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ABSTRACT

The book contains seven author contributed chapters on issues concerning inservice and staff development in special education. Major themes of the papers include the importance of participant involvement in the planning process, the importance of gaining support at the onset by district and building administrators, and the need for carefully designed programs which model good teaching with concrete and clear goals. Individual chapters have the following titles and authors: "Diagnosing and Dealing with Barriers to Change" (S. Wyan[illegible]. Bell); "The Relationship of Adult Learning Theory to Inservice Training" (B. Banks); "Systematically Planning for Effective Inservice Training or Staff Development" (C. McGuigan); "Staff Development--Becoming More Sensitive and Responsive to Cultural Issues" (J. Brown); "Facilitating Effective Team Decision Making" (S. Pfeiffer); "Assessing People in Organizations--Problem Solving and Change" (J. Peters); and "Considerations for Consultants" (M. Gaasholt). (DB)

PDAS
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Organizing for Change
Inservice and Staff Development in Special Education

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Preface

The literature on inservice and staff development abounds with descriptions of programs, practices and theory, and it expands daily. Many designers, practitioners and most certainly the recipients, frequently criticize the present state of such programs. This criticism is partially due to the fact that productive staff development and inservice activities involve highly complex processes. Unfortunately, there are no simple answers to complex problems, so the debate and frustration continue.

The current confusion and frustration surrounding staff development and inservice activities are complicated by different assumptions regarding adult learning, conflicting goals, resource availability, and failure to accept the reality that genuine change takes time. The curriculum reform movement of the 1960s underestimated the time it would take to internalize new ways of working and to adopt new curricula to local situations. Likewise, large-scale efforts to make comprehensive changes in the public schools fail to recognize the complexity of change efforts. Discrepancies among the personal goals of the participants, the institutional goals, and the goals of innovators, are large and often unknown factors. The time

it takes to attend to such powerful forces is all too often unavailable. Furthermore, the traditional view of inservice enterprises is often at odds with much of what is known about adult learning and cognitive development.

These are some of the conditions which contribute to the shortcomings of many inservice and staff development efforts. The evidence strongly suggests that we either adopt a more complex, interactive, and responsive approach toward staff development and inservice activities, or learn to live with the negative results of our efforts. It is not e ough for us to accept that there has not been as much improvement as desired. We must begin to examine why our efforts are not achieving the desired results.

Over the past two years the project staff of the Handicapped Children's Model Programs (HCMP) and Special Needs Projects (SNP) have requested assistance from PDAS in planning, conducting, and evaluating project inservice and staff development activities. Three workshops devoted to this topic have intensified our awareness of the complex issues related to the advanced training of educators, especially when initiated by persons outside the existing system. The problems identified by HCMP and SNP project staff appear homogeneous to the concerns of staff developers in general. Participant involvement and commitment, identification of relevant content, generalization of knowledge and skills to the classroom, and evaluation are only a few recurring concerns. These problems have been analyzed by the workshop participants and the solutions reflect their assumptions and attitudes about learning and the diverse conditions they encounter when functioning as inservice trainers or staff developers. Although the problems appear similar, the diverse solutions offered by the participants do not suggest that any one strategy will be effective across all situations. Rather, the need for unique and hand-tailored programs has become apparent.

While the contributions in this monograph address wide and varied areas within inservice and staff development, some themes do recur. One of the prevailing themes is the importance of participant involvement in the planning process. This process should be an authentic collaboration between provider, recipients and other relevant persons. The contributors to this monograph are saying that inservice and staff development programs must represent the shared interests of all major interest groups, be they parents, students, teachers, administrators or trainers.

A second theme is the importance of gaining support at the onset by district and building administrators. There must be compatibility between the inservice activities and the long-range goals of the system in order to increase the incentives for participation and support of the program after inservice is completed.

A third theme revolves around the design of inservice and staff development programs. Ideally they should be complex and ambitious, and the trainers should model good teaching and have a firm understanding of the content area. Simultaneously, the immediate goals should be concrete, clear and in tune with the individual needs of the participants.

This monograph includes seven chapters that examine various concepts regarding the design, implementation and evaluation of staff development and inservice activities. This collection of articles underscores the broad array of concerns that must be addressed by professionals to plan more meaningful and effective inservice and staff development activities.

Spencer H. Wyant and Warren E. Bell's paper, "Diagnosing and Dealing with Barriers to Change," opens with an overview of the organizational approach to change and staff development. They maintain that persons engaging in inservice and staff development activities must consider the entire school organization, with its rules, norms and structure, and determine how these variables

will affect individual change. They must attend to the individual, but within the context of the organizational barriers which impinge upon change opportunities. The authors leave a firm message with the reader. Schools are complex systems composed of personal, organizational and political factors which may hinder growth possibilities. Therefore, naive and simplistic assumptions about why people change and how innovations should be introduced need to be challenged.

"The Relationship of Adult Learning Theory to Inservice Training," by Betty B. Banks, points out how professionals have drawn upon the principles of adult learning theory when designing inservice and staff development programs. Her review of several prominent adult learning theories provides background information which can stimulate new approaches to inservice and staff development programs. She points out that providers of inservice and staff development must be aware of their own assumptions regarding the learning situation and take into account that each participant comes to the program with a set of intentions, skills, beliefs and behaviors. The outcomes of inservice and staff development depend upon the degree to which the provider and the participant(s) can adapt and respond to one another. The traditional teacher-learner paradigm is questioned and alternative approaches are examined.

Corrine A. McGuigan's paper, "Systematically Planning for Effective Inservice Training or Staff Development," offers practical guidelines for organizing inservice and staff development activities under the constraints of a model program workscope and the capabilities of replication sites. The paper presents planning issues specifically designed to help project directors, managers and staff identify training goals and subsequent obligations. The proposed strategies and planning steps should enable planners to achieve desired training goals. Evaluation of staff development efforts is discussed in terms of changes in teacher behaviors, school systems and pupil progress.

The next paper, "Staff Development: Becoming More Sensitive and Responsive to Cultural Issues," by John Brown, offers a pragmatic look at how professionals can develop cultural awareness, interface between dominant and nondominant cultures, and sensitize one another to the unique needs of minority staff, students, and their families. The author examines cultural values reflected in special education programs which may influence the participation levels of minority and culturally different families. A pluralistic model which emphasizes preparing individuals to live in a multiethnic society is advocated by the author because he feels that pluralism shows the greatest potential for enabling programs to be more responsive to cultural differences. Finally, strategies used to increase sensitivity to cultural issues are discussed.

Steven I. Pfeiffer's paper, "Facilitating Effective Team Decision Making," describes multidisciplinary teams and suggests strategies whereby persons designing inservice and staff development activities and multidisciplinary team members can benefit one another. Again, the importance of considering the total picture of a school situation, before entering into staff development programs, is emphasized. Through cooperation, Pfeiffer believes that it may be possible for multidisciplinary teams and staff developers to combine forces to increase more comprehensive services such as program development, consultation, needs assessment and evaluation, and community liaison work.

In "Accessing People in Organizations: Problem Solving and Change," John M. Peters emphasizes the personal domain of the needs assessment process. After reviewing several schools of thought regarding the best way to bring about needed change among people in organizations, the author presents recent research which examines the individual who is engaged in the problem-solving process. His research on adult problem solving encourages readers to look at the needs assessment concept in a more qualitative, interactive, and personalized manner. The

needs assessment becomes an ongoing process rather than the development of a product which can measure, to varying degrees, the collective needs of a group. A three-stage model of problem solving is presented, along with implications for inservice and staff development programs.

"Considerations for Consultants" examines the consultant role in staff development activities, particularly as assumed by outside consultants. The multiple roles of consultants, especially as technical experts and as process facilitators, are discussed. The author encourages consultants to contemplate their particular behaviors in a group situation. Due to the complex nature of staff development and inservice activities, the consultant is advised to use an integration of styles and approaches based upon the individual needs of the participants and the goals of the staff development program.

The contributions in this monograph are provocative and insightful commentaries on the complex problems connected with inservice and staff development programs. It is clear that to move from theory to practice requires sustained effort and reflection. Much of what is done in the name of inservice and staff development is based on tradition and often reflects a patchwork approach to the problem. If we are to plan and implement effective advanced educational programs, we must view them as complex processes, and build alternative strategies which are based upon sound theoretical premises.

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Organizing for Change

Diagnosing and Dealing with Barriers to Change

Spencer H. Wyant
Warren E. Bell

"The images most people have about the process of change," Mann (1978, p. 213) says bluntly, "are wrong." Many of the reasons for the failure of educational innovations have more to do with how changes were attempted than with what those changes were. Most theories about schools and how to change them do not provide an adequate basis for action. Furthermore, most change strategies appear to be based on invalid assumptions about the process of change. Thus, change agents and funding agencies who operate with these theories and strategies often make their task more difficult. In order to create effective change strategies, change agents must reconsider their theoretical bases, and recast their image of the process of change so that it accurately reflects the conditions they face. This paper will discuss the inadequacy of present theories of change, the conditions aversive to change confronted by the change agents and, finally, an alternative for dealing with these conditions -- these barriers to change. In the context of this paper, the term change agent refers to staff members of special education projects not initially an integral part of a school, but injected into an established system by virtue of federal recognition of an educational need and federal monies to meet that need.

Theories of Change

Theories about schools and how to change them simplify our perception of reality to make it more manageable. Reality is what William James called a "blooming, buzzing confusion," which cannot be confronted without simple models to guide decisions and actions. The issue is whether the change agent's theory provides a map that is useful in getting to where he or she wants to go. Most don't.

Too often, the change agent's plan is to change individuals, without reference to their organizational setting. Lack of change is attributed to individual characteristics, such as personality, attitudes, competencies, or motivations. The weakness of individual-centered approaches to change is that they misunderstand the determinants of behavior in social systems and mistake individual change for organizational change. These theories assume that appropriate changes can be made in the individual's knowledge, skill, or motivation, that those changes will endure when the person leaves the training situation and returns to the job, and that he or she will be able to persuade colleagues to accept the changes and make complementary ones in their own behavior and expectations. There is little evidence, if any, to indicate that such an approach works. Snyder and Runkel (Note 1) for example, describe several training programs that failed to make a difference in teacher-student interactions. As Sarason (1971) notes,

> Good ideas and missionary zeal are sometimes enough to change the thinking and actions of individuals; they are rarely, if ever, effective in changing complicated organizations (like the school) with traditions, dynamics, and goals of their own. To change complicated settings requires, initially at least, a way of thinking not the same as the way we think about changing individuals. (p. 213)

Barriers to Change

Sometimes change strategies focus on upgrading hardware such as curricula, instructional methods, materials, or media. The basic assumption of this approach is that schools can be improved by adopting better technologies without greatly disturbing existing organizational arrangements. There is ample evidence that tinkering with the hardware simply does not work. Innovations such as new math, machines for programmed instruction, and so on, are usually abandoned quickly or absorbed into current routines without greatly affecting students' learning.

It may be asked, however, isn't the use of new media, or arrangements such as team teaching or new curricula and materials a change? The answer is probably not. As Goodlad, Klein, and their associates (1970) found, innovations are usually twisted to fit existing practice, new organizational forms become merely new labels for old ways of doing things, and curricular reforms are encumbered with the baggage of traditional teaching methods. Silberman (1970) concluded that most new organizational methods, teaching technologies and teachers' roles turned out to be "more gimmickry and packaging than substantive change" (p. 160).

Goals

Injecting new hardware into the school or replacing old textbooks with new ones raises serious questions about what the goals of such changes really are. Clear goals are an essential part of a viable theory of change. The goals of many change efforts are what Sarason (1971, p. 40) calls "untestable abstractions," vague statements about what students should be learning or how teachers ought to be behaving. In addition, the goals rarely specify what people would actually be doing when they behaved in new ways, or why the new behavior would be important.

A further question about the goals of change is, How different do things have to be before we are willing to say that there has been a change or an improvement? Again Sarason points toward an answer (1971): " The goals of change, the outcomes sought, surely are not to see if it is possible to substitute one set of books for another, change the racial composition of a class, or have children read or listen to Black or Mexican history -- those possibilities are relatively easy to realize" (p. 48). He argues forcefully that outcomes such as those are means to a more important goal:

> Thus, we have the new math, but we do not have those changes in how teachers and children relate to each other that are necessary if both are to enjoy, persist in, and productively utilize intellectual and interpersonal experience -- and if these are not among the intended consequences, then we must conclude that the curriculum reformers have been quite successful in their goal of substituting one set of books for another. (p. 48)

Sarason's comments seem to confirm the adage that the more things change, the more they stay the same.

Problems

One problem in effecting change is that many people and projects who are involved in innovation simply do not know much about the school cultures they try to influence (Sarason, 1971). Further, they often ignore the fact that their own perceptions and beliefs about what is wrong with schools are deeply and inevitably influenced by their own cultural setting, whether that be a university, a federal agency, or a research and development center: "When the university critic goes to the school culture he is very much like the traveler to foreign lands who begins by taking for granted that life elsewhere is truly different

than in his own country and ends up proving it" (Sarason, 1971, p. 18).

Another problem is that the theories of change do not specify strategies for change. They are often filled with a great many statements about what schools should do, with little direction about how to get from here to there. An adequate theory must consider accurately the current situation, evaluate what would change if one's goals were realized, and establish the methods for facilitating positive change.

Furthermore, too many change strategies are based on naive and simplistic assumptions about why people change and how innovations are introduced into schools. The common picture of change, as Mann (1978) describes it, begins when Congress passes a law and federal departments build a network of agencies that develop good programs aimed at real problems. A school system purchases the programs and the principal is photographed on the steps of the school signing a receipt for delivery. Mann describes the scenario: "In the next frame, the custodian moves the cartons into the school and the teachers are T-grouped, workshopped, sensitized, staff developed, and otherwise 'trained.' The teachers then take the cartons and their training back inside the classroom. And then what?" (p. 213).

What usually happens then is not much. The process of change is based on the explicit or implicit assumption that the chief actors in innovation are a clever developer/disseminator and a passive but rational adopter and that the typical change process passes through a logical sequence from basic research through development, diffusion, and trial, to adoption.

Those assumptions, however, are usually invalid. A great deal of evidence suggests that the adoption of innovations depends largely on characteristics of the adopting system, the change agent, and their interaction (for example, see Miles, 1964, p. 635). Recent studies make it clear that

innovations are successfully adopted only when they are significantly changed to fit conditions of the individual school, when teachers "re-invent the wheel" by creating their own materials, and when the adoption process is one marked by openly confronted conflict and continuing negotiation over the goals and activities of the project (Berman & McLaughlin, 1975; Fullan & Pomfret, 1977; Glaser & Taylor, 1973).

Schmuck and Miles (1971) described the difficulties of the many change strategies they reviewed:

1) They gave substantial weight to "rational" processes of innovation adoption; 2) they took a narrow, overly technical view of the problem, assuming that the best strategy was to develop "teacher-proof" packages and diffuse them widely; 3) they took the systemic properties of local school districts largely as "given" and not subject to substantial change and improvement efforts; and 4) most crucially of all, they ignored (except in rhetoric) the necessity to create self-renewing, vital, and growing educational organizations as the primary base for learning and living.

The signal characteristics of most such strategies are that they originate outside the school, are aimed at solving problems that teachers do not necessarily view as problems, pay little attention to the characteristics of the people and the setting affected by the change, and assume that it is possible to achieve the goals of change without also changing the other aspects of the situation. But change does affect these people, the setting, and the situation, and it is necessary for those who wish to implement special projects into schools to consider the perspectives of the teachers and principals, and the organization and the commitment of the schools. In a real way, change agents in schools have a particular disadvantage, which as Mann (1978) states, "lies in applying methods which are largely educational to situations which are fundamentally political" (p. 213). Change agents, book authors and superintendents may talk

about doing things in new ways in the classroom, but teachers know that "it is their authority structure we are trifling with" (p. 214). The introduction of new people, programs, resources, and routines into the school inevitably upsets the fragile balance among existing coalitions within the schools. It requires new status hierarchies of who's "in" and who's "out." Some people get more resources than others. The principal's position as leader of the school may be threatened. Teachers may be called on to deal with children who have problems that the teachers have little experience in handling. They may feel that a special education project cuts into their instructional time. They may feel forced to abandon many of the ways of teaching and surviving in the classroom that they have painfully learned.

We realize that the "messiness" of schools as we have described it makes the special education project's job much more difficult. From our own experience in working with schools, we feel a great deal of sympathy for the project staff; successfully changing schools is a plodding, painstaking process, and many conditions make it difficult for external change agents to implement special education projects in the schools. These conditions may be described as barriers to change.

Barriers to Change

Some barriers to change arise from the school personnel and organization, others from the change agents and funding agencies, and still others from the interaction between school and change agents. To overcome those barriers and to create conditions that facilitate project implementation, change agents need to think about schools in new ways and to carefully diagnose the school organization. The remainder of this paper will describe

the major barriers to change and will suggest a planning model for dealing with these barriers.

School-Based Barriers to Change

The four components of the schools which present unique problems to the change agent are: the teacher, the principal, the organization, and the environment. Each of these components will be discussed in detail to show how each contributes to making project implementation difficult for the external agent.

The Teacher. Because teachers commonly experience considerable anxiety and stress while performing their normal routines, it should come as little surprise that they are often unwilling to welcome special projects which will add to their daily pressures. An untested project is often perceived as yet another intrusion on instructional time, another source of stress, and another confirmation that teachers are merely pawns serving someone else's purposes. The special project becomes an additional burden in the daily repertoire of unattainable goals, tenuous student-teacher relationships, exhaustion, and even hopelessness.

Lortie (1975) found that teachers generally had three goals. The first was teaching good citizenship and was usually closely connected with obtaining compliance with classroom rules. The second was stimulating intellectual curiosity and inducing positive attitudes toward learning and school. The third was reaching each and every child in the classroom. Teachers' efforts to reach these goals usually result in frustration, as Sarason (1971) has noted: "I have never met a teacher who was not aware of and disturbed by the fact that she had not the time to give to some children in the class the kind of help they needed" (p. 152). Since it is hard enough to reach those goals with well-adjusted and motivated students, many teachers feel

that it is next to impossible to reach them when coping with the special needs of students with handicaps or learning disabilities.

Achieving these goals is also dependent upon cooperation between the teacher and the student. This cooperation, however, is not voluntary; many students, in fact, do not want to be in school. Nevertheless, the teacher is expected to help students become self-motivated learners. Because the individual student-teacher relationship is always on stage before 25 or 30 other students who may resent what they consider "unfair" treatment, the teacher must be on guard to ensure equitable treatment of all students. Furthermore, teachers have few reliable ways to know whether or not they are succeeding in their efforts; also, since they generally work in isolation from their colleagues, they receive little support from their peers.

Time constraints and exhaustive routines further compound the problems of teachers. They are expected to cover their subject material, adhere to curriculum guidelines, and bring their students to a certain level of achievement within rigid time limits. Moreover, they are expected to maintain control of their classrooms, supervise extracurricular activities and playgrounds, and attend faculty meetings. With little, if any, time left for lunch or for breaks, many teachers use all of their strength coping with day-to-day pressures. When a teacher has a "bad day" and loses his or her temper with students, the stress is aggravated because the teacher is then in violation of the expectation that teachers always be nice, fair, consistent, and selfless. Faced with such duress, it is no wonder that teachers resist adding a special education project to their work load:

> Most teachers (in urban schools) leave the school soon after the students. You can't blame them. They are weary, worn out, and in need of escape, quiet, solitude and a chance to recoup for the next day. They are not disinterested or lazy as some

> have accused. They are simply exhausted. They can give no more, cope with no more conflict or demands. The day of chaos and tension has taken its toll. (Bell, 1979, p. 69)

When teachers must cope with the demands of special education projects or federal regulations that require them to complete reams of reports (only to find that the regulations have changed and the forms must be done over), exhaustion can lead to feelings of hopelessness or helplessness. Thus, teachers sometimes devise ways to cope with the increasing pressures which are not conducive to innovation; sometimes bizarre actions must be taken to comply with the demands: for example, in one school we visited, students were being shuffled in and out of a special projects classroom every 20 minutes. Why? Because "we have to show that these students are receiving services 'above and beyond' those already provided by the district or we will lose the money" (Bell, 1979, p. 67).

In addition, teachers become wary of outsiders and see them as interfering with their classroom routines, no matter how good the outsider's intention. Many teachers have learned that when outsiders come into the school, they will not have kind things to say upon their departure; "one could argue that the response of the school, rather than being pathological in any sense, indicates some good reality testing" (Sarason, 1971, p. 11). External change agents are, therefore, greeted with ambivalence by teachers. The teachers want help with the child they are not reaching, yet they are fearful that the outsider will unduly tax their time and energy. If, as often happens, these teachers feel that asking for help is an admission of failure, adopting an external project may lead to a sense of futility or to cynicism; cynicism arises especially when the special education project has been promoted by district administrators:

> A sense of futility permeates most activities. People in urban schools come to see themselves as

> unable to improve their own plight. They speak of themselves as buffeted by conditions that are beyond their control or ability to do anything about. They see themselves as governed by rules and regulations that originated outside the school and have little to do with their particular needs or problems. (Bell, 1979, p. 68)

A somewhat grim picture of the teacher's world has been purposefully presented here. The picture is not universally true; there are classrooms that are places of joy and learning, and we know many teachers who are eager to try new ways to reach students. These classrooms, however, are the exception rather than the rule, and we think the uncertainties and anxieties portrayed apply to all teachers to some degree. Uncertainties and anxieties also beset the principals of schools.

The Principal. The principal is the central figure in the school, especially in the implementation of special education projects. Sarason (1971) states, "We begin with the principal because any kind of system change puts him in the role of implementing change in his school" (p. 111). The Rand (Berman & McLaughlin, 1975) and other studies have found that special projects must have the principal's approval to succeed. Principals, however, rarely have adequate preparation for being educational leaders. A national study by Becker, Withycombe, Doyel, Miller, Morgan, DeLoretta, and Aldridge (Note 2) revealed that most administrator preparation programs emphasized obsolete management practices, ignored training in innovation and human relations, and gave administrators little confidence in their abilities to assume a leadership role in instructional improvement. Inservice training and other resources from universities, professional associations, and governmental agencies were found to be similarly ineffective.

Nevertheless, principals are pressured by demands from the central office, parents, federal agencies, teachers,

and the community. Most people attribute a great deal of power to principals, rarely considering the formal and informal restrictions on his or her freedom of action. Collective bargaining agreements limit what principals can do, and routine administrative tasks, daily crises, and the flood of paperwork leave little time for instructional leadership. Principals soon learn "that telling a teacher what is wrong or insisting upon a change is a far from effective means for changing attitudes and practices. The power to legislate change is no guarantee that change will happen" (Saranson, 1971, p. 120). To make things happen, then, principals need the cooperation of the faculty; however, teachers can undermine a principal's influence by dragging their heels, by letting obstacles interfere with plans, and by outright sabotage. In addition, although they are often given responsibility for running their schools, principals find that the crucial decisions are made by central office administrators. A recent study (Education USA, 1979) found that the principalship is a job with too many demands and not enough time or authority to accomplish them; it showed, too, that while professional journals and job descriptions tout the educational leadership role of the principal, those role descriptions are far from true :

> Irrespective of the rhetoric of intent, the role of the principal is formally conceived as primarily administrative and managerial. The expectations for casting the principal as the "educational leader" are simply not borne out. Almost 86 per cent of the duties are administrative and managerial. (Education USA, 1979, p. 293)

The principalship has become a stressful, high-turnover job in which short tenure is the rule rather than the exception. A vivid example of the toll that dedication takes on principals was given in Newsweek 13 March 1978. That article described the principal of Denver's Adams High School, Bill Van Buskirk, who smoothed crisis after crisis, including walkouts by political radicals, riots by angry Chicanos, and even gunplay in the halls. While he

maintained an excellent educational program and was nominated one of the outstanding principals in the state by his professional association, he worked seven days and five nights a week, ending up physically and emotionally exhausted as well as divorced. He finally quit after eight years to open a less-taxing consulting business. "You're supposed to be a miracle worker," he said, "but nobody offers to help the principal on his job. I felt alone" (p. 29).

