 1960s and 1970s were largely the expression of a set of values which died when economic growth ran into trouble. It was felt that contraction in a number of Member country educational systems could affect INSET and the type of training required (as a result of such factors as insularity, inflexibility, frustrated ambitions, lowered morale, lack of innovation, and so on) or allowed (because of the expense involved).

Awareness of the school's context also has implications for the "packaged materials" approach to the training of INSET trainers. A description and evaluation of some of this material was provided. It was argued that such material, taken as a package or broken into specific exercises, needs to be tailored according to purpose, personnel, school organisation and context involved. Guidelines for, and recommendations from, the tailoring of packaged training materials were listed. Stress in this advice was on the experiential ("do-look-learn" approach a prerequisite of, and a concurrent practicum valuable for, effective use of the material), the use of information generated by the user group's own problems and dynamics, and the taking of an overall OD stance.

The sixth general factor for consideration was emphasis on educational administrator training. It was argued that administrators (mainly headmasters) are important for effective school. They may also be effective trainers of (or at least facilitators for) INSET trainers. Evidence was provided to demonstrate that these facts had recently been recognised in Europe and had resulted in a series of in-service training programmes for educational administrators. Evidence was also provided to show that on the international scene administrator preparation was seen as a major priority to be met. Countries that had already developed programmes in the area were seen to be at a point of major review and revision of those programmes.

As an example of newly appearing educational administrator training designs (many more of which could be found in practice), a detailed sequence and rationale for a leadership development laboratory were provided. The sequence included the nine steps getting acquainted, closing expectation gap, roles and shared leadership, learning about feedback, developing an awareness of process, competition task, collaboration task, consensus task, and planning backhome application.

Awareness of the trainer input dilemma formed the seventh general factor for consideration. Evidence indicated that on the one hand there were arguments for greater trainer input

and on the other arguments for less trainer input. It was sug-
gested that resolution of the dilemma lay in the trainer's ap-
proach - given the particular training context, he has to make
an input but in the most indiscernible way possible. This
situation implied that trainers need to be carefully preselected.

A third horn was suggested for the trainer input dilemma -
our old friend the need for an organisational emphasis. Ef-
fective training was seen as involving three very broad approaches:
convergent (fit people to a technology, trainer visible, peda-
gogic development); developmental (builds person's own unique
approach, trainer unobtrusive, personal development); and
organisational (focuses upon social-organisational environment,
organisational development). These alternatives may be viewed
as mutually exclusive, however it was argued that an inclusive,
both/and perspective would be more likely to produce maximum
long-term gain.

The eighth and final general factor for consideration was
awareness of andragogy. As andragogy (the theory of adult
learning) forms the basis of other more detailed case studies
in CERI's current INSET programme, little elaboration of the
factor was provided in this report. It was pointed out that
the directions indicated by this theory and its application to
INSET strongly support other positions taken in this report,
for example, awareness of the nature of teachers and the trainer
input dilemma and emphasis on participation and experiential
learning. Awareness of andragogy should also result in careful
attention being given to trainer preselection. Trainer effecti-
veness, it was argued, depends to a great extent on the trainer's
prior level of skill and understanding. Criteria considered
important in preselection included developed capabilities in
interpersonal skills, personal as well as professional commit-
ment, self-initiated commitment, ability to learn consultation
competencies, and a feeling of optimism that he or she can make
a contribution. It was felt that school personnel could be
found with such qualities. However, if they are to be selected
from inside a school it would be preferable to do this in the
context of the organisation, that is, on how they are seen to
perform with their peers and not necessarily on the basis of
previous trainer training.

Although the major purposes of the report were considered
achieved, it was felt there was an obligation to suggest some
possible directions for analysis in the role and training of
INSET trainers area. It was argued that there was a need to
first clearly separate the general area of INSET from the train-
ing of INSET trainers. Previous analytic frameworks were con-
sidered useful for this purpose. In addition, the dimensions
touched upon in this report /task(s) focus, skill(s) required,
role group(s) involved, context, and target group(s)7 were put
together in the form of an analytical matrix. Other useful
dimensions for the analysis included different developmental
sequences (school INSET facilitator's tasks, Stages of Concern,
Levels of Use, adult development, and group development).

Having clearly spelt out the task, skills, role group, context, and stages of development of the INSET trainer(s), it was then suggested that it should be an easier matter to turn similar analyses of the trainer of the INSET trainers area. Two previous examples that could be used for such an analysis were described. Both examples counselled a greater realisation and acceptance that there are "horses for courses", that the nature of the learning theories adopted in the philosophy, strategy and methods for a training programme has implications both for the level of, and the areas in which, learning outcomes will be achieved. Dimensions from the earlier matrix were employed to suggest extensions to the examples.

Conclusions

The role and training of trainers topic was based on all other available contributions under the current CERI/INSET project. These more substantive contributions have all been written with topics other than the training of trainers in mind (INSET and adult learning, the school, evaluation and cost). Nevertheless, the report was able to extract and then draw together a great deal of relevant material from the contributions. Other useful material from outside the INSET project was found to exist and some of it was used to complement and extend the analysis.

After a brief examination of the importance of the area, attention in the report was turned to questions of "what" and "who" are involved in the training of INSET trainers. Role content and training were examined and then the material on the position of outsiders to the system (e.g. higher education personnel), outsiders to the school (e.g. curriculum consultants) and insiders (headmasters and teachers) reviewed. Finally, the "how" question was tackled. Most of the material here tended to emphasize the general factors that training should take into consideration rather than specific methodologies. These general factors were synthesised into eight points; the need to be aware of schools as organisations, the nature of teachers and teaching, the school's context, the trainer input dilemma and andragogy (adult learning theory), and emphasis on participatory approaches, experiential learning and educational administrator training. A brief attempt was then made to suggest possible future directions for analysis.

Questions raised on the role and training of INSET trainers by the Working Party of the Education Committee on Teacher Policies in its document "Inventory of Key Issues in Policies for In-service Education of Teachers" (OECD, 1976), can be summarised as follows:

Is there an integrated and coherent policy for preparing the trainers?

Who is responsible for drawing up and implementing this policy and for selecting the trainers?

What categories of trainers have been identified within
the framework of this policy?

What exactly do they do for INSET?
(Do they plan, administer or work directly with INSET?
Do they work full-time or part-time for INSET?)

What training have the trainers had?

- Initial?
  What were the content and methods?

- Subsequent?
  What form does it take?

- What priority is given to this activity?

Is there a tendency to create a new category of specialists
or rather to encourage certain individuals in the teach-
ing force to step forward?

To what extent does the training of educational trainers
take account of the training experience in other sectors?

Is there any research of training programmes for trainers
and evaluation of them?

Is there a feedback mechanism which allows for the modi-
fication of the training programme for the trainers in
the light of evaluation results?

It is clear from the material so far produced in the INSET
project and the evidence supplied in this report that there are
multiple, confused, or no answers to these questions. In addi-
tion, some questions have only been given passing attention, for
example, the training of initial teacher trainers. Given that
the "seamless robe" view of initial and in-service teacher
education has been strongly expressed in OECD meetings and docu-
ments and that in a number of countries initial and in-service
trainers are, par force majeure, at least overlapping sets and
sometimes identical sets, this area must be given further de-
tailed consideration in any future reports. Of course, this
state of affairs does not argue against the importance of pursu-
ing the role and training of INSET trainers area. More and better
research and evaluation in the area must be carried out.

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INSET-MATRIX

AREA OF FOCUS — matrix with columns grouped under **Individual**, **School**, **System**.

Column headers: Personal Development | General Educ. Philosophy | Philosophy | Basic/Core Subject Content | Other | Basic/Core Subject Method | Other | Management Process | Philosophy | Management Process

PARTICIPANTS (rows):

Individuals
- Teacher:
  - In training
  - New
  - Experienced
- Administrator

Groups
- Teachers:
  - In training
  - New
  - Union
- Subject Dept.
- Administration

Organization
- Total School

Community
- Local
- State

System
- Local
- State
- National
- International

Source: W. Mulford. Some Initial Thoughts on INSET. Un-published manuscript OECD/CERI; 1978.

Note: Reference could also be made to another framework by Bolam "continuing professional development for teachers: an analytic framework".
Figure A1 in appendix 3 of: Innovation in In-Service Education and Training of Teachers - Practice and Theory, OECD/CERI (1978).