When specialists and resource persons work in the schools, principals' problems are compounded. Principals often share with teachers a mistrust of outsiders, even those who come promising help. Furthermore, as Sarason (1971) notes, outsiders in the school are a signal that the school has problems, that people in the schools have not solved the problems, and the outsiders have knowledge and skills that people in the schools do not have. The presence of change agents from special education projects in a school, then, not only becomes a source of conflict and frustration for the principal, the teachers, and the change agents themselves, but challenges the principal's authority and upsets the delicate balance of power in a school.

In order to regain authority and to restore the balance, the principal may effectively undermine the implementation of a special education project. While the change agent may view the principal and teachers as unresponsive or uninformed about his or her particular specialty, the principal may consider the change agent to be naive about the complexities of the school. Although the change agents are not directly accountable to the principal, they are accountable to the school's administrator; thus a principal's decisions sometimes override the change agent's professional judgment. Moreover, the principal stays in the school, but the change agents are transient. Thus, when the change agents depart, teachers may defer to the wishes of the principal, who may wish to discontinue the project. These reactions, of course, are neither universal nor inevitable, but the principal who is an effective, dynamic leader welcoming innovative projects is all too rare.

The School Organization. Schools are not collections of individual personalities which can be modified simply by selecting new, "better" personalities; rather, they are complex organizations presenting multiple surfaces to the change agents. During the past 100 years, schools have become bureaucracies striving toward the ideas of centralized control, differentiation of jobs and functions, standardized qualifications for office, objectivity and rationality in performance, and precise chains of command (Schmuck, 1979; Katz, 1971). The creation of the bureaucracy, however, has made school organization cumbersome and rigid rather than efficient. Rules and channels designed to simplify procedures have become roadblocks to innovative action, and school professionals and personnel are often seen simply as interchangeable parts of a system, individual laborers to be shifted at a moment's notice.

The division of school orgnizations into separate components has brought about a situation in which each group within the organization feels committed more to its own goals than to the overall aims of the organization. This situation is clearly the case in most high schools. In the Rand studies (Mann, 1978) it was found that high school teachers felt a primary loyalty to their departments rather than to the school as a whole and were often split into antagonistic groups of "academics" versus "electives." Similarly, district-level administrators compete among themselves for resources. Thus school boards, budget committees, and planners are barraged annually by advocates of rival programs, each demanding that funding for his or her program be continued, regardless of how it fits into organization-wide priorities.

Although bureaucratic rigidity is present, schools are not simply inflexible, fixed organizations, for there is a tapestry of complex interactions never reflected in organizational charts or policy manuals. To contrast the common but erroneous view of schools as smoothly integrated, tightly coupled systems in which subsystems smoothly function together toward common ends, some

organizational theorists are now describing schools as loosely coupled systems or "organized anarchies." Loosely coupled means that the components of the organization have infrequent, weak, or uncertain ties with each other, so that the actions of one part have only a moderate effect on the other parts.

Loosely coupled systems are marked by three properties. The first is ambiguous or conflicting goals. As Cohen, March, and Olsen (in Clark, Note 3) describe it:

> The organization operates on the basis of a variety of inconsistent and ill-defined preferences. It can be described better as a loose collection of ideas than as a coherent structure; it discovers preferences through action more than it acts on the basis of preferences. (p.10)

Many observers have commented on the ambiguity of educational goals. Miles (Note 4), for example, notes that some goals, such as academic learning, are given primacy in public statements, while others, such as socializing some children to prepare them to accept low-status industrial jobs, are kept in the background; others, such as keeping the kids off the street and out of parents' way, are usually never openly admitted.

The second property of loosely coupled systems is unclear technology. Cohen et al. (in Clark, Note 3) make the following statement:

> Although the organization manage o survive and even produce, its own processes are not understood by its members. It operates on the basis of simple trial-and-error procedures, the residue of learning from the accidents of past experience, and pragmatic inventions of necessity. (p. 10)

Most theorists describe teaching as an "unrationalized technology"; that is, there is no single way of teaching that uniformly produces consistent results. (Teachers

usually say that teaching is an "art," not a "science.") Almost anything seems to work for somebody, but nothing works for everybody.

The third property of loosely coupled systems is fluid participation (Cohen et al., in Clark, Note 3):

> Participants vary in the amount of time and effort they devote to different domains; involvement varies from one time to another. As a result, the boundaries of the organization are uncertain and changing; the audiences and decision makers for any particular kind of choice change capriciously. (p. 10)

In many schools the student population is transient, so that a large proportion of the students who start the school year in one school do not finish it in the same school. Teachers and principals are moved from school to school, and many teachers and principals stay in the profession only a short time. As a result, school personnel who initiat or agree to participate in a special education project often do not see it through. Their replacements bring new values, beliefs and preferences, as well as lack of knowledge about the project.

Corroborating the view that schools are loosely coupled systems, Hanson (in Runkel, Schmuck, Arends, & Francisco, Note 5) described the schools as a "mixed bag of structured and unstructured activity, formal and informal procedures, and controlled and spontaneous activity" (pp. 32-34). He found that groups in schools acted not jointly in pursuit of common goals, but in small groups that formed temporary coalitions to achieve specific, short-range goals. Sharing only ambigious--and sometimes only symbolic--goals with the school as a whole, each group set its own priorities based on its perception of dominant needs. Adding to the complexity of the organization were either formal subcoalitions established around longstanding, durable interests, such as similar teaching assignments, or informal subcoalitions

formed briefly around temporary issues or crises. Coordination among these subcoalitions was through informal negotiation rather than rational planning. Everyone participated when his or her interests were involved, and the agreements made in the "contested zone" were fragile and temporary, nearly always subject to renegotiation when the issue arose again.

To a large extent, the organization of schools thus described serves as a barrier to implementing special education projects. Since one cannot get action simply by issuing a directive or by stating commonly held goals, it is difficult to mobilize the components of a system. Coordination is difficult when more than one component is involved, since cooperation in such a loosely constructed system is often uncertain. Components that are isolated from one another are also often buffered from pressure to change.

The School Climate. A school's climate, i.e., the sum of things such as people's feelings about the school and their relationship to it, interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, and the school's norms or informal rules about "how we do things here," strongly influences how a special education project will be received. In some schools, the climate is receptive, especially when staff members and students relate to other people with trust, openness, social support, and cohesiveness (Schmuck, 1979). In those schools, staff often believe that they control their own actions, and that important social satisfactions, such as achievement, affiliation, and influence, are being met.

Most schools, however, do not have such ideal climates. For example, Bell (1979) describes the chaos, noise, and tension of one school he visited as a pervasive "climate of crisis." Students and teachers seemed locked in combat, anarchy was common in classrooms, and teaching was constantly interrupted by student misbehavior or messages from the office. Bell noted that no one wanted or liked the chaos. Students, teachers, and administrators all complained about the lack of order and pointed out its

effects. But no one seemed capable of doing anything about it: "Most shrugged their shoulders and accepted the chaos as 'the way things are' and were grateful that they weren't worse" (Bell, 1979, pp. 68-69).

At the same time, most of the people in the school worked alone and felt isolated. Teachers ventured out of their classrooms only for playground duty or lunch. The rare conversations between teachers focused on immediate concerns of lavatory patrol or tardy slips, not instructional strategies, curriculum choices, or educational goals.

The School as It Reflects and Responds to Its Environment

Much of what goes on in schools can best be understood as responses to pressures from the environment. Environment refers to the collection of individuals, groups, agencies and other factors outside the school system which have an impact on it. Schools are affected by everything from socioeconomics and cultural characteristics of the neighborhood to the decisions of OPEC to raise prices. The resources available to a school are often directly related to the general income level of its neighborhood. Sexton (in Schmuck, 1979) found that neighborhood characteristics influenced buildings, class loads, teacher competence, testing methods, student placement, curriculum, counseling, opportunity to attend college, and other school-related items. Schools in poor neighborhoods typically have younger and less-experienced faculty, lower staff salaries, more overcrowding, fewer supplies, and more outdated equipment.

Furthermore, schools are shaped by society's expectations. Almost daily there is some new demand that schools adopt some innovation, make up for past deficiencies, or address some new social problem. On the other hand, it is easy to overestimate the "constituency

for change." Schools are protected by society, which sees them as necessary to the maintenance of the social system, and one result is that there is less need for, or interest in, change (Carlson, Note 6).

Even though schools are in some respects protected, it is simultaneously (and perhaps paradoxically) true that schools are vulnerable to many environmental pressures. When federal or state government demands are backed by severe penalties for noncompliance, the pressure can be strong indeed. Miles (Note 4) addresses the vulnerability of schools to a variety of pressures. Many parents feel free to complain to the teacher or principal about the treatment of students, and parental groups and other community interest groups or organizations voice their concerns and preferences. Recent years have witnessed struggles of epic proportions, including violence, over issues of community control of schools. PL 94-142 is only one of several pieces of federal legislation that imposes far-reaching demands on schools.

In short, teachers and principals often feel that they are called on to solve problems that are not of their making or to implement solutions that are not of their choosing. When specialists from outside the school come offering help--especially if the outsider is connected with a university or a federal agency -- teachers and principals often feel they have a right to view those persons as another source of interference; a common reaction is, "Why don't you just let me alone and let me teach." The problem is compounded when the outside helper, for a variety of reasons, also creates barriers to the implementation of special education projects.

Interaction-Based Barriers to Change

Change agents and school personnel, as Sarason (1971) forcefully points out, live in two different cultures; Wolcott (Note 7) calls them "technocrats" and "teachers," respectively. Each culture has its own language, assumptions, values, and ways of dealing with the world. Because the two cultures are different, change agents and school personnel usually have different images of themselves, each other, the special education project, and the school.

It is likely that when people from these two cultures interact, the change agents may threaten the teachers' autonomy for instructional decisions and may ignore their experience and expertise. When teachers perceive that a project potentially threatens their self-esteem and otherwise creates problems, they will "downshift": "We shift down to cope with a strong immediate necessity, as when we perceive a threat to our safety. When we shift down, we do not even ask how to do the job we are doing. We put the job aside to protect ourselves against the perceived danger" (Runkel et al., Note 5, p. 53). The Project Director is left wondering why the school personnel are having such a hard time understanding his or her clear descriptions of the project, while the staff are quietly thinking about how to find the easiest way to accommodate this latest disruption of their lives.

We often speak of resistance to change as if it were a psychological trait or another label for sheer stubbornness. It is neither. Everybody resists some changes and endorses others, and there are a variety of reasons for doing so. Few people like to put themselves on stage when they are trying to master difficult new behaviors such as changing teaching styles or adapting to the presence of a special education child in the classroom. There is little reason for teachers to expose themselves to colleagues, superiors, and outsiders, or to risk failure

unless they believe that such exposure will eventually pay off.

When confronted with a proposed change, most people perform a sort of mental calculus that compares costs with benefits. They estimate (often not consciously) how likely it is that the project will succeed, what kind of improvement it will bring, and how much energy it will take to do it. Also, they consider whether the problem is really serious enough to warrant action, and whether the proposed project promises to solve the problem. Most of us are unwilling to take on changes that seem to have small hope of success, seem to make little difference, or require an inordinate amount of energy.

Other sources of resistance will come from perceptions of the impact of the project on the political structure of the school and how each individual's status, prestige, and access to resources will be affected. Finally, there are typically few rewards or incentives for innovation in education. Teachers who simply put in the minimum effort make just as much money as teachers who spend much of their own time on school-related work. Administrators who devote time to the project do not get relief from the routine load of paperwork. And there are usually no bonuses of time or money to reward extra effort.

In summary, there is an imposing array of barriers to change efforts which originate outside the school. Some of the barriers are found in the world of the classroom teacher, the role of the principal, the nature of school organizations, and the school's relationship to its environment. Other barriers are created by the change agent's theories of people, schools, and change, and by the change strategies based on those theories. Still other barriers arise from the interaction between the change agent and the target group. These barriers are not present in all schools; but where they exist, they will hinder the implementation of a special education project.

Planning for Change

The Rational Planning Model

The planning for and designing of special education projects, despite the imposing barriers which must be overcome, should not be abandoned. The change agent, however, needs a planning model to give direction to his or her efforts. The rational planning model is based on the view that an educational organization is a "rational system in which operations and changes can be programmed and monitored for short and long range planning cycles" (Clark, Note 3, p. 3). The model begins with setting goals and then building a sequential, cumulative, and rational process for achieving them; it requires the belief that one can have reasonable confidence in the predictability of events. It rarely works that way outside of the smudged RFPs from various federal agencies:

> Program participants in national and state level school improvement efforts are constantly squirming, adjusting, and evading the operational impact of premature, ill-conceived, grandiose and unattainable program goals; devising operations as they go along; discovering achievable goals. (Clark, Note 3, p. 6)

The rational planning model, however, is inadequate for two reasons. First, it rests on assumptions about people, schools, and change that do not reflect the complexity of the real world.

> The logic-in-use in most educational organizations, most of the time, is so disparate from the reconstructed logic supporting rational planning systems that no level of improvement in the design or implementation of such systems would affect

> significantly the usefulness of the systems. The important step to be taken is the reconceptualization of the planning process in such organizations. (Clark, Note 3, p. 8)

Thus it is usually an inadequate guide to action, especially when things do not work out as planned, goals are found to be inappropriate, and much effort is expended to make reality fit the plan. The model is appropriate when the conditions described by Clark are present: widespread agreement about goals and strategies, tight coupling in the system, complete information, and so on. Table 1 contrasts the conditions required to use the rational planning model with the conditions usually found in schools. Those conditions, however, are not present very often.

Second, the rational planning model is not effective when it is used for "top down" or "outside in" project planning. In top down planning, high-level policymakers set general goals, which are then handed down to subordinate administrators to set specific objectives; these objectives are then handed down to practitioners to devise strategies and tactics. The people most directly affected by the plan have the least input into it. That is also usually true of outside in planning, in which goals and strategies are created by an agency external to the school, and teachers are then called on to implement the plans of others.

An Alternative Planning Model

An alternative to the rational planning model must satisfy two criteria: it must serve as a guide to action and it must be communicable to others. It is somewhat difficult to describe with precision alternative ways of planning that satisfy those criteria. The alternative planning model is not yet fully formed. Here we describe our view of the nature of planning and our conception of what goals

TABLE 1

THE CONDITIONS NEEDED FOR THE RATIONAL PLANNING MODEL CONTRASTED WITH THOSE FOUND IN SCHOOLS

Conditions Required for Rational Planning Model	Conditions Likely in Schools (Viewed as "Organized Anarchies")
Widespread understanding and acceptance of the goals of the change project.	Differing perspectives on the goals, from enthusiasm to indifference or hostility, due to different values, perspectives on the problem, status and position in the organization, etc.
Widespread understanding and acceptance of the project's strategies and activities.	Differing perspectives on strategies and activities, based on the above plus uncertain technologies, personal styles and preferences, and competitive programs within the system and its environment.
Tight coupling between the funding agency, developer, and adopting system.	Loose coupling marked by few binding authority relationships, uncertain communication among agencies, few incentives or sanctions for innovation, negotiated ad hoc relationships, and efforts to subordinate the funder's interests to solving the school's own problems.
Complete, available and accurate data for making decisions and planning actions.	Incomplete data, often unwillingly given by participants, data unintentionally distorted or deliberately falsified (or withheld), disinclination of policy makers to base decisions on data, using instead political reasons, and incomplete knowledge of the culture of the school.
Evaluation data on process and product to use in decisions about program success or modifications needed.	Unwillingness to provide evaluation data, threatened program participants who want to show success to guarantee future funding, unintended consequences, and program outcomes unrelated to original goals.

NOTE. Adapted from Clark, 1980, Note 3.

and plans should be. We then describe a two-phase planning process that has worked for us.

The Nature of Planning. Planning serves a variety of purposes. Sometimes planning is done to advertise or sell a program to others. A planning session is often an occasion for people to discuss current issues or problems. Planning is, above all, a political process. It provides a framework for people to negotiate their interests, to build support for proposed activities, and to allocate resources, all of which are political activities.

Because planning is political, it necessarily involves negotiation: people bargain to see that their goals are met while their interests are not ignored. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) found that planning in the curriculum projects they studied was best characterized as continuous negotiation about project goals and activities. Negotiative planning also inevitably involves conflict, but successful planners can use conflict as a tool for generating information and as a method of securing support. Glasser and Taylor (1973) found that the most successful projects were those in which conflict surfaced early. Bringing conflict to the surface increases the amount of information available to planners. It also lets objections and resistance be incorporated into plans so that they do not come out later as sabotage or lack of compliance. At times planning may involve deliberately heightening the conflict to generate information, clarify choices and positions, and force a search for creative solutions.

The Nature of Goals and Plans. Goals should be conceived as rallying points and as visions of a more desirable future, rather than as fences that constrain action. Hedberg, Nystrom, and Starbuck (in Runkel et al., Note 5, p. 49) encourage us to think of plans, designs, and organizations as temporary "tents" rather than as immovable "palaces." Goals are clarified and accepted when people state their images of possible futures and when common visions are found; that is, when they

discover that What you want to do is what I want to do. Let's work together to do it.

Goals are necessarily tentative because action generates new information. People discover that their understandings were not identical, that action produces consequences that were not foreseen, and that the distance between the intended and actual future grows greater. At times it is appropriate to adjust action to correspond more closely with the goal. At other times, however, when it is found that the goal was unrealistic or inappropriate, replanning is necessary.

Plans are conceived as loosely coupled agreements about action. They represent people's commitments of time and energy to try to achieve shared goals through coordinated action. They state what people want to have happen and will work for to make happen. As such, they are always tentative and temporary. Therefore, planning must be continuous. It is impossible to foresee all the consequences of actions that one takes according to a plan. Conditions will change, unexpected problems will arise, new people will be involved, and the plan must be changed accordingly. Berman and McLaughlin (1975) found that successful federally funded projects were those in which planning was carried out in that way.

Components of an Alternative Planning Model. The kind of planning appropriate to the complex reality of schools involves both play and work; that is, effective planning draws on both the intuitive and playful modes of thinking in the left hemisphere of the brain and the systematic and rational thinking of the right hemisphere. (For a fuller discussion of right brain and left brain thinking as applied to change in schools, see Runkel et al., Note 5, 1979.) While play generally precedes work in the proposed process, the process itself does not proceed in a straight line from play to work. Rather, the two modes of thinking alternate; thus planning is a means to generate ideas through play, then to test and refine the ideas through work.

Both play and work are necessary for effective, appropriate planning, but neither is by itself sufficient. Play is the way that the shackles of assumptions are cast off, new relationships and creative solutions are discovered, and visions of more desirable futures (and ways to make them happen) are shared. But the visions and creative ideas generated by play must be tested through the critical thinking of work. Costs and benefits must be calculated, the feasibility of alternative courses of action must be determined, and ideas must be turned into plans. Creative ideas unrestrained by critical thinking lead to unwise action, but rational thinking alone is uninspired and sterile.

Playful planning. Planning is based on information, especially information about how people view the problem to be solved, the situations they want to realize, and how to close the gap between the present and the desired state. Those kinds of information are labelled as STP, the initials for situation (the current state), target (the desired state), and proposal (strategies for moving from the current to the desired state). Play is the best way to generate that information.

The most commonly used kind of play in problem solving is brainstorming, generating ideas without worrying about their feasibility, but there are other ways to surface ideas. By creating nonverbal representations of situations or goals, people use the intuitive half of their brains. For example, we have directed groups to build tinkertoy models or to draw pictures of their view of the current situation or their vision of a more desirable one. One project held a two-day staff retreat to close off one contract year and begin another. At the beginning of the retreat, the staff divided into three teams; each created and presented to the others an "advertisement" to "sell" the old project. The staff then examined the assumptions that underlay those advertisements, what was undesirable about the old project and should be abandoned, and what was worthy of being retained in the new project.

Another project staff began the planning process by generating on 3 x 5 cards an assortment of images of the current situation, goals, and strategies. When the cards were then posted on the wall, it was a fairly simple matter to draw connections among them, building plans where connections could be made, and discarding those that did not fit. The key is to delay the evaluation of ideas (a systematic thinking function) until after the generation of ideas (a playful function).

Perhaps the essence of playful planning is what Runkel et al. (Note 5) call "shifting up." Shifting up means creating new images; it also means testing and challenging the planner's assumptions about people and school organizations. Plans are images of how things might be done differently and better, and plans inevitably involve assumptions about how things can work. The assumptions people make, however, can restrict available alternatives. If their thinking is routine, they will not discover inventive ways of behaving or creative new strategies. Too often, creative planning is constrained by assumptions such as, Parents would never go for it, Kids can't learn that, or The principal would never let Playful planning occurs only when people are freed fr their common assumptions, immediate pressures, and routines, when they can let themselves be visionary or fanciful, and when there is a climate that encourages sharing ideas without fear of premature evaluation.

Work planning. The ideas generated by playful planning can come to fruition as coordinated, effective action only if they are subjected to critical thinking. Individuals at some point must coordinate their actions to reach a common goal and take mutual action toward the goal. In particular, three steps must follow idea generation. The first step is selecting alternatives that offer the greatest potential for meeting the goals and altering the current situation in desirable ways. The second is forecasting consequences, that is, examining the ideas and calculating the costs and benefits of each to see which are most feasible, given the mission of the project, the constraints

of available resources, and the political situation within which the project must operate. The final step is that of making action plans that explicitly state what action will be taken, who is responsible for taking it, and when it will occur.

The planning process. As indicated earlier, it is impossible to forecast all the results of taking action according to a plan. Sometimes it will be found that goals are unrealistic. At other times, planners may find that the action plans have overly optimistic timelines or are hindered by constraints that were not known when the plan was made. For those reasons, planners are encouraged to think of planning as continuous, renegotiable, and recyclable. As new problems are encountered and new situations arise, it will be necessary to rethink the plan. Rethinking may require additional playful planning to create new images or to test assumptions, or it may require more critical thinking to refine the action plans. In either case, viable, effective planning is ongoing and dynamic, but the best plans may effect little change if they are resisted by those who must expedite them. Therefore, planners must also be aware of certain "conditions of readiness," indicators of potential willingness to accept change.

Conditions of readiness. Too often, change agents assume that it is possible to initiate innovations regardless of the current situation in the school. But organizational change is unlikely unless certain conditions are met. Those conditions are presented in Bell, Wyant, and Schmuck's Diagnosing a School's Readiness for Change (Note 8) and are presented here in abbreviated form.

Accessibility of resources and support

- Whether the kind of technical knowledge necessary to implement the project is available in the school or readily accessible in other places.

- Whether financial resources and others, especially the support and approval of key administrators in the district and environment, are available.

Internal press for change

- How many people are:
  - dissatisfied with the present situation,
  - feel that the proposed project is an adequate solution to the problem they feel,
  - believe that improvement is possible, and
  - think that the project's benefits will outweigh its costs.

Stability of staff

- How many people at the school plan to stay, so that those who initiate the project will be around to carry it out.
- How many people believe the principal will stay in his or her job long enough to see the project through.
- What other changes are being tried, changes (other innovations, etc.) which use energy that might go to the project.
- How many other groups, meetings, committees, and departments claim a share of people's attention and energy.

Skill in collaborative group work

- What skills exist that allow people to communicate clearly, come to decisions that are clear and supported, conduct meetings that accomplish their purposes,

and work with persons of diverse philosophies and values.

Norms supporting collaborative group work

- Whether the implicit rules about "how we do things here" encourage collaboration and communication even in emotionally difficult situations.
- Whether there is perseverance at the task despite frustration, expressions of feelings and opinions.
- Whether third-party helpers can be used in conflicts and difficulties.

Spirit of risk taking

- To what extent people are:
  - willing to take on extra work on behalf of the project even though trying the new behaviors may be stressful,
  - willing to take inservice training,
  - experiencing stress, anxiety, or threat from whatever source, and
  - willing to make changes in his or her own behavior to support the project.

What proportion of those conditions must be favorable for a special education project to succeed? It is doubtful that there is a magic number. Success is more likely, however, when favorable conditions are a substantial proportion of the whole. Where a large proportion of those conditions are unfavorable, the change agent should seriously consider whether to undertake the project or be prepared to help the faculty develop those conditions before attempting the substantive changes called for in the project.

Characteristics of Successful Projects

The Rand studies of federally funded projects (Berman & McLaughlin, 1975) and a study by Glaser and Taylor (1973) have pointed to several characteristics common to successful projects. Flexible adaptive planning that created appropriate communication channels, set initial goals congruent with the values and goals of the participants, and established clear, simple strategies for implementation resulted, in both studies, in the greatest amount of success. Furthermore, both studies showed that projects which responded to identified needs were more likely to succeed, as were those projects which were initiated by a core group of committed people who involved teachers and support staff early in the project. According to the Rand studies, projects which replaced, rather than supplemented, current classroom practices were more successful, as were those which had the active support of the principal, district administrators, and teachers. Glaser and Taylor's study also stressed the importance of appropriate management structure.

The clear message from both the Rand and Glaser and Taylor's studies is that there is rarely one and only one way to solve most problems. More often, a variety of solutions is possible; therefore Project Directors should be flexible in their planning, and be willing to allow teachers and others who implement the project to influence the project's direction.

Summary

In this paper, many of the barriers to implementing special education projects have been discussed. Some of

those barriers exist because of the nature of schools and the roles of school personnel. Other barriers arise because of the assumptions, goals, and strategies of those who try to induce change in schools. Still other barriers become apparent in the interaction between people in schools and others who try to influence them to act in new ways.

If there is an overriding message in this article, it is this: contrary to the usually accepted picture, schools are not rational systems, but "organized anarchies" in which uncertainty and unpredictability are the rule rather than the exception. Effectively implementing special education projects in school organizations requires sensitivity to the target personnel, a theory of change that mirrors the complexity of the school, and a repertoire of staff skills and behaviors that can help people commit themselves to making the new project a useful instrument for creating schools that are more productive and satisfying places for teaching and learning.

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The Relationship of Adult Learning Theory to Inservice Training

Betty B. Banks

More and more educational organizations are implementing inservice training and staff development programs to assist their staffs in acquiring the skills, attitudes and knowledge necessary in their particular positions. As the momentum of change increases in the areas of curriculum development, instructional technology, organizational patterns, facilities, equipment and teaching-learning styles, staff must have opportunities to learn about and adapt these innovations to their respective situations. Simultaneously, changes in our society are influencing the structure and focus of inservice and staff development programs. The average age of staff members is younger than ever before, so it is likely that the traditional exchange of ideas between experienced and unexperienced teachers may decrease. With the limited job market, teachers are less inclined to leave their positions, therefore a substitute is needed for institutional renewal. Federal mandates, such as Public Law 94-142, are increasing the numbers of handicapped and variety of disability types served and are requiring teachers to obtain additional training.

The need for continual staff development in our public schools is clearly evident; however, too often institutions or organizations offer inservice programs without fully considering the unique or specific needs of the teachers. If these programs are to be fully effective, they need more development, integration and organization than they presently receive. One-shot inservice programs should be converted into well-designed, continuous learning experiences. They need to be an integral part of the goals of the institution or organization and provide long-range professional development for the staff. It is particularly important that the administration of the institution or organization voice its commitment to follow through.

During the last several years many staff developers have been drawing upon the principles of adult learning theory when designing inservice and staff development programs. The following review of several prominent adult learning theories will hopefully provide background information and stimulate new approaches to inservice and staff development programs.

Learning Theories Provide Direction

Learning theories provide staff developers with a foundation upon which to build or from which to draw. They specify ways of teaching and learning that are intended to achieve certain kinds of goals. Theories about learning and teaching have been high interest areas among educators, psychologists, sociologists, systems analysts, psychiatrists and many others during the last century. This curiosity has generated numerous explanations of the learning and teaching process. Not only does the diversity among theories illustrate the complexity of the learning process, it also reflects the different assumptions made about human nature, the purpose of education and societal

values. For the practitioner, an understanding of the different theories should be the first step toward mastering a repertoire of approaches to teaching and learning. The more completely staff developers understand learning theories, the better their designs of learning experiences will be.

Scientific theories of learning, primarily based on the observations of animals and children, have in the past dominated the fields of education and psychology. These early learning theories were concerned with the processes involved in child learning. More recently, a group of theories dealing with adult learning have emerged. Several societal trends account for the continuing growth of the adult education movement, and the increased focus upon adult learning theories. A sophisticated technology which requires a highly skilled labor force is one factor that promotes adult educational programs. Many adults did not acquire basic academic skills during the formal school years and thus need to participate in adult basic education programs. A rapidly changing society also creates a need for advanced training in a particular field or even retraining in an alternative field. Many adult educational programs are geared toward meeting the diverse needs of adults as they participate in more leisure time activities. Thus the increased interest in adult education is a direct result of societal needs. To meet these needs, educational theorists have turned their attention toward adult learning activities. By examining the unique characteristics of adult learners, it has been possible to organize these findings around a concept of adult learning. This knowledge is making a difference in the way in which adult learning programs are organized and delivered, as well as in the training of the teachers of adults. This knowledge can broaden our perspective on the nature of adult learning and expand the ways we arrange more meaningful experiences for adult learners.

The complexities of the problems confronting public school teachers today undermine the likelihood that any one theory of adult learning will be able to meet all needs

addressed through staff development and inservice programs. Just as we expect teachers to adapt the learning experiences to the special needs of new and different pupils, so must we be willing to draw upon the diverse approaches within adult education when arranging adult learning experiences. Theories need not be utilized in their totality. An eclectic approach may be a more viable alternative. The most important factor is the compatibility of the theory with the needs of the learner. A working knowledge of learning theories will enhance the probability that staff developers will be able to provide the most appropriate match between teaching activities and learning styles, and goals and outcomes. This will be possible only if the staff developer can synthesize and adapt theories according to the needs of adult learners.

Major Adult Learning Theories

For the purpose of this paper, a select group of adult learning theories will be reviewed and related to inservice and staff development programs. As previously stated, adult learning theories assume there are differences in the ways children and adults learn. The first theory to be discussed illustrates this assumption.

Andragogy Versus Pedagogy

Knowles (1978) has written extensively on the concept of andragogy versus pedagogy. He defines pedagogy as the "art and science of teaching children" while andragogy is defined as the "teaching of adults." According to Knowles, andragogy is "an integrative and differentiating concept." It integrates the "isolated concepts, insights,

and research findings regarding adult learning" (p. 55) and differentiates adult learning processes from the more familiar child learning processes.

Andragogical theory is based on four main assumptions. The first is that as an individual matures the need to be self-directed increases. Since adults have this need, it is essential that they be given choices regarding the content to be learned and the process by which they will learn. The opportunity to be a self-directed learner, however, is rarely available in traditional learning situations. This situation can produce a conflict between the learner's desire to be self-directed and the realities of a passive learning role. Often this discrepancy will interfere with learning. This assumption has particular relevance for the staff developer. Learners should be encouraged to participate in the planning of the learning experiences as well as in the identifying of the topics to be addressed, and in the selecting of program activities. By encouraging the participants to formulate the purpose, subject area and process of the learning experience, the motivation of the group is enhanced and the personal need to be self-directed is met. Furthermore, by including the participants in the decision-making process, one enhances the possibility that the immediate resources within the group will be used.

The second assumption of andragogy focuses on the role of experience. Adults come to a learning situation with a wide array of experiences which can be used as resources and as a broad base from which to relate new ideas. Consequently, the traditional techniques of transmitting information from teacher to learner are not as effective as tapping the learner's experience. In designing inservice and staff development learning experiences, the staff developer again has the opportunity to involve the teacher actively. Due to the very nature and content of staff development activities, the teacher's past experiences and future expectations should be an integral part of the learning experience. Frequently the staff developer is unaware of the actual problems confronting the teacher

and must rely on the teacher's description of the situation.

Even if the staff developer is cognizant of the situation, it would still be necessary to incorporate the teacher's perceptions regarding acceptable solutions. The task becomes one of addressing a multitude of variables which impinge upon the problem. This information is most efficiently and reliably obtained from the participant. This acceptance and utilization of the participant's experience also conveys a feeling of respect for his or her worth, which in turn will transmit a sense of confidence regarding his or her ability to provide for the needs from within his or her own resources.

The third assumption rests upon the belief that "as an individual matures, his/her readiness to learn is decreasingly the product of his biological development and academic pressure and is increasingly the product of the developmental tasks required for the performance of his evolving social roles" (Knowles, 1978, p. 57). Again, a difference between adult and child learning is made, but this time it focuses on motivation. Pedagogy assumes children are ready to learn because of their biological and academic development, whereas andragogy assumes adults are ready to learn when there is incongruence between present knowledge and the task to be completed. In other words, adults will learn what they perceive to be relevant, and relevance is dependent upon the individual's present situation. In staff development activities there exists a desire to develop new ways of thinking about daily problems and to identify alternate ways of thinking and behaving when the problem arises again. Relevance is more likely attained when the participants search for discontinuities between the ideal and real situation. Their self-identified needs and interests give rise to an intrinsic motivation to learn. This assumption implies that inservice and staff development designs should: 1) offer learning experiences based upon the particular needs of the teacher, and 2) reflect the particular developmental phases the participants are experiencing in their various

roles. One of the tasks of a successful staff developer is to stimulate a readiness for change. In order to accomplish this, it is vital that the staff developer have a working knowledge of procedures which will enhance readiness. General strategies useful in stimulating readiness to learn include the completion of a needs assessment for participants, an analysis of the problems and involvement of the participants in determining individual and group goals and evaluation criteria. Variations of these techniques have been described in other chapters (See Peters and McGuigan).

The last assumption implies that adults tend to have a problem orientation toward learning whereas children have a subject or content orientation. Traditionally our public schools have encouraged children to be subject centered and future oriented in terms of application of knowledge. Learning the multiplication tables has very little in common with the mathematical problems occurring in the child's daily activities. On the other hand, adults enter into most educational activities because of a self-perceived inadequacy or need. This produces a problem-centered orientation to learning, and a desire to apply the knowledge immediately. These conditions have major implications in the design of adult learning experiences. Staff developers should provide adequate time for the identification of participant needs. It then becomes necessary to organize the general theoretical constructs around the problem areas. Once this is accomplished, it is possible to move freely between theory and practice. Specific problems are examined in terms of various theoretical perspectives and the various strategies can be tested in the real life situation. A check and balance between theory and practice is maintained.

Knowles's theory of adult learning can be a useful guide for staff developers. His development of the andragogical model has incorporated principles and technologies from numerous theories yet still maintains its own integrity. The andragogical model deals with adult, rather than child

developmental phases, and the process of learning rather than the content of learning. These two foci help the staff developer explore new alternatives while planning inservice and staff development activiites. Through the andragogical model it becomes increasingly necessary to look at the learning environment in terms of a facilitating climate, cooperative planning and development of explicit individual and group needs of participants. Thereafter the staff developer has the responsibility to examine critically the relevance of the learning activities in terms of participant needs and goals. Knowles's model is optimistic. It encourages new respect for the adult learner and opens up alternative ways of arranging the learning experience.

Continuing Learners

In the 1950s, Cyril Houle began a series of investigations which continue to shed light on how and why adults choose to learn (Houle, 1961). The subjects of his major study were identified as "continuing learners." Through indepth interviews the subjects were asked to give their reasons for participating in voluntary and continuing education programs. Based on these responses he found that continuing learners fit into three distinct yet overlapping categories. The first group was called "goal-oriented" learners. These individuals have very definite and clear-cut objectives regarding the purpose of the learning experience. Participation in educational activities is the result of a realization of a need or the identification of an interest. The second group of learners was labeled "activity oriented." These learners take part because of a different kind of need: human relationships. The purpose and content of the course may or may not have any significant relevance for these learners. Rather, the decision to join a learning activity rests primarily upon the learners' estimation of the kind and degree of human interaction available. The "learning-oriented" learners

make up the third type of adult learner as defined by Houle. These persons are the stereotyped "perpetual students," seeking knowledge for its own sake and participating for growth potential.

Houle's description of the three types of adult learners has relevance for inservice and staff development design. First, it is evident from this study that participants join an activity for very different reasons. The staff developer cannot assume that all participants are equally interested in the subject as it is outlined in the course description; he or she must attend to the hidden curricula of the participants. Second, participation is one of the biggest problems facing public school inservice and staff development programs. Ideally, the teaching staff is a group of professionals committed to staying abreast in their field and taking advantage of educational opportunities. For numerous reasons, this is not always the case. At times it seems that those who would benefit most from staff development opportunities do not participate, while another group participates in every activity. It would behoove staff developers to look at the participants in terms of Houle's categories and use that information while designing appropriate learning experiences. The consideration of teacher motives for participation, or lack of them, in staff development programs will shed some light on the actual needs of teachers. This information will allow a more appropriate relationship among teaching strategies, content and participants' expectations.

Learning Projects

Allen Tough (1979) built upon the work of Houle by examining not only what and why adults learn, but how they learn and what help they obtain from learning (while learning). The findings and implications of the studies, all of which focus on the adults' "learning projects," provide

new perspectives to theory and practice in adult learning. Tough expanded the definition of a learning activity to include any "deliberate adult learning including self-planned learning and private lessons as well as courses and workshops" (p. xi). By including self-planned learning projects within the adult learning paradigm, he was able to examine the teaching tasks that the adult performs for himself, and the advice and other help he obtains with these tasks from other persons. From these studies Tough found that learning is a pervasive activity among adults and that learners tend to organize their learning efforts around projects. A learning project is a series of clearly related episodes spread over a period of time.

Almost all learning projects consist of more than three or four episodes. An episode is a "well-defined period of time that is held together by the similarity in intent, activity, or place of the thoughts and actions that occur during it" (p. 8). An episode is fairly easy to recall and describe, since it consists of clear, definite and almost tangible activities. He found that in some learning projects the episodes may be related to the desired knowledge or skill, while in other instances the episodes are related by the responsibility or action for which they will be used.

According to Tough, the adult learner goes through three major phases in the process of engaging in a learning project. The first phase includes the preparatory steps involved in deciding whether to proceed and what to learn. Using Tough's examples, the learner's preparatory steps may involve: "setting an action goal, assessing his interest, seeking information on certain opportunities, selecting the most appropriate knowledge and skill, establishing the desired level or amount, and estimating the costs and benefits of obtaining it" (p. 63). The learner is basically asking himself two questions: Should I proceed with the learning project? What (generally) should I learn?

This process usually occurs prior to joining a structured learning situation. Tough emphasizes that many participants need help during this process. Taking that into consideration, it would seem reasonable to assume that this activity should be given more attention in structured learning situations. Ideally the staff developer should set aside adequate time for the participants to make systematic diagnoses of their problems and needs. Furthermore, this process would be enhanced if the staff developer would help the learner, in a nondirective manner, through the decision-making process. By doing so, the opportunities for self-directed learning and the identification of relevant content and activities would be increased. It also follows that as the individual defines his needs, the scope of instructional activities will probably expand. For example, if the learner is clear about the specific skills to be learned, then a typical large-group inservice program, addressing general concepts may no longer be the most appropriate learning activity. Staff developers must be prepared to assist the participant in making a selection and then in designing appropriate activities.

In the second phase, the learner must decide who will be responsible for planning the learning project. Again, there are several options. He may handle his own planning, or he may turn over the responsibility to a group or a formal instructor. At other times the learner may be guided by a set of materials. Under any of the above conditions a clear distinction is made between planning for the method versus the content of instruction. The planner may facilitate the learning activities, but not the subject matter. In other words, the planner is primarily responsible for the day-to-day decisions regarding how the learning activities are arranged. Selecting the right planner and establishing a collaborative interaction between the learner and planner are critical variables for this phase.

The final phase finds the learner engaged in the episodes designed during phase two. Emphasis is placed on the

variety of resources, their availability and how they are utilized. Staff developers must be flexible when it comes to expanding instructional formats and selecting a variety of materials. Books and audio-visual material are only a few of many resources available to the learner.

The implications of Tough's research on inservice and staff development are numerous. First, the variety of learning activities beyond classes and workshops is expanded. Second, facilitating relevant learning rather than the mere transfer of content from instructor to student becomes the focus. Third, a critical self-examination of the present methods currently used in inservice and staff development activities is encouraged. Fourth, the professional adult educator is forced to look at the participants as highly competent learners. Tough's studies indicate that professionally guided learning, such as from instructors and staff developers, makes up only 20% of the total amount of the teachers' learning efforts. Nearly 80% of their learning efforts are self-planned and noncredit. This fact alone should encourage staff developers to shift their perceptions of practitioners in the public school. By focusing on what and how adults learn, it will be possible to make more appropriate matches between the learners' needs and learning activities.

Student-Centered Learning

Drawing upon extensive experience as a therapist, Rogers (1969) developed a student-centered approach to learning. He differentiates between student-centered learning and traditional learning along several dimensions. According to Rogers, conventional education consists largely of uniform assignments, lectures, grades and standardized tests. The subject matter is usually selected by the teacher, as are teaching methods and interpretations of subject matter. The learner is expected to acquire a set

of skills and a body of knowledge valued by the teacher. Learner attitudes and feelings are ignored. In contrast, student-centered learning draws attention toward the learner and learning process rather than the teacher and teaching methodology. It encourages the student to be involved, self-reliant, self-initiating and critical. The learning climate supports a mutual give-and-take between learner and teacher. Both parties are interacting and learning from one another.

Rogers describes 10 assumptions of the student-centered learning approach worthy of examination by staff developers. They are:

1. Human beings have a natural potential for learning.

2. Significant learning takes place when the subject matter is perceived by the student as having relevance for his own purposes.

3. Learning involves a change in self-organization, in the perception of oneself; learning is threatening and tends to be resisted.

4. Those learnings which are threatening to the self are more easily perceived and assimilated when external threats are at a minimum.

5. When threat to the self is low, experience can be perceived in differentiated fashion and learning can proceed.

6. Much significant learning is acquired through doing.

7. Learning is facilitated when the student participates responsibly in the learning process.

8. Self-initiated learning which involves the whole person of the learner - feelings as well as intellect - is the most lasting and pervasive.

9. Independence, creativity and self-reliance are all facilitated when self-criticism and self-evaluation are basic and evaluation by others is of secondary importance.

10. The most socially useful learning in the modern world is the learning of the process of learning, a continuing openness to experience and incorporation into oneself of the process of change.

Generally speaking, Rogers's assumptions echo those found in other adult learning theories. A significant difference, however, is the amount of attention Rogers devotes to the learning climate and the teacher-learner relationship. Rogers emphasizes the sharing and caring aspects. The student-centered learning approach emphasizes and recommends a particular set of facilitating qualities for the teacher, and stresses the importance of reducing external threats within the learning experience. The facilitator should: set the initial mood or climate of the learning experience, elicit and clarify the individual needs and goals, organize and provide a wide range of resources, be flexible, respond to both the intellectual and emotional aspects of the learner, become participant-learner, share his or her own feelings with the group, remain alert to strong feelings and recognize his or her own limitations. If the facilitator is successful, a supportive and nonthreatening climate should be automatic. Since learning is resisted when the situation is stressful, it is essential that external threats be kept at a minimum.

All of the above theories are reminiscent of the work by John Dewey. Dewey (1916) said that learning is something that students do for themselves. It is learning by doing, not by hearing and repeating. Likewise, the

responsibility of the instructor is to guide and direct the educational process. He or she provides a setting conducive to exploratory learning. In so doing, the instructor also becomes a learner, for the relationship between instructor and participants is reciprocal. Both plan and learn from each other.

Adult Development

The term staff development has recently entered the teaching jargon, often as a substitute for the more common term inservice. The shift to development, from the previously prevailing method of competency-based training, is not surprising. It is a deliberate attempt to indicate a change in thinking about professional learning and improvement. An extensive body of literature has focused upon how adult development can be promoted by staff development programs.

Nemser and Floden (1980) and Oja (1980) have recently reviewed the literature on adult and teacher development and have attempted to apply this body of knowledge to teacher training activities. This rather extensive body of literature has been organized along several dimensions, but generally assumes that there are definite developmental stages as an adult, and more specifically as a teacher, that influence how a person learns. Furthermore, it is important to match the appropriate learning situation to the particular developmental stage each teacher is experiencing. There is a clear relationship between development theories and progressive educational ideas. The Teacher Centers concept is a clear example of the developmental approach to teacher training.

Oja (1980) describes three major approaches to adult development. The author reviews various task and life cycle theories of development (Hunt, 1974; Kohlberg,

1973; Loevinger, 1976; Piaget, 1972) which examine ways in which adults confront development. These theorists believe that development results from changes in the organization of a person's thinking, which allow him or her to look at a situation in a new manner. It would follow that individuals at the higher developmental stages would be more likely to deal with a greater diversity of complex issues, allow for flexibility and show empathy in the learning situation. Thus, staff development programs should attempt to foster higher levels of adult development.

Many of the strategies associated with a developmental approach to teacher training are worthwhile, and should be incorporated into staff development programs. However, these strategies are not necessarily unique to the developmental approaches; rather, they reflect the same concerns as the previously outlined theories. Reflection, focus on relevant problems and needs, support, guidance and encouragement of mutual respect and support are some of the most obvious.

The Role of Adult Learning Theory In Inservice and Staff Development Program Design

The theories of adult learning described above may be applied to all types of staff development/inservice training. Nadler (1970) has defined two categories of staff development: training and education. Training is viewed as "those activities which are designed to improve performance on the job the employee is presently doing or is being hired to do .... The purpose of training is to either introduce a new behavior or modify the existing

behaviors so that a particular and specified kind of behavior results" (pp. 40-41). Employee education is defined as "activities which are designed to improve the overall competence of the employee in a specified direction and beyond the job now held" (p. 60). Glaser (1962) distinguishes between education and training in two basic ways. Training is centered around specific objectives while education tends to lean toward broader objectives; training seeks competency while education seeks to release potential. This kind of distinction suggests that different theories of learning may be appropriate for different kinds of learning. Therefore, one must first examine the objectives of staff development before selecting a particular theoretical framework. Theories attempt to organize existing knowledge provide guides toward new knowledge, and furnish principles for application -- but they should not be viewed as panaceas to the problems of inservice training. The responsibility will rest on the shoulders of the staff developer, regardless of the theory he or she advocates and ultimately applies.

Generic Principles Derived From Learning Theory

The recognition that there is such a thing as a learning process has led educators and psychologists to explore the conditions under which learning seems best to occur. Numerous lists of conditions for learning exist. They vary depending upon the learning theory to which the author subscribes. However, there is a remarkable acceptance of some general conditions or principles that are outgrowths of theories and which should exist for effective learning. The following conditions or principles provide a framework for a staff developer.

1. Participation. The learner learns by doing. In use, this principle directs the staff developer to arrange the conditions of learning in a way that will enable

the learner to make the correct responses early in the learning situation. The first impressions are often the most lasting. Therefore, it is important to ensure that the learner does not mistakenly learn the wrong responses.

2. Reinforcement. Learning proceeds most effectively when the learner's correct responses are immediately reinforced. This reinforcement principle directs the staff developer to arrange the conditions of learning so as to provide the learner with immediate feedback each time he or she responds. The feedback should always be informative and rewarding where possible.

3. Practice. Practice in a variety of settings will increase the range of situations in which the learning can be applied. Furthermore, such varied practice will make the learner more resistant to forgetting. Systematic research has shown that knowledge is generalized to a greater extent if it has been learned and used in a variety of situations. Materials or skills learned in one situation are often limited to that situation, but learning that has been associated with many situations is more easily transferred from one situation to another.

4. Relevance. Meaningful learning, that is, learning with understanding, is more permanent and transferable than rote learning or learning by some memorized formula. This principle suggests that the learner should be encouraged or helped to find summarizing or governing principles to enable him or her to organize what he or she is learning. In cognitive terms we can say that material that is understood is better retained and is more available for use than material learned without understanding.

5. Perception. The learner's perception of what he or she is learning determines how well and how quickly he or she will learn. The way in which material is

displayed can be a critical factor in determining the course of learning. The staff developer should present the critical elements in such a way that the learner is able to discriminate the critical elements in the situation and associate these elements with appropriate responses. There are many ways to attract the learner's attention to important stimuli. The problem is usually not one of finding a way; the problem is usually one of recognizing that the important stimuli must be perceived correctly if learning is to proceed.

6. Self-Pacing. People learn more effectively when they learn at their own pace. Self-pacing is effective because it enables different individuals to respond at a tempo that allows them to assimilate information. Individuals differ in the way they perceive and the amount they perceive at one time. Some can take in a wide range of stimuli at once, while for others the range is narrow. Some people make responses rapidly, others slowly; some form associations quickly, others slowly. Properly administered, self-pacing provides the opportunity for all learners to acquire the information if there is enough time to do so.

Conclusion

In theory at least, the sine qua non of adult learning in the field of staff development is the contribution it can make towards increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of the workforce. The current emphasis on inservice training supports the philosophy that the staff of an organization or institution is its single greatest resource.

Those responsible for designing and/or conducting inservice training programs must consider the theories, principles and processes of adult learning if those programs are to prove beneficial. The staff developer must be able to develop the skills and behaviors which will achieve the organizational or institutional goals. In addition, the staff developer should be able to judge which behaviors, styles, or combinations of both are appropriate to specific situations as well as maintaining human relationships in the process.

These newly developed skills and abilities may also add lucidity to the argument over what constitutes effective training of adults. Traditional approaches to inservice training were based on instructor-centered assumptions. As research into the field of adult learning progressed, new approaches to training shifted to learner-centered assumptions. Staff developers who based their approach on traditional assumptions found the newer ideas difficult to accept. They continued task-oriented, instructor-centered training, regardless of what the situation indicated. Conversely, those who accepted the learner-centered assumptions based their training programs around the learner.

Each training situation is different; it may be relationship oriented, task oriented, or a combination of both. The best approach to a training situation will be determined by the group, the situation and the organizational or institutional resources and constraints. It is less important to adhere to specific theories than to be able to judge the specific requirements of a given training situation. However, this judgment cannot be arrived at unilaterally by the staff developer. Input is needed from participants on the goals they want to achieve and how to go about achieving them. From this information, an appropriate training program can be developed. The staff developer must be cognizant of the learners' perception of their needs, be flexible to varying situations and be knowledgeable of the appropriate principles, methods and

techniques that will lead to optimal learning, the ultimate goal of inservice and staff development programs.

One of the tenets of organizational development states that an organization is only as good as the people who operate it. This is the premise underlying the development of inservice training programs where personal and professional growth needs are assessed and activities promoting this growth are provided, contributing to the long term stability of the organization or institution and ultimately, to the services they offer clients.

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Systematically Planning for Effective Inservice Training or Staff Development

Corrine A. McGuigan

> The basic problem, distilled to its essence, is that the traditional devices of continuing professional education -- the workshop, the one-session inspirational meeting, the district committees -- have, in the main, had negligible effect on the teaching body politic.
>
> Rubin, 1978

Over eight years ago Wagstaff and McCullough described a series of inservice programs in this way: "They are disadvantaged, poverty-stricken, neglected, and have little effect" (1973, p. 374). Since the Wagstaff and McCullough studies, researchers attentive to the needs and interests of educators have continued to focus on the nature and quality of professional development activities. In a few specific areas, such as curriculum development, knowledge of legal mandates, and coordination of training efforts between inservice and preservice programs, progress has been substantial. The overall conclusions of those researching the effects of inservice (or professional

development) programs, however, remain disheartening. Recent findings continue to disclose teacher dissatisfaction with training practices. Since 1976, failures have been documented in planning, organization, nature of activities, objectives, and follow-up (Arnsworth, 1975; Joyce & Peck, 1977; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Zigarmi, Betz, & Jensen, 1977). That such findings exist is, unfortunately, of little real surprise. That such dissatisfaction with training endeavors continues, however, is of growing concern to those who must prepare programs for ongoing professional development, as well as to those who must participate in them.

Recognition of the inadequacy of the inservice status quo leaves those responsible for training three options: 1) to do nothing and therefore continue what might admittedly be pseudo-training events (Arnsworth, 1975; Joyce & Peck, 1977; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Zigarmi, Betz, & Jensen, 1977); 2) to discontinue inservice or staff development activities altogether; or 3) to recommend changes which will successfully result in initiating and sustaining desired change.

The first option (i.e., the continuation of the status quo) seems an unreasonable alternative for the majority of professionals currently responsible for training. Dissatisfaction with inservice and staff development activities is so widespread and well documented that continuation of ineffective training procedures would be a violation of much of what is known about good pedagogy. It is important, therefore, to assess accurately the state of training in any given locale. If training efforts are found to be inadequate, then the nature and extent of the inadequacy must be identified. Only when such assessment results in satisfaction with efforts is the "no change" option appropriate.

Both continuous and rapid developments in education render the second alternative (discontinuation of training efforts) nearly impossible. Because education is not a

stagnant profession, educators must be responsible for updating their knowledge of new or revised requirements and practices at district, state, and federal levels. Even the best teachers are not exempt from ensuring that the guidance they give parents, students, or other faculty members is the most accurate and the most recent. While preservice programs can attempt to provide future educators with an appropriate base for delivering effective instruction, these institutions have no channel for continually updating their graduates. Consequently, professionals rely on inservice programs to provide them with the type and amount of information they need to do their jobs well.

The third option (altering existing practices to result in desired outcomes) may necessitate not only improving current training efforts, but, in some cases, radically revamping training efforts as a whole. It may mean not only the selection of new, more interesting strategies or topics, but the creation of new models for new orientations towards training. It does mean creating effective programs which are rigorous and vital.

The purpose of this paper is to assist those who must attempt the effective alteration of the inservice/staff-development status quo. It presents planning issues specifically designed to assist project directors, managers, and staff identify training goals and subsequent obligations. The proposed strategies and planning steps should enable planners to achieve desired training goals effectively and efficiently.

Planning Issues

Collins (1978) identified six issues which form a core of considerations for inservice or staff development

activities. Of the issues, few are new; none is truly innovative or especially imaginative. What makes them important and of value here is the knowledge gained from reexamination of each issue and the systematic critique of issues as interrelated events. The issues Collins enumerates are: 1) the definition of inservice training; 2) the identification of the governing manager or decision-making authority; 3) the identification of basic organizational components (specifically, when, who, and how); 4) the identification of criteria for successful implementation of events and the specification of methods for determining if or when criteria have been met; 5) the assessment of the need for the development of multicultural aspects to the inservice program; and 6) the specification of budget.

Defining Inservice Training

Rubin (1978) defines an inservice or staff development activity as "any activity that gives promise of improving teacher performance" (p. ix). Other more specific definitions include criteria such as: postemployment, degree- and/or non-degree-oriented study, certification-oriented activities, curriculum development activities, personal development of the professional, self-directed study, activities essential to the maintenance of the individual's position, and activities that improve the effectiveness of practicing educational personnel (Frymier, 1972; Geffert, 1976; Slagle, 1975). Still others arrive at definitions by focusing on concepts such as remediation, developing the competence required to deal with a specific problem, helping the individual learn what is needed to attain his or her own professional goals, or furnishing the stimulation and learning opportunities that counteract boredom and lowered professional performance (Tyler, 1978). The immediate advantage of the Rubin definition is that it potentially includes all of the others. Its disadvantage is that it may fail to

stimulate a training designer to attend to the specifics of what he or she wants to achieve. After all, not every training program will be all things to all participants. To overcome any ambiguity regarding the purpose of training, therefore, the specification of a definition becomes the first step in setting goals and realistic expectations.

The most important element of an inservice definition ought to be the tone it sets. Tone reflects an attitude, and an attitude in turn reflects a commitment or lack of commitment to training events. For example, teachers and staff traditionally have come to think of training events as corrective procedures for overcoming professional weakness. While remediation may still be a part of contemporary definitions, it is certainly no longer considered to be the heart. Current definitions reflect a promise of professional development for individuals as well as group remediation or group updating on regulations, for example. Individual benefits of inservice training may extend the educator in many of his or her roles as counselor advocate as well as classroom teacher. The tone of the definition for inservice, therefore, should reflect a commitment to the development of the educator as a person and not only the development of the educator as teacher. When definitions emerge which reflect this dignified philosophical orientation towards ongoing training, then the training events will be received by participants in an equally dignified manner. Perhaps this will only fail to be true if improved performance tends to be unrecognized and unrewarded.

Identifying the Governing Authority

The successful identification of a governing authority is a three-step process involving the specification of: 1) those who have formal authority (or power), 2) those with

informal authority, and 3) how decisions are to be made, and by whom.

Step One: Identifying the person (or persons) with assigned, not assumed, authority. Persons given the authority to make decisions pertaining to training are said to have "formal power." Direct acknowledgment of this authority is critical to long- and short-term training success for a number of logical reasons. First, those vested with authority have access to information which may greatly influence the nature of even a single training event. For example, knowledge of how district training plans mesh with the more comprehensive state training plan may determine which training needs have priority. Knowledge of fiscal resources may determine when a training event takes place and where and how many consultants, if any, can be engaged to assist in activities. Second, those vested with authority have been given such responsibility to ensure that information is passed on, and plans are made, in an orderly fashion. Intentional or unintentional disregard for the channels and processes established by the system inevitably leads to the early dismissal of often sound ideas.

Step Two: Identifying those having informal power or authority. Persons who are said to have informal power are those who have been given responsibility of representing grass root sentiment by their peers. Persons with informal power have a high level of credibility as well as a mature rapport with colleagues. Because of this, they can open channels to teachers, influence attitudes, and support or not support change very effectively. So just as time must be taken to identify and work with persons of assigned authority, time must also be taken to know those who have informal power.

Since model project staff work in complex and sensitive political milieus (e.g., university settings, clinical settings with cross-disciplinary activity, state departments of education with multiple training divisions), formal and informal associations are keys to success. Appropriate

attention to persons and agencies responsible for training has dramatic effects on the extent and success of training efforts.

Step Three: Identifying decision-making processes. The third step is the specification of a decision-making process. It must be decided, for example, whether decisions related to the training activities will be made unilaterally or collectively, whether decision-making authority will vary according to project component or specific training activity, or whether the same person will be responsible for all aspects of the inservice or staff development event (e.g., needs assessment, monitoring activities, curriculum). Obviously, inservice or staff development programs can be designed without addressing any of these issues. In the past, training events were planned in districts without any notion of the state training plan or of the association between district training efforts and the efforts of another local institution of higher education. Then again, maybe that is why training events have been so unsatisfactory for so long.

Identifying Organizational Components

Identification of topics, selection of speakers, participants, and so on, is what many have considered to be planning for training. Unfortunately, these items have been viewed for too long as activities to be completed and not as issues to be considered. This oversight has resulted in some curious incongruities in the training of adults. First, despite what educational trainers know about good pedagogical procedures, adult training almost always tends to be group- rather than individual-focused. Second, training strategies employed with adult learners often assume that the adult learner is capable of bridging gaps from initial acquisition of a new skill to development of proficient behavior on the skill, to transfer of the skill

to other settings. Third, adult behavior change is rarely noted and subsequently reinforced, in terms of specific, adult behavior change. Rather, adults are credited with success when student behavior changes (and then only if the student change is statistically significant!). Fourth, while many participants may have contributed to the identification and selection of training topics, few are consulted regarding the manner of a presentation of the selection of a specific professional to monitor, facilitate, or direct a training event. A fifth point pertaining to the organizational components of training is the selection of the training method. Few professionals are asked to recommend options for how the training need might best be met. Perhaps this is because only a few trainers are really receptive to options other than two-day workshops or district inservice days. Perhaps, though, it is simply due to the fact that we dare not to be as creative as we could be.

The above points are not foreign to most training programs. They depict the extent of pedagogical violations of inservice programs and call attention to the need to be sensitive to good teaching methodology, regardless of the age of the learner. To avoid inadvertently violating good teaching methodology, the open and creative discussion of the organizational components of training is necessary. These include: 1) the specification of incentives for participating in inservice programs; 2) the specification of program objectives; 3) the specification of delivery modes; 4) the specification of times for training (considering the advantages and disadvantages of afterschool, weekend, evening or summer programs); 5) the specification of personnel to develop, direct, and present the inservice or training experience; and 6) the specification of participant requirements and specific achievement goals or criteria. Each element is worthy of extensive consideration because each may form the foundation for successfully altering the inadequate status quo.

Evaluation of Methods and Outcomes

No doubt it would be helpful at this point to list a few specific procedures for determining what and how to evaluate in regard to training programs. Unfortunately, training events differ so greatly that to suggest any simple approach or to simplify the process would be grossly misleading. Evaluation is a complex phenomenon. It is often burdened with multiple questions, and therefore demands multiple answers. To assist the reader in dealing with specific evaluation needs, therefore, discussion of evaluation methods is offered here in two sections: 1) what to evaluate and 2) how to evaluate.

What to Evaluate. The most direct procedure for identifying what ought to be evaluated is to refer to the needs assessment or goal statement(s). Either of these provides the evaluator with the basic information necessary for determining what ought to be evaluated. From such statements the evaluator can proceed to determine: 1) the specific, observable behaviors to be acquired or mastered as the result of training, 2) who is to exhibit behavior change, and 3) how much change is required for success.

It may be that a goal statement will read: The trainer will update first- and second-year teachers regarding the principles of behavior. The evaluator accepts this statement and begins the process of redefining it in specific, observable behaviors. The evaluator must seek out through interviews, conferences, or letters the exact intent of the word "update." He or she may find that update refers to actually providing the teachers with more practical suggestions for managing behaviors. The evaluator could translate this intent behaviorally, to read: The trainer will provide the first- and second-year teachers with 15 practical suggestions for applying the principles of behavior in classrooms. On the other hand, the evaluator may have discovered that "update" actually referred to providing more technical information to a group of teachers who requested such. Obviously, the

type of training would be vastly different, based on the interpretation given to the word update.

The evaluator must also decipher the correct interpretation of "the principles of behavior" if he or she is to evaluate the correct behavior(s). Again, through a process of interviews, conferences, or letters, the evaluator should determine if the real intention of the goal statement is to provide some sort of information regarding all the principles of behavior or just some of them (e.g., principles of reinforcement). Careful analysis of each component of the goal statement provides the basic information for determining what precisely is the most important focus of training, and consequently, precisely what ought to be monitored and evaluated. After all the behaviors of a statement have been analyzed and stated in behavioral or near-behavioral terms, a subsequent step is to clarify who it is that is to exhibit the desired behaviors.

In the example used previously, it is obvious that it is the first- and second-year teachers who are to update their knowledge of skills regarding the principles of behavior. If it is truly these people of whom change is desired, then the evaluator must focus attention on changes in their specific behaviors, and not on changes in the behaviors of the trainer, the children in their classrooms, or others. This last statement cannot be strong enough. It is far too easy for an evaluator of an inservice training program to be content with evaluating the process of the training (how well the trainers spoke, how organized they were, etc.), or secondary effects of training (student achievement score gains). Evaluation must be directly related to desired goals, and therefore, to the desired behaviors to be introduced, developed, or changed.

Lastly, after specific, observable behaviors have been identified for a specific population, the remaining step is to set a specific criterion for success. The evaluator must seek out through available channels (the principal of the building, curriculum supervisors, or the teachers

themselves) an acceptable statement of training success. The principal may simply recommend an increase in positive statements in each of the teacher's classrooms. The teachers may suggest that reduction of disruptive behaviors in their classrooms be the appropriate indication of successful training. The final resolution may well be a combination of both. In any case, specification of measurable criteria is critical.

How to Evaluate. In determining exactly how to evaluate, the evaluator must ask a series of questions. From most important to least important, these include, but are not restricted to: 1) what measure will reflect success or lack of success; 2) should data collected be objective, subjective, or a combination; 3) should data be collected on one occasion (i.e., posttest only), two occasions (i.e., pretest, posttest), or on multiple occasions; and 4) what form should data take (self-report, peer report, or third party)? To answer these questions effectively and efficiently, the evaluator needs to know the available options and the advantages and disadvantages of each. The purpose of the discussion here, therefore, is simply to present some of the options frequently considered and to comment briefly on the appropriateness or inappropriateness of a few of them.

The first and most important question an evaluator must ask is, again, What measure (quality, event, etc.) will reflect the successful achievement of the training goal? Asking this question makes the identification of a specific behavior goal and evaluation criteria (as presented in the preceeding discussion) immediately important. Identification of the behavior and the goal leads directly into the selection of an appropriate evaluation measure. Assuming the evaluator thoroughly understands the goal statement and desired behavior outcomes, he or she knows what behavior to measure and how to measure it. Because the example used pinpoints reduction of disruptive behaviors as the desired outcome, it is necessary for the evaluator to define and determine the extent of present disruption through a pretest or baseline

data, and to reassess disruptive behaviors following the training session (posttest or intervention phase data). When an evaluator has given adequate attention to identifying the behaviors to be changed, the selection of the most appropriate system is almost automatic.

The second question is, Should data collected be of an objective or subjective nature? Using the example again, the evaluator has several options: 1) ask the teachers to rate the amount of disruptive behaviors on a 1-10 scale; 2) ask them to mark a three-point scale including such descriptors as terrible, tolerable, or no problem; 3) ask the principal to provide a subjective evaluation of the level of disruptive behaviors; 4) ask a third-party teacher to count the number of identified, disruptive behaviors on one or more occasions in each classroom; or 5) do any combination of the above. In selecting the type of data to be collected, the most critical question is: Which data option is most sensitive to and an accurate indication of the state-of-affairs? Subjective data may be easier and more efficient to collect because no counting is required, but it certainly may be influenced by the moods of the person making the response. The collection of objective data in the example used would provide the teachers and the administration with a firm statement of how things are now (which may be better or worse than their subjective opinions) and how much things changed following the training program.

The third question to be asked is, How often should the data be collected? One might answer, As often as possible, and that well may be the closest approximation to a correct answer. Certainly the more data that can be collected before as well as after the training event, the better. Data collected only on one occasion may well reflect an exceptionally bad day or an exceptionally good day. Data collected over several days, or on several occasions, allow for the most accurate picture of what occurs most of the time. Considerations for the amount of data to be collected, of course, rest on the use of the data for decision making, research purposes, and so forth.

Practical considerations include the time and personnel available for data collection.

The fourth and last question may seem somewhat redundant: What form should data take? Should data be self-report, peer report, or obtained by a third or unbiased party? Determining who provides or collects data will often rest on the type and frequency of data to be collected. But awareness of the option is necessary since the validity and reliability of the report is so greatly affected. In the list of options just cited, the credibility of the data may move from weak to strong, depending on whether the data collection was based on count, opinion, or observation. On the other hand, the list of options may also be understood as progressing from least threatening to most threatening, depending this time on the attitude of the teachers participating and the particular skill to be developed.

Both credibility (believability and accuracy) of data and effect of data on teachers are important considerations for those designing and implementing evaluation systems. Determining the most meaningful option must be based on open discussion between those who are evaluated and those who evaluate concerning the benefits and limitations of each evaluation option.

Assessment of the Need for Multicultural Events

Crisis and conflict resolution techniques, methods for enhancing social consciousness, strategies for reducing racism, sexism and other forms of prejudice, and values clarification are examples of multicultural events, which permeate at some level each and every training event. While it is not within the scope of this paper to elaborate on each of these issues, it is important to iterate that each factor may play a critical role in the success or lack of success of a training event.

There is virtually no well-documented research to indicate to what extent multicultural events affect the outcome of training endeavors. It is known, however, that educators do not operate in a void; they are often motivated to do or not to do something by factors other than ability or knowledge. For reasons which sometimes may not be immediately obvious, it is wise to examine events which may influence the success of an endeavor -- events which may not relate directly to content or skill acquisition.

Practically speaking, it may be necessary to secure the services of a consultant who may not be a content expert in the area of education. Many times a person trained in recognizing multicultural variables, who can help others acknowledge personal prejudices, may be the intervention which is of most immediate need, and which will successfully result in desired changes at a later date.

In systematically planning for inservice or staff development, it is healthy to remember that very little training in the past has ever attended to such highly sensitive issues as personal values and cultural background. This fact ought to be a poignant reminder that the need for change in training programs may encompass more than a change in presentation style or reinforcement strategies. The roots of nonchange may be much deeper than lack of specific expertise. Those desiring a radical improvement in the quality of training programs may well need to examine multicultural variables at the onset of their change programs.

Specification of Budget

It would be irrational to design professional development programs without concern for budgetary restraints. Conversely, to arrange events or build designs with budget as the only concern would be equally fallacious. The

responsibility of those planning training events is to seek the best with the financial resources available. This means that trainers must know what services and materials cost as well as where and how to secure financial backing.

The financing of inservice programs has been, is, and will be a source of debate. There is no definitive answer as to whether professional development opportunities should be supported in part or totally by such agencies as the U. S. Department of Education. Until there is an answer, training must be continued through the small amounts of monies made available through training grants or the contributions of participants. The real agony of the current situation is that educators are forced into a position of doing far less than is needed or desirable in the way of training simply because of financial restraints.

A number of articles have been written for those who must deal with budgetary restraints. Perhaps the most comprehensive collection of alternate funding sources is suggested in an article entitled, "The Educational Developer as Change Agent," by Smith, Arkell, and Allen (1979). This document lists 20 various supports for professional development, especially in the area of training others in model educational practices.

Regardless of the difficulties and frustrations in securing an appropriate level of funding, one truth remains: the cost of training events (which ought to include preparation and follow-up activities) ought to be commensurate with desired outcomes. A budget sufficient for raising awareness through an afternoon workshop will never be effectively stretched to achieve higher-level goals, such as adoption of practices or institutionalization of a program. Those who attempt such a task are almost always disappointed. In their disappointment, they drag down with them a host of educators who are also disappointed, not disillusioned, in another fatal inservice attempt. Given this recurring phenomenon, it might well be better to start doing a very

good job in a very small way, rather than setting unrealistic goals and failing.

Planning Guidelines

Of the aforementioned considerations, none may be seen in hierarchical position but one: the identification of the governing authority. The other considerations reside in this authority, especially if it is monocratic. It is little wonder that the identification of this person or these persons is so essential to the effective planning of training events. Once the governing authority has been identified, and his, her or their wishes, desires, and expectations have been made known, it is possible to begin the careful consideration and integration of the other considerations.

Table 1 is designed to assist planners in the review of critical considerations as they begin planning for effective inservice or staff development programs. As a summary table, it calls attention to the considerations discussed at length within this chapter. It may also prove helpful in developing an understanding of the relationship among various considerations if one focuses attention on a specific consideration and asks, How is this consideration affected by every other consideration?

Reflection of each of the considerations, individually or collectively, will not guarantee a successful training program. On the other hand, it may prevent failure, or at least reduce many of the complaints currently aimed at training programs.

TABLE 1

CONSIDERATIONS FOR INSERVICE AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM PLANNERS

	Yes		No
Have I:	**Started**	**Completed**	
1. Resolved an acceptable definition of training?			
2. Identified the person(s) with formal and informal authority who may help me achieve desired goals?			
3. Identified organizational components of the training program, including the the goal(s) of training, who will participate, who will present, and when and where?			
4. Described an evaluation procedure, including what is to be measured and how it is to be measured?			
5. Assessed whether I need to be concerned with multicultural events and needs as well as the most obvious training needs?			
6. Assessed the budget? Do I have sufficient funds to achieve my goal or am I attempting to spread resources too thin?			

Conclusion

It would probably be safe to assume that inservice or staff development activities followed some place close behind the first question of the first teacher, once formal education began. Certainly Crito or Euthyphro o other teachers of ancient Athens sought from Socrates the information they considered important to continue their own teaching, in their own ways. It would probably be equally safe to say that not everyone who went to Socrates, and who was confronted with his barrage of questions, found the training mode acceptable, or even tolerable. But still, training was sought, is sought today and will be sought in the future. Still, trainers train and will train. And still, people are and will be satisfied and dissatisfied with tr ining efforts.

The intent of this paper has been to present systematically those variables which have been documented to affect the outcome of training events, be they inservice programs or staff development efforts. For those who were previously unaware of the range of factors affecting training, the paper will have served its purpose if these issues are now issues to be considered in designing and implementing training progr ms. For those who ave trained for many years, the intent of the paper has been to refocus attention on variables which have been long taken for granted, and to renew their importance.

For either audience, one thing only need be iterated. Training activities, if they are to be successful, demand that adequate time be allocated to their planning, implementation and follow-up. If attitudes about training are to be changed from dissatisfaction to satisfaction, from disregard to acceptance, then it is imperative that trainers engage in the activities which are necessary to allow such change to happen. This means the one- or two-day workshop must, for some training needs, be put aside.

It means that traditional measures of success, such as the organization of the presentation, be discontinued. It means, in short, that time must be given to the needs of the moment; to specific changes in adult behaviors; and to goals which will result in awareness, application, or institutionalization of change. It means that time must be made available to support adequately those who have received training and those who have changed their behavior as a result.

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Staff Development: Becoming More Sensitive and Responsive to Cultural Issues

John Brown

Introduction

In spite of the increased emphasis on cultural sensitivity for educators, a continuing educational dilemma exists because of the low involvement of minority, culturally different, and poor families in programs designed for handicapped children. Simply stated, participation by members of these groups has been very low. The disturbing aspect of this situation is that the members of these groups are most likely to experience poverty and unemployment, to attain less formal education, and to be members of large families; thus, they often exhibit the greatest need for services provided by special education programs. The continuing hardships to which many of these children and families are subjected, coupled with their low participation in available programs, has caused the program staffs to question whether factors in these programs contributes to the low participation. Resulting from this introspection is renewed interest in examining the interaction among families, cultural values, beliefs, and the value system of educational programs.

This paper will examine how cultural values reflected in special education programs can influence the participation of minority and culturally different children and families In addition, it will discuss methods that educational institutions and programs can use to improve staff members' skills in working with culturally different groups. Theoretical, conceptual, and practical information will be integrated in an effort to bring the issues into sharper focus and to suggest alternative ways of dealing with them.

Cultural and Value Orientations Reflected in Educational Programs

Traditionally, educators have assumed an assimilationist position regarding the role of educational programs in the transmission of cultural values (Banks, 1977). The assimilationist believes that the best way to promote the goals of American society and to develop commitments to the ideals of American democracy is to promote the full socialization of all individuals and groups into the common civic culture. The assimilationist states that the primary goal of the school should be to socialize individuals into the common culture and to enable them to function more successfully within it (Banks, 1977). The assimilationist position is a derivation of the melting pot theory (Krug, 1976), which assumes that a single sociocultural system exists on a national scale. According to this theory, members of diverse groups are assimilated into the dominant culture; these groups then adopt the dominant culture's values and forget their own. As Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) point out, however, such assimilation has not occurred, and indeed, is not even planned for people of different colors.

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In the United States there exists an astounding array of sociocultural systems of which the child is a product. It is relatively common to read about the sociocultural systems of poor applachian whites, urban blacks, Chicanos, and Native Americans, to name only a few. Yet, educational programs are traditionally planned on the basis of a single uniform system of values, beliefs, and habits held by the dominant culture. Many concerned individuals (e.g., Sizemore, 1974; Epps, 1974; Baratz & Baratz, 1971) have challenged strategies and programs based on a uniform value system, suggesting that educational programs would be more effective if program planners adapted their programs to reflect the diversity of cultural values and styles in our society.

As one might expect, assimilationist programs based on the melting pot theory tend to be more effective when the value systems of children and their families approximate middle-class values, that is, those of the dominant culture. These programs, then, are little prepared to serve the segment of society which evidences the greatest need. Moreover, for children and/or families which have not been assimilated or which do not subscribe to the values of the dominant culture, the message is clearly negative -- they are not good enough. These children, by being placed in lower educational tracks, receive negative feedback from teachers and less positive teacher attention, especially in terms of academic subjects (Banks, 1977). This rejection places the children and their families in a dilemma. Either they 1) reject aspects of their culture and, hence, their identity, thereby facing the possibility of being rejected by members of their cultural group, 2) reject the program and its values, thus foregoing the services offered, or 3) attempt the difficult compromise of retaining their cultural values while obtaining services provided by the program. In the latter case, culturally different individuals are required to master at least two sociocultural systems -- their own and that of the dominant culture -- in order both to retain their ethnic identity and to be regarded as being worthy of the teacher's time and positive attention.

Middle-class individuals, on the other hand, are required to master only one cultural system. Consequently, those individuals often know little about culturally different people beyond popular stereotypes; furthermore, educational programs staffed primarily by white middle-class professionals are in the uncomfortable position of providing services for a population about which they know little. Children and families from other cultures bring customs and values that can enrich educators' understanding of children's motivations, interests, and behavior patterns.

Most of what is written about culturally different and minority groups only serves to reinforce these stereotypes by describing these groups from a deficit standpoint (Bryen, 1976). That is, these groups are generally described in terms of what they lack in contrast to the dominant culture. Thus, many professionals have only a negative perspective from which to attempt to relate to culturally different, poor, and minority individuals; this perspective and consequent actions certainly do not encourage participation in special programs by members of these groups. To further impede understanding, minority and poor individuals also have their own stereotypic perceptions and biases about institutions, programs, and educators. For instance, educators often must cope with conflict which results from their being perceived as representatives of oppression, and not from any particular actions they have taken. Conflicts of this nature are inevitable; however, the frequency of this type of conflict is likely to be much greater in school systems based on the assimilationist theory, because as Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) point out, total assimilation, in fact, does not occur. Fortunately, that theory is not the only one upon which educational programs can be based; a more useful theory for dealing with cultural differences is cultural pluralism.

Sizemore (1974) defines cultural pluralism as the condition of cultural parity among diverse groups in a common society. Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) further

indicate that cultural pluralism not only acknowledges but, indeed, stresses the differences between cutlurally different groups. While agreeing with the basic tenets of cultural pluralism, Valentine (1971) proposes biculturation as a means to adapt the concept of cultural pluralism to reality. Biculturation is the process through which individuals develop distinctive behavioral patterns based on their own cultural group norms, while simultaneously developing behavioral patterns based on the mainstream cultural system. Programs operating from a pluralistic point of view seek to prepare children to live in a pluralistic society and to be successful in their own cultural group. Banks (1977) speaks for a similar process and refers to it as the pluralist-assimilationist ideology. Banks feels that the extent of cultural pluralism in American society is exaggerated in light of the fact that extensive cultural, if not structural, assimilation has, in fact, taken place in American society. Banks feels that the major goal of education should be to help the individual function effectively in his or her own culture, the common culture, and other cultures. Theoretically, then, educational programs based on culutral pluralism should display a wide range of goals, objectives, and content areas which would be dependent on the cultural patterns of the groups they served. Although this perspective acknowledges the importance and value of cultural differences, it is not problem free.

One major problem is that the data base necessary to support systematic programming from a pluralistic perspective is limited. As Williams (1971) indicates, there has been little systematic research exploring characteristics of different cultural groups in terms of their unique strengths and characteristics. Much of the research has been conducted from a normative frame of reference and the norm has been based on values held by the dominant culture. Consequently, "the black man becomes a 'sick white man' who never quite measures up to the real white man, who in turn becomes the standard of measurement" (Simpkins, Williams, & Gunnings, 1975, p. 197). To replace research conducted from a normative

framework, a comprehensive, descriptive research approach is needed. Gay (1977) says that indicators of cultural differences, such as values, beliefs, behavioral patterns, language and communication styles, learning styles, patterns of cognitive processing, socialization processes, and customs need to be examined.

Gay (1977) also illustrates the differences in conclusions one might draw from observing different cultural groups and points out their educational implications. For example, the typical learning atmosphere among middle-class children is one which is rather formal and structured. At home parents guide and expand. In the classroom teachers structure the environment and typically maintain a certain degree of distance from their students. On the other hand, the learning atmosphere for most black children occurs in an informal-social setting where the "teacher" is often a member of the peer group. Gay also notes that schools have traditionally emphasized competition in work and cooperation in play. This may be counterproductive for other cultural groups. For example, in the black culture, peer pressure and acceptance is usually based upon athletic and social prowess rather than intellectual excellence. Whereas these findings may be accurate in the settings in which they were observed, they are not generalizable to all black children. What is important is the realization that children's learning patterns will be influenced by different value systems. The differences in communication and behavioral expectations among teachers and their culturally different students can create insurmountable problems if the teachers are not aware of the differences and if they are not trained in how to handle them effectively.

Another problem with the pluralistic perspective is that members of culturally different groups are treated as if they constitute a homogeneous entity. Simpkins, Williams, and Gunnings (1971) however, point to the tremendous diversity among those individuals labeled black or Afro-American; one can assume a similar level of

diversity among other cultural groups. The tendency to attribute the same cultural values, beliefs, and behaviors to all members of a group creates a situation in which the group may have the right to cultural freedom of choice but in which the individual members of that group may not. Consequently, if an individual does not subscribe to the values, beliefs, and behaviors emphasized for the culturally different group on which an educational program may be based, he or she may perceive the situation as restricting cultural freedom of choice. For example, some educators, in an attempt to respond to the cultural patterns of their students, decided to encourage black children to speak the black dialect in school; these educators also wanted to use the dialect as a basis for teaching the children to read. A number of parents, however, objected to this approach because they felt it would limit their children's opportunity to do well in school, to go to college, and to get good jobs. These parents clearly opted for behaviors more closely associated with middle-class values. Obviously the choice of the black dialect as the cultural norm upon which to base an educational program was, in fact, restrictive.

In some situations, however, cultural in-group pressure makes it psychologically costly for families to choose a new norm outside their cultural framework. For example, a family may become excited about new and different behaviors and skills their child is acquiring, but they may withdraw their support for such a program because of negative feedback from relatives or other friends. Inherent in these conflicts is the parental concern about severing ties from the cultural group, losing traditions and rejecting values. Ideally, the role of educational institutions when faced with these situations would be to encourage the skills and competencies needed both in school and in the local community, rather than to force the individual or family to reject one in favor of the other.

Adopting A Pluralistic Model: Necessary Changes

A pluralistic model which emphasizes preparing individuals to live in a pluralistic society is being advocated in this paper because pluralism shows the greatest potential for enabling programs to be more responsive to cultural differences. This responsiveness should help members of culturally different groups as well as those of the dominant culture. Several issues must be addressed in order for educational programs to operate on a pluralistic perspective.

The first issue involves the need to reexamine goals and objectives as they relate to and determine the content of educational programs in order to identify the cultural underpinnings and the value orientations reflected in them. Banks (1977) points out that many educational programs have operated from an assimilationist perspective. As such, these programs have regarded their role as facilitating the socialization of individuals into the common culture and viewed ethnic attachments as dysfunctional. Therefore, the goals, objectives, and content of educational programs have traditionally mirrored middle-class values. A pluralistic model requires that educational programs include goals, objectives, and content that reflect the value orientations of culturally different groups as well as those of the common culture.

A second issue is the need for teachers to become more aware of their own cultural and value orientations and how those orientations affect parents and students. Banks (1977) cites several studies which indicate that many teachers adopt, and reinforce in the classroom, the dominant societal attitudes and values toward culturally different groups. Banks suggests that teachers must acquire more democratic attitudes and values before

schools can practice racial and social class democracy; that is, teachers must be involved in educational programs based on a pluralistic model. It is quite possible, however, that members of different cultural groups might negatively interpret the teacher's attempts to adapt to cultural differences. In order to avoid these negative interpretations, teachers must be aware of the following areas of potential conflict: male-female roles and behaviors, discipline, performance, motivation, competition and cooperation, sexual behaviors, and religious views.

The problem is complex and not easily solved, but more knowledge and sensitivity about cultural values and biases seem to be steps in the right direction.

Strategies to Increase Sensitivity to Cultural Issues

Background Factors Influencing Cooperation

There are several characteristics of educational institutions that can influence cooperation between cultural groups. One is whether or not the institution has a tradition of being responsive to the various groups it serves and whether these groups in turn regard the institution favorably. Chilman (1973) points out that culturally different groups, like others, are more likely to participate in and support programs that are sponsored by institutions that traditionally have served them. Chilman adds that families are more likely to become involved actively with programs that are sponsored by locally

based institutions and with programs in which they can have some input. Apparently families assume that institutions with a tradition of serving members of their cultural group will hire educators who understand their needs and special problems; these families also assume that the staffs of locally based institutions, by virtue of their location, are more sensitive to the issues confronting them. Their assumptions may or may not be correct.

Regardless of the institution's background, educators can employ several strategies to improve their responsiveness to cultural differences. One of the most vital elements in program planning is the identification and clarification of participant needs. There are numerous methods for determining participant needs which can be applied when working with various cultural groups. Two of the most typical strategies are to 1) develop a checklist of interest areas, which the participant prioritizes, or 2) conduct an interview to explore possible high interest areas. This assessment would ultimately indicate the composite needs of the group and provide guidelines for appropriate educational programs.

A considerable body of empirical findings (see Banks and Peters, this volume) suggests that effective adult learning must be responsive to participant needs. Problems occur, however, when procedures for assessing needs are inadequate. Three problems come to mind, in regard to the process of conducting needs assessments and selecting appropriate instruments. First, an indepth assessment of participant needs is time consuming. It is time consuming because the assessment should ideally be conducted in a climate which is reasonably secure and supportive in order to allow the participant to self-diagnose. This is important both from a motivational and directional viewpoint because the assessment identifies a goal toward which both the professional and participant may work. It is during this process that a mutual understanding is accomplished and rapport is established.

Another problem, perhaps too obvious to dwell upon, is the lag between needs assessment and program implementation. The professional must attempt to make a timely response to the identified needs. All too often the activities planned in response to the need occur too long after the assessment. The participants have either met their needs in other ways, or have developed some new areas of concern. In order to avoid this, the professional can employ two simultaneous strategies. In the first instance, the professional and participant can select a relatively concrete concern which has a high likelihood of being successfully solved. If the participant experiences immediate success, there is a greater probability that a trustful relationship will be established, and more complex concerns can be dealt with in the future. At the same time, it is imperative that the professional and participant cooperatively continue to clarify the areas of concern, explore related problems, formulate possible goals, plan strategies, gather facts, and establish some structure to the relationship and long-range activities.

A further problem revolves around the actual instrument used to determine participant needs. Checklists of interest areas are frequently used by professionals as a means to identify needs; however, the topics on the checklist may be more reflective of the professional's perception of needs than the future participant. To avoid this hidden bias, some professionals encourage an open-ended approach. They simply request each participant to list their areas of concern and or interest. Although logical, this approach is difficult because self-diagnosis is not easy.

Part of the problem seems to be that it is difficult to know what the real needs are. Or it may be that most people are not comfortable with sharing the needs with someone they hardly know. Years of mistrust have influenced how participants of culturally-different and poor groups relate with professionals. The point is that it is difficult for anyone to be aware of and open about his

or her needs, but even more so when the relationship between professionals and participant is not based on trust and respect.

Very often professionals in special education may find themselves to be the cultural minority, since a significant proportion of the children receiving special education services belong to minority groups. Another strategy is for educators to consult individuals and other institutions that have been successful in working with different cultural groups. This communication would allow the staff to identify strategies which have been found effective in enhancing child and family participation. A variation of this approach is for educators to consult representative members of different cultural groups to sensitize school professionals to the special needs of these groups. Acquaintance with the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education will provide professional contact persons who may be able to serve in staff development efforts.

A third strategy is affirmative action, because the characteristics of faculty and staff influence the ability of educational institutions to be responsive to cultural differences. Klassen and Gollnick (1977) suggest that educational institutions should have a culturally diverse faculty and staff. The assumption behind affirmative action is that increasing minority representation in the various professions will increase sensitivity to cultural issues. Numerous reports, however, such as that of Milutinovich (1976), indicate that there is more cultural similarity (middle-class values) among professionals, regardless of ethnic or racial groups, than there is among professionals and nonprofessionals of the same ethnic or racial group. Banks (1977) also says that teachers, regardless of their own race or culture, tend to adopt the values and attitudes of the dominant society. Even if one accepts the affirmative action premise, the approach does not seem to hold great promise for the immediate future for several reasons. The availability of minority professionals is severely limited and will continue to be

until affirmative action recruitment and training are pursued (Pati & Fahey, 1973). Additionally, minority professionals often experience the same lack of sensitivity and commitment from educational institutions that is experienced by nonprofessional members of culturally different groups; they often feel that they were hired because of their cultural and/or ethnic uniqueness rather than for their professional expertise. Consequently, they feel there is little opportunity for professional and personal growth. Nonetheless, even if the previously mentioned situations did not exist, it would still be unrealistic to expect minority staff members to be the conscience of an educational institution or program. To be so might severely limit their contribution and influence on the total program and institution as well as restrict their opportunity for professional growth in areas aside from those connected with multicultural issues.

Using another strategy, educators have involved members of culturally different groups as paraprofessionals and/or volunteers. This approach has increased the number of culturally different staff persons and provided enriched opportunities for exchange between different cultural groups. This increase, in turn, results positively in an increased student involvement in learning activities, a reduction of student behavior problems, and an increase in parental involvement. It has been observed, however, that these paraprofessionals may have some difficulty accepting families and students with values different from their own. In these instances, it is essential that they also be sensitive to the various value systems operating at home and in the school. They must reflect the same degree of acceptance, tolerance and understanding as is expected of all profesisonals. If this is not the case, paraprofessionals may do more harm than good (Chilman, 1973). The difference in training between professional and paraprofessional staff is also a potential source of problems if roles, relationships, and functions are not clearly delineated. Possible problems include paraprofessionals assuming tasks that are beyond their capabilities and training, or being assigned meaningless

tasks, therefore contributing little. Cooperation and mutual planning toward commonly shared roles will decrease the likelihood of these problems.

Both classroom teachers (Banks, 1973) and administrators must become sensitive to cultural issues. For teachers, preservice and inservice programs are avenues which may lead toward this goal. This training must provide teachers with skills in cross-cultural communication, knowledge of the research data on pupil-teacher verbal classroom behaviors, and an understanding of stereotyping; it must also provide teachers with ways to correct their own and their students' cultural misconceptions, to be aware of specific cultural traits of different ethnic groups, and to understand how classroom situations might be affected by these traits. Various resources must be provided by administrators if teachers are to become involved in these training programs. Obviously, financial resources are a prime necessity if training programs are to be held at all; consultants must be paid and materials must be bought. Convenient time slots for these programs must be built into rather than added on to existing hectic schedules. Incentives and rewards for participation are also necessary considerations. Without these resources and administrative support and encouragement, teachers may not be willing to add another dimension to their learning experience.

Banks (1977) cautions administrators and teachers against expecting that attendance at one course about minority groups will prepare them to function effectively in a pluralistic educational setting, or that adding a course to existing curricula will address the issues concerning cultural pluralism in education. The task is more complicated; as Gay (1977) points out, preservice and inservice training for teachers should include three major components: knowledge, attitudes, and skills. A knowledge component consists of a body of information about various ethnic groups which can serve as the basis for attitude and behavior changes. Sociological and psychological research has revealed how important

socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds are as influences on children's learning. Recent research has also increased our awareness of the great variations within cultural groups. The knowledge component should help the teacher to understand and work with children from diverse ethnic groups without losing sight of the fact that, in the final analysis, they teach individuals and not ethnic groups.

The attitude component focuses upon the learning process. Gay stresses the providing of a warm, receptive climate in which teachers can examine their existing attitudes and feelings toward ethnic, racial, and cultural differences, and develop attitudes that are compatible with cultural pluralism.

A skills component involves providing teachers with 1) skills in human relations, 2) new instructional and curriculum development strategies, and 3) cross-cultural communication techniques. Teachers should be encouraged and trained to use other teacher's team teaching techniques, such as multiple audiovisual stimuli and should be discouraged from depending on exposition, dyadic interaction and verbal teaching as the only acceptable instructional styles. The emphasis in curriculum development is on making teachers aware of the resources that are available and on training teachers to translate the philosophy of pluralism and their knowledge of ethnicity into instructional plans.

The issues involved in preparing professionals to be more sensitive to cultural differences is complicated, but the process of training is comparative to other areas of inservice. Professionals need to be sensitized to their own biases and prejudices toward culturally different persons as well as toward handicapped children. Kurtz (1976) says that the immediate goal of inservice training should be to enhance job performance, while the long-range goal should be to enable the individual teacher and staff to evaluate and change their own performance with minimal consultation. Kurtz adds that the training must

be organized and conducted in a systematic fashion if it is to be effective. Gay (1977) suggests that teachers and professionals regard their training as a continuous process in which they utilize a number of resources, e.g., films, workshops, conferences, courses, journals and popular magazines. These tools can enable them to become more sensitive to cultural issues. The importance of attitudes cannot be stressed enough. In fact, the basic issue is one of changing attitudes. Kurtz (1976) cautions administrators about the problems inherent in assuming either the cheerleader or the shotgun approach to inservice training. In the cheerleader approach the administrator uses zeal and enthusiasm to inspire staff members to change; however, the administrator makes very few substantive efforts to facilitate the desired changes. The shotgun approach is one in which the administrator attempts to use a variety of techniques, e.g., films, consultants and workshops, to facilitate desired changes. The major problem with this approach is that the techniques and content are not systematically organized, and the lack of organization can lead to confusion, contradictions, frustration, and disillusionment.

Numerous activities and publications have been developed to help increase awareness of cultural differences (Brigham, 1971; Ford, 1975; Rich, 1974; Franklin & Sherwood, 1976; Lakin & Shiffman, 1966; Pasternak, 1979). Many of these publications can be incorporated into ongoing inservice programs without the need for outside consultants. There are also magazine publications, (e.g., El Grito, Grida, Warpath, Ebony, Black World, Commentary), which provide perspectives on different ethnic groups. There are also numerous media productions that can be used in a similar way. Teachers who utilize the suggested resources will be more effective in responding to cultural differences.

Conclusion

As educational institutions become more attuned to the significance of reflecting cultural diversity in the goals, objectives, and content of educational programs, an increase will be seen in the participation of culturally different groups. Change, however, will not be easy or fast, and the reality is that the ability of the various resources to change attitudes or behavior or to increase sensitivity to cultural issues is difficult to determine. Until there are more definitive data regarding the effectiveness of these strategies, it will be necessary to rely upon the available knowledge to increase the awareness of students' value systems, and to encourage teachers to incorporate that awareness into a framework to help their students.

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Facilitating Effective Team Decision Making

Steven I. Pfeiffer

As schools attempt to respond to the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PI 94-142) of 1975, they are faced with making various decisions in such areas as child asssessment and placement, and program planning and evaluation. There exists for schools the option of utilizing a multidisciplinary team approach in making decisions.

This paper will examine the activities undertaken by multidisciplinary teams, especially as they relate to PL 94-142. Thereafter, attention will be directed toward the eventual interface and cooperation between multidisciplinary teams and federal programs, such as Handicapped Children's Model Programs (HCMPs) and Special Need Programs (SNPs). The goals of multidisciplinary teams and HCMP and SNP programs are parallel: They are all working toward the most appropriate, least restrictive, educational environment possible for the handicapped child. Multidisciplinary teams represent the internal efforts of individual schools to meet the mandate of PL 94-142, whereas the HCMP and SNP programs are two major but external programs addressing the same concern. Through mutual

understanding and cooperation, it may be possible for multidisciplinary teams and HCMP and SNP programs to combine their efforts and create new inservice and staff development programs to help teachers acquire knowledge and skills which would facilitate improved service to all students.

Traditional Team Functions

The school-based multidisciplinary team is made up of a number of persons possessing differing orientations, training, and skills, who work together as part of the public school's special education program. In different states this team has been called the Assessment Team, Child Study Team, Evaluation and Placement Team, and School Appraisal Team. In all cases, the various titles reflect the team's current emphasis with diagnostic and placement activities for handicapped students. Typically, multidisciplinary teams have not been involved in the implementation and monitoring of student programs.

The various functions which multidisciplinary teams presently engage in can be clustered into four generic groupings. First, they are charged with the responsibility of assessing the suspected areas of disability of the referred students. Second, they determine student eligibility for special education programming. Third, they formulate Individualized Educational Plans, develop short-term instructional objectives and may even project long-term educational goals for those eligible for special education. Finally, multidisciplinary teams are required to review periodically the appropriateness of student placements. Typically, these revisions occur on a rather infrequent, informal basis.

An Expanded Role for the Team

Interest in school-based multidisciplinary teams has recently increased, primarily because PL 94-142 specifies that all evaluation and placement procedures must be made by a team. The apparent rationale for utilizing a team is the belief that a group decision will safeguard against individual errors in judgment, and ensure greater adherence to due process requirements. A recent set of studies indicated, in fact, that teams not only make more accurate special education placement decisions than individuals do, but also that teams produce less variability in the decisions that they recommend (Pfeiffer, 1980; Pfeiffer, in press,a). In addition to greater accuracy in evaluation, classification, and placement decisions, the multidisciplinary team has the potential for providing the following benefits: continuous consulting support, safeguard against the misuse of mainstreaming, program planning and evaluation, and a forum for the convergence of differing values.

Continuous Consulting Support. Students, teachers and parents who are involved with mainstreamed children all require support services. The multidisciplinary team has the expertise to provide different types of support, ranging from parent and group counseling sessions to training a teacher how to task analyze a particular activity. As school systems begin to implement a least restrictive classroom placement approach, more students, teachers, and parents will come to value the support and guidance that team specialists can provide during the implementation of a mainstreaming model.

Safeguard Against the Misuse of Mainstreaming. Etzioni (1973) correctly pointed out that school districts may view PL 94-142 as the "least expensive alternative" (p. 14). Administrators and other school personnel who have little knowledge of or direct experience in working with exceptional children may support reducing "surplus" financial expenditures by encouraging placement of mildly

handicapped students in regular education classrooms, without providing additional resources. The multidisciplinary team can protect against such errors by sensitizing school personnel to the particular social, emotional and educational needs of exceptional children, while simultaneously developing much needed support services (e.g., peer tutoring, big brother/sister arrangements, parent workshops).

Program Planning and Evaluation. Ideally, multidisciplinary teams have the expertise and resources which would allow them to assist in the planning and evaluation of programs. When the team has the resources and commitment to implement program evaluation, it is possible to provide the school district with: 1) an accurate picture of which programs are most effective for which type of students and situations, leading to more realistic match-ups of students and available special programs; 2) a responsive feedback system to monitor the validity and usefulness of the team's diagnostic statements and recommendations; and 3) information that could help secure district funds and/or grant money for innovative programs.

A Forum for Convergence of Differing Values. The multidisciplinary team is probably the most logical and perhaps the only viable, school-based arena for approaching the many issues confronting special education. Team members' differing values and perspectives provide a healthy forum for questioning the policies and practices of the school district's special education department (e.g., which criteria to include in the evaluation of a student's progress, how to weigh the relative influence of a disadvantaged home environment or minority group culture on a child's present cognitive functioning, how to involve successfully the parents in the assessment and remediation phases).

Problems Presently Plaguing Teams

Even though the multidisciplinary team has the potential to enhance services to the schools, many writers have criticized the team concept. For example, Hefferin and Katz (1971) suggested that teams generate ambiguous decisions; Wallace (1976) argued that the team concept raises concerns over territoriality; and Wing and Sansley (1971) feared that teams might increase role confusion. A burgeoning body of research indicates that school-based multidisciplinary teams suffer from numerous problems. Pfeiffer (1980) recently reviewed the many studies on the difficulties that teams face and identified four major problems: 1) an unsystematic approach to collecting and analyzing diagnostic information, 2) minimal involvement of parents and regular educators on teams, 3) use of a loosely constructed planning process, and 4) lack of interdisciplinary collaboration and trust among team members. These interrelated problems can be viewed as either contributing factors to, or artifacts of, ineffective team decision making. The remainder of this paper will deal with the ways in which special programs can interface with multidisciplinary teams by helping them solve these problems. Emphasis will be given to the following points: 1) what special program staff members need to know when working with multidisciplinary teams, 2) how to get multidisciplinary teams to recognize the benefits of adopting a program planning and evaluation model, and 3) specific techniques to guide teams through effective decision making.

Interface Between Multidisciplinary Teams and Federally Funded Programs

Much of what has been written in both the mental health and organizational development literature (see Wyant & Bell) on how external change agents should proceed in attempting to modify existing organizations will be helpful to HCMP and SNP projects. A reading of any of the more well-known theorists (e.g., Caplan, 1964; Schmuck, Runkel, Arends, & Arends, 1977) will detail clearly the organizational, ecological, interpersonal, and intrapsychic needs and issues which the external change agents need to be aware of if they are to be effective. This first section will be limited to a discussion of what HCMP and SNP staff members specifically need to be cognizant of in attempting to assist school-based multidisciplinary teams to adopt and/or adapt HCMP and/or SNP program components. The ultimate goal is to help multidisciplinary teams become more effective problem solvers who can satisfactorily design, review, and monitor creative and beneficial programs. Furthermore, the strengthened functional ties between multidisciplinary teams and HCMP or SNP staff will provide an opportunity to replicate the newly developed model program components. Thus, not only does the multidisciplinary team benefit from the information, assistance, and perspective provided from this enterprise, but the possibility for replication of HCMP and SNP programs is increased by developing cooperative relationships with multidisciplinary teams.

School-based multidisciplinary teams, like most other work-oriented groups, tend to resort to stereotyped, simplified decision strategies. A number of hypotheses have been suggested to explain the team's rigid posture, such as the redundancy of team tasks and pressure from administration and/or community groups to process as many referrals as possible. A recent study examined what

team members themselves perceived as their working problems (Pfeiffer, in press,b). The two most critical problems identified were 1) a constrictive set of team roles and objectives, and 2) extensive pressure with minimal external support. The 147 team members in the study gave extremely high problem ratings to lack of program options and little or no opportunity for follow-up work. Their responses suggest that team members would like to become more involved not only in testing for placement, but in program development, implementation, and follow-through activities as well.

HCMP and SNP programs will need to focus on how to assist school-based teams in conducting needs assessments, designing new programs and developing ways of evaluating their effectiveness, and implementing follow-up procedures. Quite clearly, multidisciplinary teams desire broader roles, but may not have the expertise to achieve them.

A related problem with which multidisciplinary teams struggle is the minimal amount of time permitted for discussing and processing individual cases. As long as teams are pressured into making "from-the-hip" decisions on referred students, they will never have the opportunity to review their overall functioning, much less to plan new and innovative programs for children. Opportunities to examine group processes and long-range goals must be provided. In order for this to occur, the team must be encouraged to allot some time for self-examination. Change will rarely occur unless the target for change perceives a strong need for that change or has a strong stake in its success.

HCMP and SNP program staff need also to be aware of the strong fraternal attitude that arises when teams are confronted with change. The attitude might typically be expressed in such defensive statements as: They (HCMP/SNP staff) never taught in the schools, how can they tell us what will work for a resource room teacher! or It's easy for them to think they have all the expert

answers, but I'd like to see how well they'd fare having to live with our regular education teachers (or parents and administrators)! This resistance to change and openness is certainly not a barrier unique to multidisciplinary teams, but it is a pervasive stance that HCMP and SNP staff need to be aware of. Skill, tact, understanding, expertise, and a healthy dose of patience are all important ingredients needed to develop a viable relationship with the multidisciplinary team.

One last point bears mentioning regarding what the HCMP and SNP staff program directors and consultants need to be aware of in helping implement positive change. The school-based multidisciplinary team is becoming increasingly controlled and limited due to recent local, state, regional and national rules and regulations. We are becoming, at an ever-increasing pace, a legalistic society, and as a result, the school-based team's operational parameters have been significantly curtailed. An example may serve to illustrate this dilemma. Parental notification and permission is now required for any and all assessment practices with an individual student. These priorities include not only the traditional paper-and-pencil tests, but also direct observation methods and interviews with the student. The inadvertent result of this particular regulation, in many cases, has been team members pulling away from informal discussions and contacts with teachers over children with classroom problems. Professionals have shied away from consulting because of the extensive, formalized paperwork and excessive meeting time often required before they can respond to a teacher's informal request for help. Classroom teachers, in turn, often are frustrated by the red tape that needs to be processed prior to their receiving any concrete assistance from a team member.

In summary, the HCMP and SNP staff who want to establish an alliance with the school-based multidisciplinary team need to be skillful, patient, and empathetic in gaining the team's trust. They also must be aware of the tremendous pressure that the multidisciplinary team

Gallagher, Surles, and Hayes (1972) designed a relatively straightforward PP&E model that is worth presenting as one example of a system which could be shared with a multidisciplinary team (Fig. 1).

The components of the PP&E model will be briefly defined. Needs relate to any area(s) of void or weakness in service, such as the slow processing of referrals or the difficulty of getting parental involvement. Goals are general statements based on assumptions about the expected outcomes of the planned program. Goals show both intent and direction, (e.g., the need to increase parent involvement in the evaluation, placement and programming of handicapped students). Whereas goals are panoramic views of what will be accomplished, objectives are specific behavioral statements describing the expected measurable results of planned interventions. Objectives can be subdivided into two parts: administrative, dealing with program management; and outcome, focusing on terminal descriptions of program benefits. Resources are all the human, technological, organizational, and community materials available for the team's use. In the example of increased parental involvement, resources could include a strong PTA, inexpensive and readily accessible public transportation for parents, babysitting services at the school, and a core of highly trained staff. Resources permit planners to think in terms of the most ideal possibilities while constraints focus teams on limiting factors in the environment, such as lack of funding or available meeting space or a teachers' union or parent group opposed to mainstreaming.

A major aspect of the team decision-making process (to be discussed in greater detail later in this paper) is the generation of alternative strategies. These competing plans are the potential avenues by which the goals of the team can be successfully met. The selection criteria are simply the agreed-upon bases or procedures for the selection of one or more of the strategies.

is under and the ways in which recent rules, regulations and guidelines limit team flexibility and freedom. This is not to imply that teams cannot undergo change -- they surely can and many do! Even the best advice, program, materials, and/or curriculum, however, will be rejected without careful preparation and planning by the program staff. A point worth mentioning is the assumption that HCMP and SNP staff will have the skills and time necessary to "help" the school-based team. A careful analysis as to which staff member(s) is most capable of effectively consulting with the multidisciplinary team is essential. It is quite possible that the HCMP or SNP staff may find it necessary to obtain additional training prior to reaching out into the schools.

How to Get Multidisciplinary Teams to Recognize the Benefits of Adopting a Program Planning and Evaluation Model

Every organized group or team operates within a formalized structure. Even the most apparently chaotic, haphazard, and ineffective multidisciplinary team follows a relatively repetitive and predictable set of procedures. A major weakness plaguing many multidisciplinary teams, however, is their reluctance to examine their procedures and to discuss how they might more effectively plan and evaluate their work. HCMP and SNP staff would be doing a great service to these teams by helping them analyze and compare procedures within a systematic program planning and evaluation (PP&E) model. An obvious benefit of adopting a PP&E model would be the increased ability for the multidisciplinary team, HCMP or SNP staff to explore mutually beneficial goals.

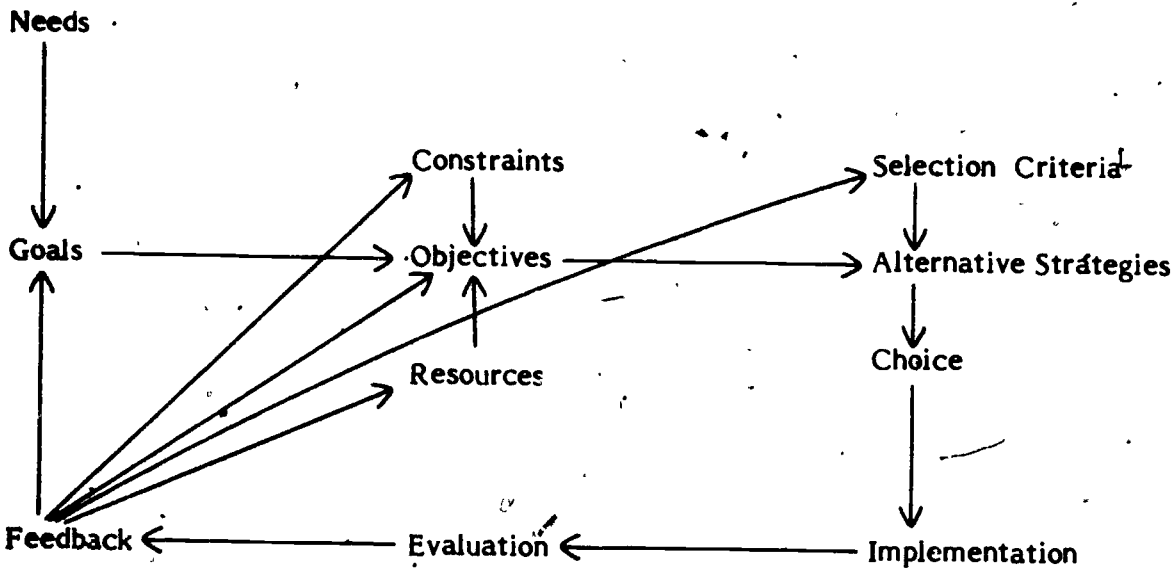


Figure 1: A Program Planning and Evaluation Model

Note. From Gallagher, J.J., Surles, R., & Hayes, A. 1973. Reprinted by permission.

Implementation is the team's initial operationalization of the selected strategy, followed by both formative (process) evaluation, which delineates the many benefits and problems with the strategy, including unintentional effects, and summative (product) evaluation which assesses the overall value of the program. Feedback is the continuous return of information to the team via ongoing evaluation.

A school-based multidisciplinary team's use of a PP&E model has at least six benefits: 1) it forces the team to link up resources with goals and objectives; 2) it helps the team select the best option from among alternative strategies; 3) it forces members to focus on and orient available resources within the school and community; 4) it fosters the idea of ongoing needs assessment (discrepancy analysis); 5) it encourages evaluation of both administrative and outcome objectives; and 6) it encourages team members to consider the constraints of various strategies. In order to generate these various strategies, selection procedures have been established.

Specific Techniques to Guide Teams Through Effective Decision Making

Organizational theory and research have pointed out the many roadblocks to effective team functioning. A sample listing of problems includes: 1) an inability to separate symptoms from problems, with the result that teams get caught in treating symptoms only; 2) planners who too early evaluate alternatives, leading teams to generate only mediocre strategies; 3) insufficient time allotted to the early phases of decision making; 4) people assuming organizational constraints when they do not exist; 5) lack of commitment to finding the best solutions; and 6)

failure to utilize the full human resources of a team. This section will present a number of techniques that have worked well in successfully reducing organizational barriers to effective team functioning. The strategies and suggestions that will be presented by no means cover all the possible avenues to optimal team functioning, but rather offer a few ideas for some alternatives that work.

The first technique might best be called "Structured Separation of Activities." There are two reasons for separating the problem-solving stages: such separation 1) increases the number of viable alternative strategies generated, and 2) reduces the likelihood that the first few solutions offered will be quickly adopted. Research supports this author's experience with groups that teams tend to adopt the first solution proposed (e.g., March & Simon, 1958) and that a clear separation of specific problem-solving steps increases the generation and consideration of alternative strategies (Maier, 1963; Maier & Hoffman, 1960). The author has found that multidisciplinary teams need to schedule at least three separate meetings to keep distinct the identification of the problem, the search for alternative solutions to the problem, and the selection of the best strategy. Combining any of these three processes into a single meeting for the presumed sake of efficiency eliminates the chance for effective and creative decision making.

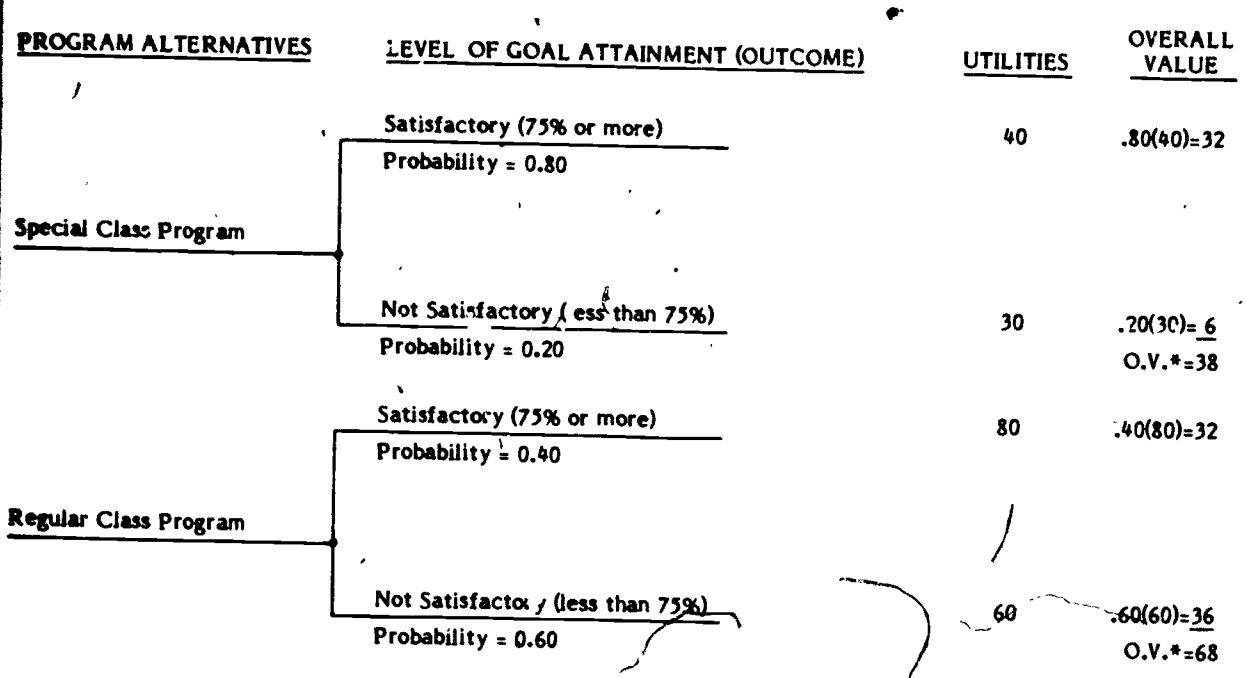
Delbecq and Van de Van (1972) have developed a group problem identification and program planning model, the Nominal Group Process, which illustrates the importance of separating the various problem-solving stages. They argue that their technique, in its structuring of greater total group participation, helps teams generate a clearer picture of the parameters of the problems, as well as more creative strategies than do conventional techniques. In this technique participants define problems or develop strategies for them independently. The participants then share their problems and strategies without discussion with team members. Subsequently, the team members independently rank each identified problem or response.

Through the ranking process, consensus of the most salient problems or strategies is reached

The Nominal Group Process technique works effectively to generate a large number of problems and/or alternative strategies. Two related techniques focus on how teams can best select from available options. McDermott (1980) has designed a statistical system, the Systems-Actuarial Method, based on mathematical probabilities, to assist in the diagnosis of special education classifications. Team input, such as standardized psychometric, observational, and interview data, is weighted and divided into four categories: intellectual, academic, developmental, and social performance.

Whereas McDermott has adopted a multidimensional actuarial classification system to avoid the low agreement typically found among clinicians, Maher (Note 1) advocates a Decision Analytic Model that builds upon the strength of team members' clinical insights. Maher's technique delineates the outcome of each program alternative, specifies the probability that each outcome will occur and evaluates the utility of each outcome.

With Maher's technique, the team's task becomes identifying and assessing the various programmatic alternatives and selecting the best possible alternative. As Figure 2 illustrates, values for both probability of success and utility (index of value) can be assigned to each outcome. Assessment of probabilities based solely on objective data is not always possible, and subjective estimates can be used. The team can either average the estimates of the individual member's probability values or decide beforehand to work towards a group concensus figure. Assessment of utilities is a little trickier, taking into account the values and personal feelings of team participants. Parents should be an integral part of the utility rating process, as should any student judged mature enough to participate. What follows is an example of the system, taken from Maher's 1980 original presentation:



*O.V. = Σ(Probability of outcome X utility of outcome)

Figure 2. A Decision Tree for a Planning Situation Involving an IEP

Note. From Maher, C.A. A decision analytic procedure for multidisciplinary teams in planning special service programs. 1980. Reprinted by permission.

A ten year old, fourth grade child enrolled in a regular classroom in an urban elementary school had been identified by a multidisciplinary team as eligible to receive special education and related services. Assessment revealed three areas of need: reading, language arts, and behavioral self-control; one area of strength was in math. After much discussion, the team proposed two program alternatives: a) a special classroom program with mainstreaming into music, art, and physical education; and b) a regular classroom program with academic instruction in a resource room as well as a behavioral self-control education program.

Employing decisions analysis, the first step for the team in deciding upon which program to implement involved reaching agreement on what the outcomes of each of the two program alternatives might be. Figure 2 presents the decision tree that was developed for this situation.

In this example, outcomes have to do with level of goal attainment of IEP objectives with a "satisfactory" outcome being attainment of 75% or more of the objectives at the completion of the school year, and a "not satisfactory" outcome being less than 75% attainment. The second step in the procedure required the team to assess the likelihood of occurrence of each outcome that were decided by the team and are listed in Figure 2. Assessment of probabilities was based not only on historical data, but also the clinical judgment of team members, present school performance, and parental opinions.

Even after completing probabilities for program success, the team is still not in a position to make a program planning decision. In this example, even though the probability level of goal attainment for the special classroom program was 0.80, it had limited value to some members due to their concern that the child would not be mainstreamed into

regular academic classrooms. The probability level in the regular classroom was decided upon as 0.40, but the utility rating was seen as high by all team members since the child would be more in the mainstream.

This example illustrates that the relative worth of each program alternative is a function of both the probability of the outcome of the alternative and the utility of the outcome. After assigning both probabilities and utilities for each outcome, the sum of these values represents the overall expected value for that decision. In this example, the overall value for the special class program was 38 since 40 (the utility) multiplied by 0.80 (the probability) equaled 32, and 30 (utility) times 0.20 (probability) equaled 6. Thus, the overall value of 32 plus 6 equaled 38.

The final step then becomes the selection of the "best" program alternative, that is, the alternative with the highest expected overall value. In this example (see Figure 2) the overall value of the regular education program was 68 and represents the best choice. (p. 72)

The Decision Analytic Model helps teams make the decision-making process explicit and logical. Team members can isolate with reasonable precision areas of disagreement and can specify with relative assurance how they decided upon a particular choice.

Conclusion

The school-based multidisciplinary team presently emphasizes only diagnostic and placement activities, to

the relative neglect of more comprehensive services such as program development, consultation, needs-assessment/evaluation, and community liaison work. This author has taken the position that HCMP and SNP staff who desire to replicate components of their program can assist multidisciplinary teams and develop a cooperative and mutually reinforcing working relationship.

The benefits of a program planning and evaluation model include the team's ability to identify alternative strategies, link available resources with program goals and objectives, and encourage ongoing evaluation (including self- or meta-evaluation). A number of techniques do exist to assist teams in effective decision making. The common goal of the many techniques is to help teams view decision-making as a systematic set of interrelated, yet distinct, processes that require reflective deliberation and full and active participation.

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Accessing People in Organizations: Problem Solving and Change

John M. Peters

Staff development and inservice education programs exist for the purpose of improving the work performance of people in organizations. Most such programs assume that certain knowledge that exists outside people in organizations needs to be made available to them, in their own best interests. Unfortunately, this transfer of knowledge does not automatically occur in the form and at the rate desired by persons responsible for staff development programs.

An Overview of Various Strategies for Change

There are several schools of thought regarding the best way to bring about needed change among people in organizations. Bennis, Benne, and Chin (1971) identified three types or groups of strategies for change in the

literature: empirical-rational, normative-reeducative, and power-coercive. The empirical-rational strategy assumes that men and women are rational beings who will follow their own self-interests when faced with reasonable alternatives to current behavior. According to this way of thinking, staff developers who are aware of an improved practice have only to justify rationally its adoption to their clients, and the latter, motivated by self-interest and guided by reason, can be expected to accept the change.

Bennis et al. call their second group of strategies normative-reeducative. While not denying the importance of rational thought, theorists subscribing to this view of change place more emphasis on the influence of group norms than on individual behavior. Change in practice will occur only as individuals change their orientations to old norms and develop commitments to new norms. The normative changes involve changes in values, attitudes, and relationships, in addition to changes in knowledge and skills. In short, this group of strategies is based on assumptions that individual changes must be supported by changes in system norms. Moreover, approaches to the system by change agents would involve the client system in decision making and would respect the client's subjective interpretation of personal and system forces which affect his or her problem-solving behavior.

The third group of strategies is called power-coercive. Strategies in this group emphasize the application of political power, legitimate or not. The strategies may involve getting the authority of law or administrative policy behind the change. For example, persons who control fiscal resources needed by others possess economic power, a coercive influence over dependent individuals or groups.

Havelock (1971) reviewed these and other sources of information about organizational change and concluded that a fourth category should be added. His "problem-solver perspective" treats major change efforts from the

point of view of the person who is being asked to change. The assumption is that people solve problems in a universal manner and that such a process should be emulated by the person introducing the change.

There are examples of the use of all three models proposed by Bennis et al. (1971) in the field of special education for the handicapped. The power-coercive model is perhaps best represented by laws and regulations issued by federal and state agencies. An example would be The Education For All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142). The rational-empirical model is well represented in the dozens of demonstration projects funded by The Office of Special Education. Although the principals in such projects do not necessarily assume that the generation of new ideas is followed automatically by their adoption by professionals in the field, it is clear that the funding agency assumes that such projects increase the likelihood of innovation in programs at the state and local levels.

It appears that the normative-reeducative model is widely supported by staff developers and change agents in the area of special education. At least, most will say that they respect the constraints of the organization itself on individual behavior. It is a generally accepted conclusion that some individuals in organizations exert unusual influence over others, and that these "legitimizers" should be somehow involved in the introduction of change into organizations. Moreover, practice and the literature support the notion that people in organizations need to participate in decisions affecting them and will make the final decisions concerning the merits of suggested changes in the behavior. For example, Runkel, Schmuck, Arends, and Francisco (Note 1) have provided an interesting summary of the literature on strategies of consultation. Since consultation strategies are more often than not integral to staff development strategies, it is important to note that their findings support the assumptions of the normative-reeducative strategies. The findings support collaborative planning between client and staff developer,

mutually adaptive strategies and social support for client decisions. Such literature underscores the importance of strong system support for individual actions.

Another body of literature (Knowles, 1970; Knox 1977) supports the idea that staff developers should respect the client's personal experiences and knowledge in designing and implementing educational programs. Such experience and knowledge is usually closely tied to the client's understanding and acceptance of system norms, not to mention accepted practices, habits, expectations, prior training, and convention.

Regarding Havelock's (1971) problem-solver perspective, one cannot disagree that the introduction of knowledge to an individual should respect his or her way of solving problems, especially if one assumes that the primary reason people in organizations need new knowledge is to help them solve problems. The difficulty with Havelock's model is that it assumes a problem-solving process resembling a systems approach, or a textbook approach accepted by professional educators. There is little evidence to support the assumption that people in organizations actually solve problems in such a systematic, predictable manner.

Implications of the Models

Given the several points of view regarding organizational change, what is in them for the staff developer? Several implications result from the previously discussed strategies for change. First of all, no single point of view seems to suffice for all cases of organizational change. Secondly, all of the models are based on the assumptions that people in organizations are in a position to receive new knowledge, if only they can be brought to accept and

adopt ideas and practices that initially exist outside themselves. All of the models, however, fail to account for the way in which people learn, and for that matter, the way in which they solve problems in real circumstances.

These observations about existing models of change have prompted a search for a framework that better represents the way people in organizations change their behavior. Such a framework could result in improved practice on the part of the staff developer, for instance, if it represents the way people in organizations learn and solve problems. Finally, the framework should accomodate individual behavior even as it is influenced by other members of the organization.

In search of a framework for understanding problem solving and learning by people in organizations, the literature in cognitive psychology, action theory, and problem solving is impressive. Much of this literature attempts to explain the basis of behavior from the point of view of the problem solver, as contrasted to the models discussed earlier, which address behavior from the point of view of the change agent. An additional source of information for this evolving framework is my own research project on problem solving and learning, underway at The University of Tennessee. This study is an attempt to explain how adults solve problems and learn in natural conditions, i.e., outside classrooms. It is hoped, however, that implications will develop for the educator who is interested in designing and implementing instructional activities in ways consistent with the ways people learn on their own. The following is a tentative formulation of my model of problem solving and learning, in the context of organizations.

Essential to the reader's understanding of the discussion that follows is the assumption that much of the work of people in organizations is concerned with problem solving. For example, a problem for some schools is how to deal with the special education needs of handicapped children;

similarly, a problem for an individual teacher is how to manage instruction for a class containing both handicapped and nonhandicapped children. The adoption of a problem-solving framework will allow utilization of some of the most significant new research on how people in organizations change their behavior.

A Model of Problem Solving and Change

My purposes at this stage are 1) to examine those factors which are associated with problem-solving behavior, and 2) to consider the implications that an understanding of such factors has for the staff developer. To begin, Figure 1 illustrates the most general relationship among factors associated with problem-solving behavior. This model depicts the person within an environment, engaged in search of a solution to a problem. Over time, the person takes one or more actions thought to be appropriate to the resolution of the problem. Such actions may be responses to forces in the problem solver's environment, and some of the forces themselves may be created by the problem solver. In all cases, the problem-solving process is grounded in the person's own experience and cognitive/affective structure.

A complex set of psychological modes forms the problem solver's cognitive/affective structure, and these modes lie at the base of problem-solving behavior. Mischel (1975) characterized these modes as the person's beliefs, desires, goals, laws, and rules, which, in combination, make up an "intentional state" for the person. That is, the problem solver can be seen as having intentions concerning his or her own behavior relative to some problem, and these intentions are logically related to the person's beliefs, wants, rules, and other modes. These latter characteristics of the person are largely formed by the

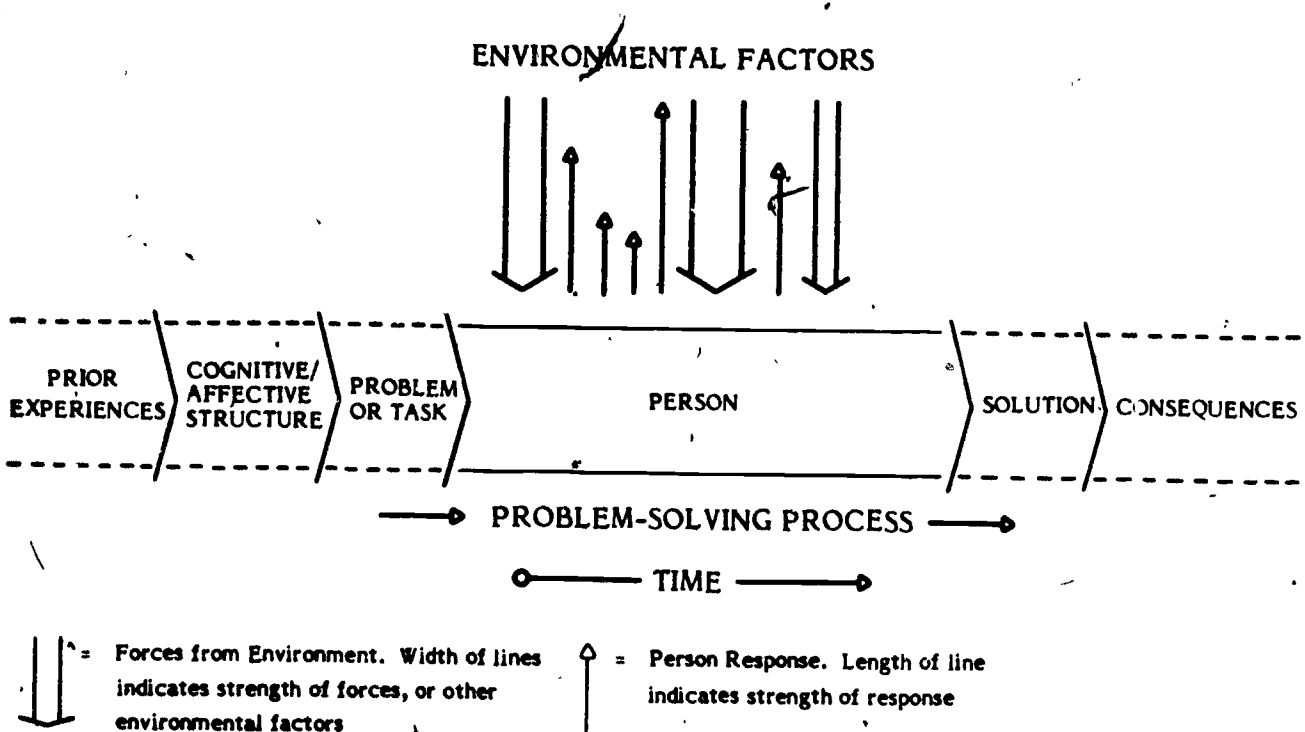


Figure 1: Generic Model of Problem-Solving Process

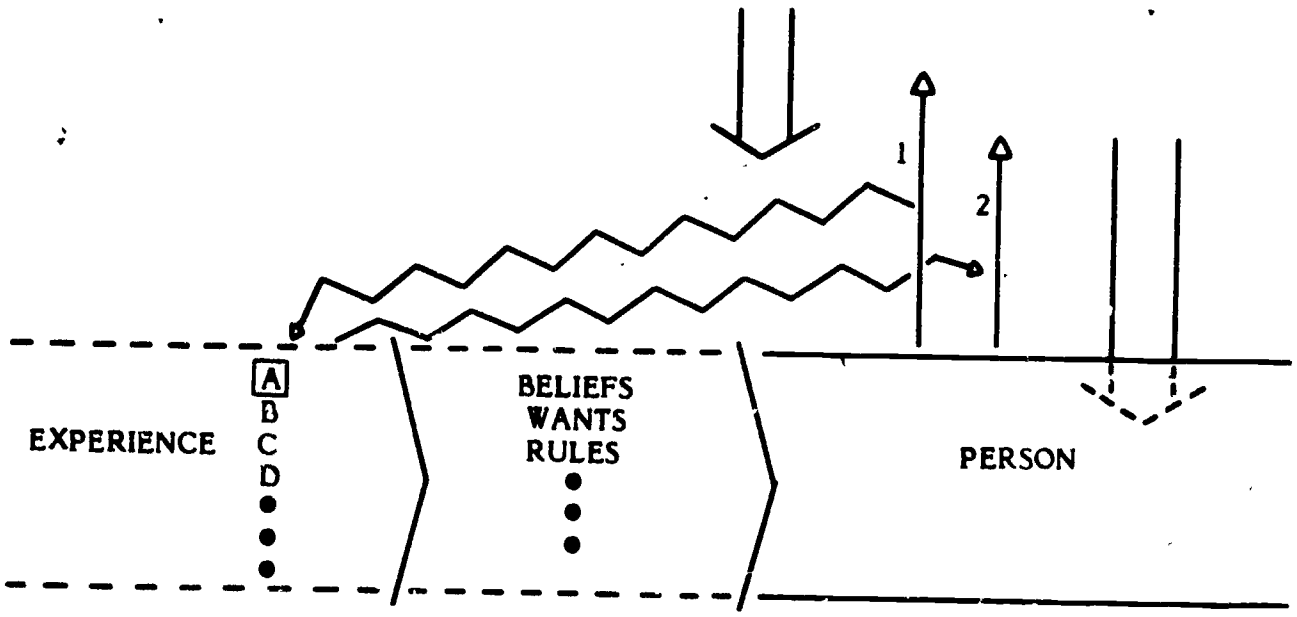
person's experience and knowledge. Together, these intentions and characteristics help the person "represent" a problem in a unique way, and strongly influence his or her use of problem-solving processes.

The person's cognitive/affective structure is related to 1) his or her perception of environmental forces, including the constraints placed on his or her behavior and the expectations of others, and 2) the appropriateness of the goal being sought. In fact, the crucial role of the learner's perception demands that his or her behavior be considered by the staff developer. Interpreting behavior from the learner's point of view provides the staff developer a means for understanding and accommodating the learner's experiences. According to Greeno (1980), it is the complex structure of experiences that largely governs the learner's acquisition of new information.

There is evidence to support the notion that a person's reaction to problems, including decisions about adoption of new practices, actually involves a sequence of responses which differentially utilize experience (Laszlo, 1972). At least three stages of potential reactions can describe a person's problem-solving behavior.

Figure 2 represents Stage One in the way in which the person uses prior experience. This schematic represents the first reaction a person makes to a realization that a problem exists. His or her reaction is to return to past experience in search of a solution to the same or closely related problem, hoping for a quick and satisfying answer. This choice represents for the person the least disruptive effort that can be made to stabilize anomalies in his or her environment.

Figure 2 shows that Response 1 (the first response) of the person is to select Experience A, most like the problem at hand, and to use that particular experience in making Response 2. The dashed double arrow also represents the return of the response and system reaction to the person's self, where it becomes a part of further experience, perhaps to be used again in response to future problems.



= Forces from Environment. Width of lines indicates strength of forces, or other environmental factors

= Person Response. Length of line indicates strength of response

Figure 2: First Stage in Problem-Solving Process

Figure 3 represents Stage Two of the process which does not occur if the reaction in Stage One satisfies the person's search for a solution. If no directly related experience suffices, the person will search his or her experience for indirectly related experiences that may be combined to produce a satisfying response. Figure 3 illustrates the same general pattern of response to recognition of a problem as in Figure 2, except for the combination of Experience A and Experience B to form a solution.

Figure 4 illustrates what a person will do if the attempts in the first two stages do not produce a solution. The third stage calls for the person to seek outside help (e.g., other persons, books) if the solution to a problem is not to be found in his or her experience. The initial response of the person (following attempts in Stages One and Two) is to make contact with someone or something in his or her environment (double arrow) in quest of input to be used in search of solution. The person's next response is to the resource. The input, plus the person's own response, becomes a part of the person's subsequent experiences.

The point of the above discussion of the three-stage model is that the learner in staff development programs will not seriously consider outside help (Stage Three) unless he or she has had the opportunity to make the kinds of responses represented in Stage One and Stage Two. In effect, lack of opportunity to attempt the first two stages leaves the learner in a position of choosing the most destabilizing alternative available, Stage Three. Exposing the internal cognitive system to the environment in this manner is not only destabilizing, but resistance to outside forces is to be expected (Laszlo, 1972). The staff developer is, of course, an outside force.

The above discussion focuses on the individual, but acknowledges the importance of the individual's interaction with his or her environment. Since this paper is about people in organizations, it should be useful to examine how an organizational environment will affect

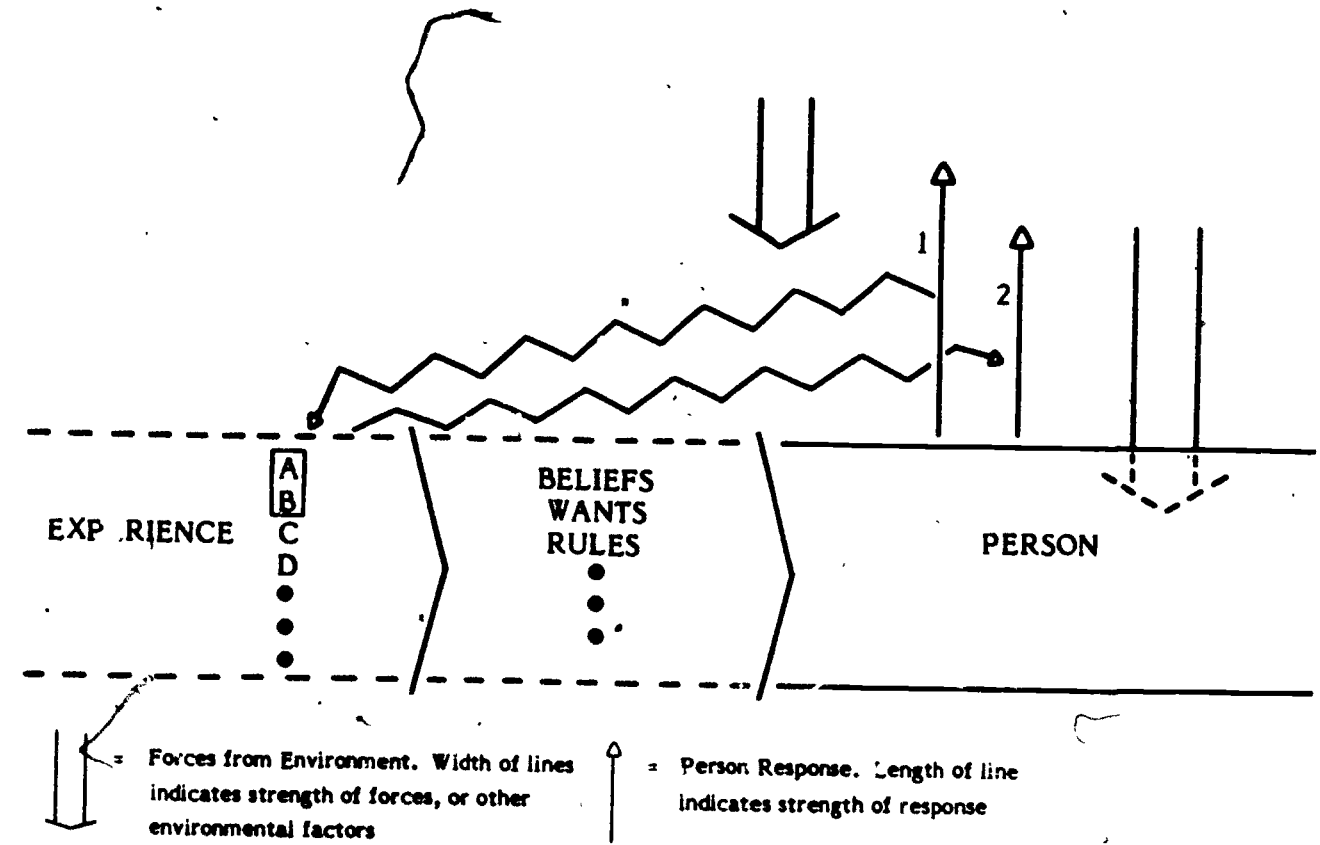


Figure 3: Second Stage in Problem-Solving Process

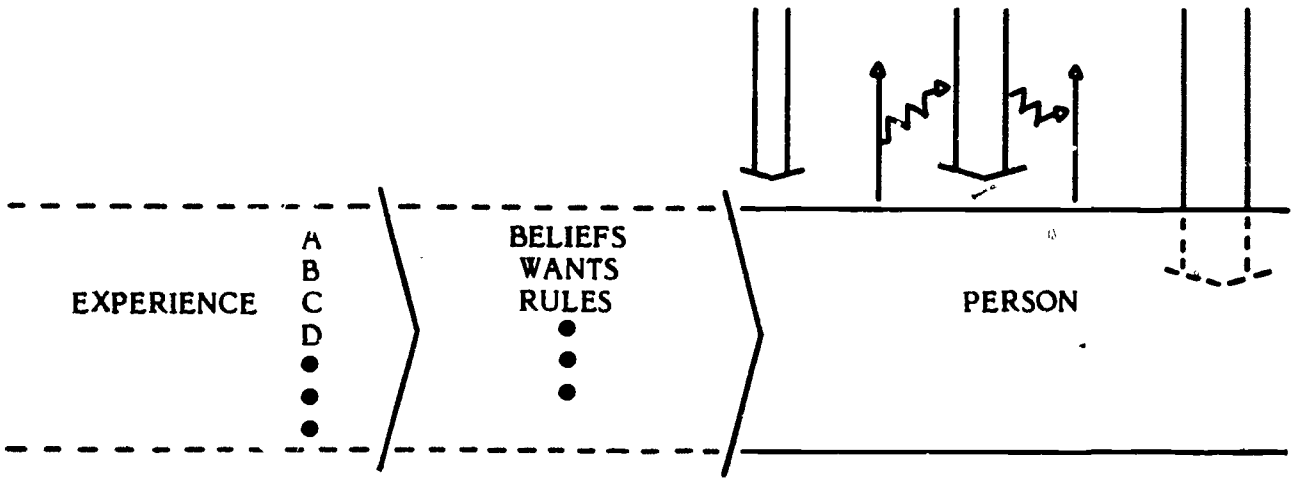


Figure 4: Third Stage in Problem-Solving Process

and be affected by a member. For this purpose, a useful addition to the generic model depicted in Figure 1 is a model of social systems by Loomis (1975).

Loomis maintains that human organizations share elements and master processes in common with all other human systems (e.g., communities, families). Once identified, these elements and processes collectively serve as a highly useful way of profiling organizations. In short, they tell the observer what to look for in regarding the structure and functions of organizations. Briefly reviewed, the elements are:

- Belief or knowledge - refers to what members of a system hold to be true, whether or not the beliefs are accepted by others.
- Sentiment - is closely related to what system members know; refers to the feelings that they attach to their beliefs.
- Goals - represent the end, or desired output, of a system.
- Norms - are the accepted standards, or the "rules of the game."
- Status roles - refers to positions within the system and the expectations applied to the incumbents of the positions.
- Rank - refers to positions within the system and the expectations applied to the incumbents of the positions.
- Power - refers to the capacity of system members to influence others.
- Sanction - refers to the types of rewards or penalties given out by members of a system.

-Facility - represents the means used to attain system goals.

The master processes are as follows:

- Communication - is the process by which information and decisions are transmitted among members of systems and is intended to influence beliefs and sentiments through interaction among members.

- Boundary maintenance - is the process whereby two or more systems are linked through their sharing of one or more elements in common.

- Social control - is the process by which deviance from accepted norms is eliminated or made compatible with the functions of the system.

- Socialization - is the process whereby the "heritage" of the system is transmitted.

- Institutionalization - is the process whereby organizations are given structure and interactions are made predictable.

The above elements and master processes may be manifest in both formal and informal ways, hence the frequent references to the "informal power structure" and "formal versus informal communications" in organizations and societies. Moreover, the elements are not always literal descriptions of the intended functions, and the processes are not necessarily absolutes. For example, the element "facility" refers not to the mere presence or absence of certain physical facilities in a system, but rather to the members' perceptions of the proper use of the facilities. Facilities include not only physical or tangible properties but also time, talent, and other intangibles. Therefore, differing perceptions may exist among members regarding proper use of people's time and talents or the use of scarce physical resources of the system.

If we add Loomis's model to Figure 1, the result is more detailed attention to the nature of the environmental forces depcited in that figure. The resulting figure (Figure 5) shows that the person in an organization is in a position of interacting with the elements and processes that characterize the organization as a whole. Interestingly, these organizational characteristics roughly parallel the experientally related characteristics of the person in the organization. Figure 6 shows the lines of interaction between the beliefs of the organization and those of the individual, and the lines of constraint that may operate in terms of the perceived appropriate use of the organization's facilities.

Added to the three-stage model (Figures 2, 3 and 4), the organizational elements should extend our understanding of the behavior of people in organizations. Briefly stated, the person's initial response (Stage One, Figure 2) to the offering of new information is likely to be based on his or her own experience in the context of organizational forces. If a combination of otherwise unrelated experiences does not result in a solution (Stage Two, Figure 3), the person has little choice but to "open up" to outside source of information (Stage Three, Figure 4). At this stage, the immediate organizational forces (Figures 5 and 6) take precedence and/or screen outside sources of information (such as recommendations made by an external consultant).

Implications for Staff Development

An inexperienced public school teacher of handicapped and nonhandicapped children may have a problem of adjusting to the different demands of both groups of children because of lack of experience. A veteran teacher accustomed to working with only nonhandicapped

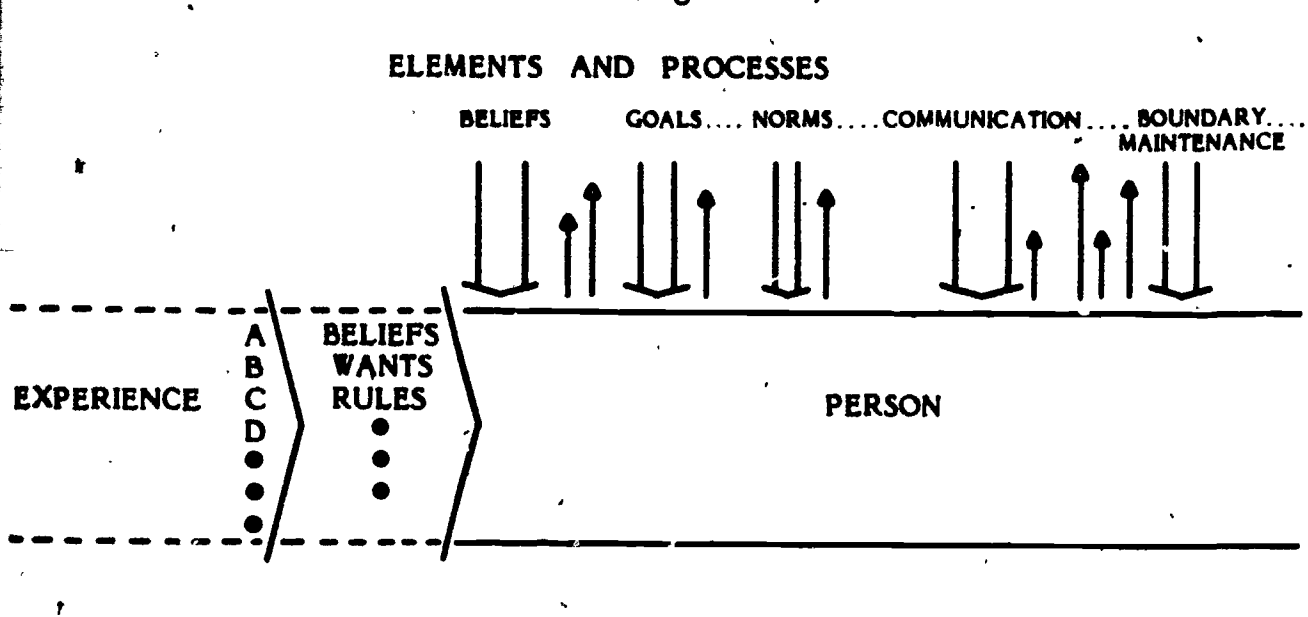


Figure 5. Addition of Loomis's Elements and Processes to Generic Model of Problem Solving

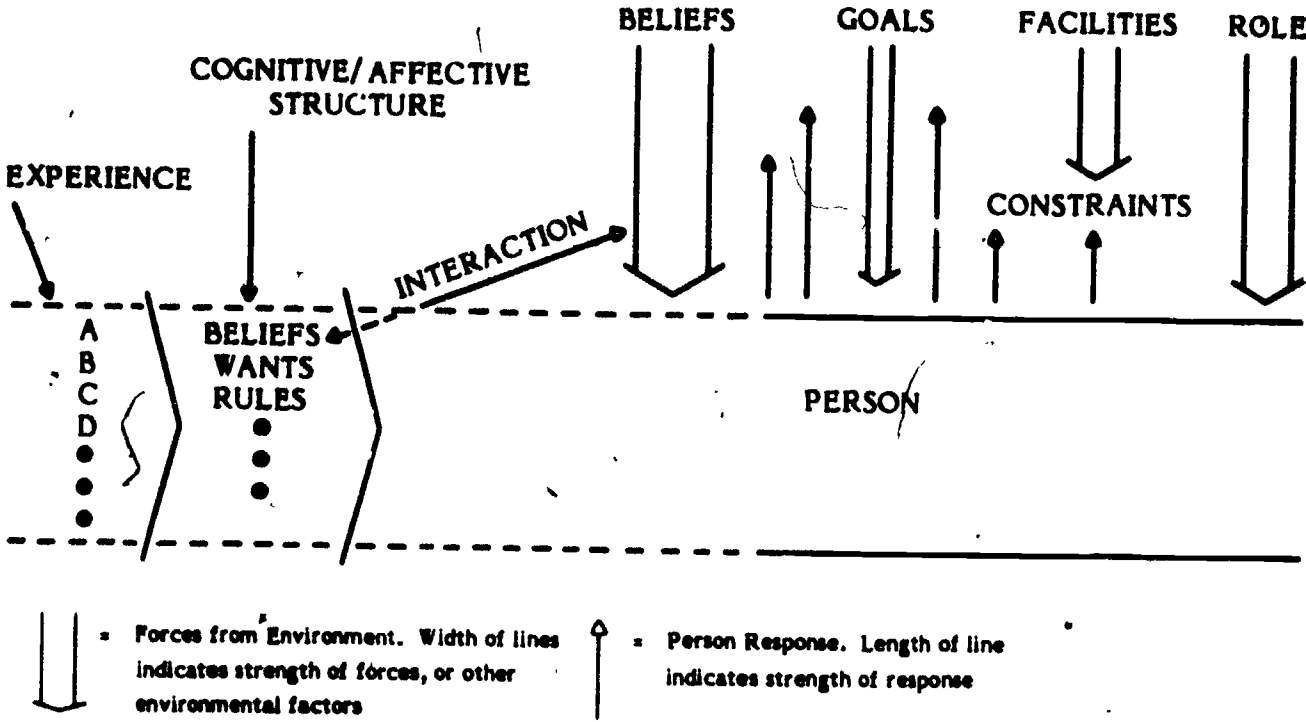


Figure 6: Relationship Between Individual and Organizational Elements

children may be frustrated by mainstreaming programs. The frustration of the latter teacher may be increased by tenacious reliance on experience with nonhandicapped children. Another example involves the introduction of new ideas for working with handicapped children by a consultant to experienced teachers. The teachers may be slow to accept new ideas for different reasons, some of which may be experienced based. Some teachers, as in the second example, may prefer methods already developed and found personally satisfying. To fill in gaps in their past experiences, other teachers may prefer some ideas but not others.

Although staff development programs may offer solutions to teacher problems and frustrations, these programs may not be accepted, due to group norms and/or system pressures. An example may be found in the reluctance of a school principal to permit separate facilities and programs for children with special needs, or in the shared negative expectations of groups of teachers and administrators alike regarding the benefits of federally sponsored programs, or in the value teachers place on their "free periods" during a work day, and in the inevitable consensus that groups of teachers will reach regarding the value of inservice programs in general.

A staff developer usually takes one of two positions relative to the organization and people in it. He or she may work at the program level, introducing broad changes to the organization by way of designing, organizing, and implementing learning activities in which others are responsible for instruction; at another level, the staff developer may serve as an instructor. In either position, the staff developer is introducing opportunities for change to others. At the program level, however, the organization, or at least some unit of it, is the target of change. At the instructional level, one or more individuals are being asked to change their behavior. At the program level in school systems, the individuals may be principals, superintendents, or state school officers. At the instructional level, the individuals may be

teachers, aides or administrators. From this perspective, one can speculate about the effect of experience and system elements and processes on the individual's response to the introduction of new ideas by the staff developer.

First of all, one might expect the people in an organization to resist the input of new information until they have had a chance to work it out on their own. In this case, use will be made of prior experience, beliefs, and other modes. Only if there is a gap in their experience and if the need to solve a problem is pressing will they "open up" to new information. Second, even when people in organizations accept new information, the information will be interpreted in light of their experience and their perception of the structure and functions of the organization (e.g., goals, beliefs, communication processes). Third, the most fruitful source of evidence to use in an attempt to understand the interaction of a person's background and the organization's make-up is what the person intends to do about a problem.

Therefore, one of the best ways to determine what the people in organizations are likely to favor in the way of change is simply to talk to them about the intended change. They need to be asked about what guides their current practice, the constraints they perceive affecting their behavior and other expressions of their experience, their cognitive/affective structures, and their goals and intentions.

What is being suggested here is a procedure that calls for interviews (or just conversations) with people who are the target of change efforts; the interpretation of interviews results in the framework of the models presented in this paper. Interview questions should not be asked in conventional terms, such as What are your training needs? or What would you like to get from X inservice education program? These questions presuppose the introduction of new information at Stage Three of the problem-solving

process, and ignore the workings of the minds and experiences of the very people the staff developer is trying to reach. Better are questions that tap the person's professional goals, problems, and beliefs about the practice of education, personal rules ("if-then" propositions) that guide the person's behavior, and what the person intends (or wants) to do about their practice. Such questions as Why do you do X? and How do you decide to do Y? and What is it that you are trying to do this year? are more likely to reveal the nature of a person's beliefs, intentions, and so on. If the theory is correct, the answers will represent a more accurate profile of what the person is likely to do when introduced to new ideas. In this way, the interviewer will be able to observe how the person uses his or her experience and cognitive/affective structure in problematic situations. Additionally, if the staff developer intends to offer a suggestion for change, the suggestion can be more accurately timed to occur at Stage Three of the problem-solving process, especially when interview results show that the person has first attempted to solve the problems in his or her own way and has failed. The psychological effect that this connection produces will increase the saliency of the idea from the point of view of the person and increase the probability of its adoption.

For the instructor, a way to help learners to move through the first two stages of problem solving and to ready themselves for instructor input at Stage Three is to use techniques that allow learners to generate questions and answers from their own experiences. For example, the Nominal Group Technique (Delbecq, VandeVen, & Gustafson, 1975) mixes small group interaction with individual expression of ideas to generate answers to questions. Experientally related and learner-generated responses can be used by the instructor as the basis for insertion of new ideas, concepts and theories. The group/individual work closely parallels the processes involved in Stages One and Two, while the instructor's responses parallel the processes in Stage Three.

The above are only two recommendations that result from consideration of problem solving and change from the problem solver's point of view. The reader is encouraged to develop additional ones, based on his or her own experience and problems associated with accessing people in organizations.

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Considerations for Consultants

Marie P. Gaasholt

> The process of consultation is challenging, awesome, rewarding, and humbling. It is not a science, but as a performing art, it requires the constant growth of those who practice it.
>
> Lippitt & Lippitt (1978)

Consultation is a large but often ignored part of the new and complex roles undertaken by model project staff. Many have done well in the new positions, but few have done as well as they could, given the many subtle attitudes, skills and understandings required of their new roles. Project staff face many challenges which force them to wear a multitude of hats. Some of the more obvious are listed here.

- They must plan and monitor a model program, often in collaboration with several organizations or systems.
- They must develop appropriate materials to meet the needs of the project.

- They must inform outsiders about the project.
- They must become competent trainers in technical and human relation skills.
- They must be able to marshall, build and maintain support from inside and outside groups which often have conflicting interests and/or economies.
- They must be able to analyze complex systems in which the program may be implemented.
- They must be able to sell the program by demonstrating that the new approach can work within the context of the adopting system.
- They must be politically aware of informal and formal power structures at local, state and federal levels, and must realize how these will affect the implementation of the program.
- They must be content specialists in their own areas of expertise.
- They must be flexible yet resilient.
- They must not give up but rather try and try again.

All of this must be accomplished in a mere three years, even when three years is considered to be the minimum amount of time for an innovation to be institutionalized (Lambour, Rostetter, Sapir, & Taha, 1980). The undertaking is enormous. A closer look at the various tasks reveals that project staff will have to be able to work well in groups, either as competent leaders or members. In these groups they will have to mobilize resources, set goals, clarify values, establish alternatives, develop evaluation plans, mediate conflicts, develop trust, uncover hidden agendas and identify breakdowns in

communication which block decision-making processes. In other words, they must be competent process consultants. Clearly, it would be beneficial to understand the elements of the consultant role and the everchanging behavior in the groups they lead.

In meeting these challenges, project staff assume these consultant roles. The importance of the consultant role is particularly obvious when the model project enters into inservice and staff development activities. In most cases, at least two very different types of activities must be attempted. The first type might be conceptualized as internal staff development. In the beginning phases of a model project, it is nearly always necessary for the project director to hire, organize, orient and train the model project staff in areas which will ensure that the requirements of their grant or contract are realized. Project objectives must be matched with the particular expertise of the new staff. Although staff members may be selected for unique project needs, such as teacher training, parent involvement, curriculum development or evaluation design, it is crucial that each staff member be familiar with the overall goals of the project. Internal staff development is even more critical when some staff members are not full-time employees of the project. All too often, these persons have limited resources and time which makes it more difficult for them to be fully involved in the long-range goals of the project. They are forced to distribute their energies across several activities; therefore, they must be given the opportunity to integrate their individual responsibilities within the framework of the long-range project goals. All too often the practical concerns connected with the beginning phases of a project take precedence over the deliberate encouragement of effective work practices that are clearly related to significant organizational goals. Inevitably, it takes time and energy for the staff to become a well-integrated, resourceful and effective team; but few project directors recognize the need to facilitate team maturation. Past experience suggests

that successful model projects have attended to internal staff development needs on an ongoing basis.

The consultant role is perhaps more obvious during the second type of inservice activities. These relate more directly to the replication and continuation phases and resemble more traditional inservice or staff development enterprises. In contrast to the first type of activities, which is devoted to internal team building, the second type of inservice is primarily of an external nature. Here the project staff is to function as an outside helper or consultant. A different set of skills will be required. The staff person accepting this role must have a firm knowledge of the content area under consideration, the ability to organize an environment conducive to adult learning, and a clear understanding of the organizational resources and constraints which may facilitate or hinder replication efforts. In other words, he or she must establish a functional view of leadership and group behavior which will guide him or her through many vague and ambiguous situations.

The degree to which the project staff can be successful in these efforts is highly related to their performance as competent internal and external consultants. Effective inservice and staff development programs require support and personal interaction among teachers, administrators and consultants. The degree and quality of the personal contact can encourage or inhibit the growth of a professional supportive culture (Lieberman & Miller, 1978). An examination of the multiple roles of the consultant, especially as a technical expert and as a process facilitator, is the purpose of this article.

During the last twenty years, the consultant role has been the subject of considerable attention within the disciplines of sociology, psychology, counseling and other related fields. Due to the increased importance given to inservice and staff development programs in educational circles, the consultant role has recently been highlighted in adult learning and educational psychology literature.

Considerations for Consultants

This author's interest in the consultant role was intensified when given the responsibility to evaluate an innovative staff development program in Denmark. The conditions operating in the Danish staff development program parallel many of those confronted by model project staff. The Danish consultants had very few guidelines regarding their role and little experience with analyzing group processes; subsequently they had to rely upon their own interpretations of how a consultant should act, and then carry out this role according to their own perception of the group needs. As might be expected, those consultants interacted with their groups in different ways and with different results. Some consultants resembled an encounter group leader, others a traditional teacher, and some, more likely due to uncertainty about their task rather than to pedagogical design, appeared to adopt a laissez-faire approach. Although all of these consultant styles have some advantages under particular conditions and for certain purposes, there is considerable evidence suggesting that an integration of styles and approaches is more helpful in leading staff development activities. A brief discussion of the Danish staff development program and the outcomes of the evaluation of the consultant role can provide guidelines for staff development activities undertaken by model project staff.

The intent of this paper is not to make the claim that there is any one correct way for a consultant to behave, but rather to help the reader appreciate the importance and complexity of the consultant role. Ultimately, it is hoped that such a discussion will encourage model project staff to contemplate their particular theoretical biases and to examine systematically their own patterns of behavior in a group.

Self-Formulating Study Groups: An Innovative Approach to Staff Development in Denmark

Denmark's Laererhojskole (DLH) is the primary source of staff development and inservice for Danish public school teachers. It was established in 1856 and in 1963 was given university status. There is a central department in Copenhagen with seven provincial departments that are centrally financed but locally administered. The staff development program described in this article was developed in Aarhus, one of the provincial departments. Two main types of staff development are traditionally conducted at DLH: short, nine-month courses held once a week, and three-year full-time courses leading to the candidate's pedagogical degree (equivalent to a university MA) for teachers with at least two years' experience who previously graduated from a teacher training college. In the entire country, nearly 3,000 teachers may attend the short courses each year and up to 80 are able to work on the candidate pedagogical course.

The DLH occupies an elite position in staff development provisions for the Danish public school teachers. It is apparently seen by them as the institution providing qualifications for career advancement in administration or specialized services. But there are also many teachers who attend the course for professional renewal. Release time from teaching is provided to those teachers admitted to the courses.

In Denmark, study groups have been employed as an alternative form of education for several years, especially in higher learning institutions (Himmelstrup, 1970). This educational approach has various names and slightly different methods, making it difficult to define a precise and unified process. Two elements, however, are fundamental to study groups. First, the starting point for learning must be connected with and oriented to problem areas. Second, the participants must be included in the

selection of the problem as well as the subsequent decisions regarding which approach they will take during the process toward understanding, illuminating and/or solving the problem. As an educational form, study groups theoretically remove much of the traditional idiosyncrasies of conventional education and replace them with participant influence, an open curriculum, and a new role for the instructor or consultant. By taking a problem orientation, the practical concerns of daily teaching activities, as identified by the teachers, are highlighted and contrasted with the philosophic concerns, methods, psychology and general knowledge about the problem area. Ideally, the participants can move from theory to practice or practice to theory. Simultaneously, the participants must focus upon group processes and take responsibility for the climate of the group and the manner in which they operate and use internal resources.

Participant steering and problem orientation, then, are two basic and mutually dependent elements within the Danish study group paradigm, and each of these conditions has immediate repercussions for the consultant organizing the study group, especially in the areas of participant selection, the consultant's role and participant responsibility for outcome.

Organization of Self-Formulating Study Groups

Selection Process

During the fall term, each prospective study-group makes a formal application to DLH, describing its focus, intentions, desires, and list of participants. After the applications are reviewed, each study-group holds a meeting with a staff member from DLH in which mutual

orientation about the new study form and group expectations are discussed. The application request and the DLH staff members' impressions obtained at the meetings with each study group shape the basis for the final selection. This process is very similar to the first steps undertaken by model project staff when attempting to select replication sites. The replication site must be thoroughly informed of their responsibilities toward the model project and the degree to which the model project will assist them in replication efforts. Adequate time must be set aside to negotiate a mutually beneficial set of goals and establish realistic timelines and responsibilities. The consultant must be able to marshall, build, and maintain support from the replication site.

Consultants

The selected study groups are then assigned a consultant. As much as possible, the study group needs are considered and matched with the particular content expertise of a consultant. Although each study group has an assigned consultant, there exists the possiblity to draw upon the combined resources of other consultants. This exchange process is aided by dividing the central core of approximately 20 consultants into heterogeneous subgroups which meet regularly throughout the year. These meetings provide the consultants with an opportunity to share their group experiences, improve their consultative skills, and become better acquainted with each other in order that they may draw upon the combined strengths of the consultant group.

Having a large core of consultants is rarely possible under the constraints of a model project. The exchange of ideas and pooling of expertise, however, is a strategy that could be employed by model project staff. Taking time to evaluate the progress of staff development efforts in

terms of technique and process would be of considerable benefit to model projects.

Group Membership

It is interesting to note that the annual participant drop-out rate for study groups is relatively high. A majority of the study groups lost between 25% and 50% of their participants. Although an English study suggests that the drop-out rate for adult education tends to be 25% or more (Rogers, 1974), these data remain somewhat surprising in light of the fact that the study group members knew one another, had supposedly selected their own goals (supposedly work related), and in many instances, the members had received reduced teaching hours in order to participate in the study group. All of these conditions should theoretically have reduced the number of dropouts.

These data suggest that model project staff can anticipate and plan for some degree of attrition among participants involved in staff development efforts. Because the teachers who enter into staff development programs rarely share the same needs and reasons for embarking upon advanced study, the consultant must be prepared to determine the interests and strengths of the participants and match these with the appropriate content areas and processes undertaken in the staff development program (Paul, 1977).

Evaluation of Self-Formulating Study Groups

Since the fall of 1975, an indepth evaluation of the self-formulating study groups in Aarhus has been in effect. Its dual purpose is to 1) offer this information as feedback to the individual groups and DLH as a means for improving

current and future programs, and 2) provide precise and systematic information about the connection between the study group process and results. A control group consisted of participants from regular DLH courses. Ongoing process data were collected on a standardized form each time the study group met. Some direction regarding the type of information to be included was provided, including factual data concerning meeting place and time, number of participants, and a description of the purpose of the meeting as well as the general problem area under consideration. In order to focus attention upon the group processes, which otherwise might have been ignored, the form asked for perceptions regarding a number of process variables. These included distribution of work load among participants, an estimate of the group climate, verbal and nonverbal interactions between group members, decision-making processes and decisions made, and any practical application of past decisions.

Data from questionnaires administered to each consultant and participant indicated that the earlier mentioned four specific goals for the study groups were reached at the aggregate level. As expected, study group processes differed from the control group processes, especially during the first three months. Study groups reported a higher incidence of frustration during the initial period, a tendency to reduce the number of subjects covered during the course, and movement from theory to practical problems. General improvement of staff cooperation, especially among members of the study group, was a positive result. This improvement was attributed to increased awareness of conflict areas and need for solutions, which opened new possibilities for solving conflicts. Participants from both groups reported a high level of satisfaction, but apparently for different reasons. Satisfaction on the part of study group participants was due to improved staff cooperation, opportunity to select their own relevant problem areas as points of departure and a greater remuneration from their efforts, especially in terms of application of ideas and products in the daily work. An increased awareness of subject areas was the

most frequent explanation for control group satisfaction. Although the results from the study suggest some problems, especially regarding the start phase, consultant roles and the alienation of some participants, they also indicate that the original goals of the study group are being reached and that it is a promising means of meeting the needs of teachers.

Consultant Role in Study Groups

Considerable attention was directed toward varying consultant behaviors across study groups. Consultants and study group participants were asked to respond to several questions which focused on the consultant role. These data revealed that the consultants to study groups were often frustrated with their roles. The source of these feelings was considered to be connected with the reevaluation process of traditional teaching-learning conditions and roles, and the definition of new roles and behaviors. Three-fourths of the consultants indicated that they would alter their consultant approach if given the opportunity to start from the beginning, suggesting two changes.

1. The consultant should have an earlier contact with the study groups, and

2. The participants should be given better information about the purpose of self-formulating study groups, with regard to content, method, and consultant and participants' roles, and the participants should be made more aware of the fact that they are responsible for the formulation of the problem/goals and work approach.

A recurrent theme drawn from the data were the needs to define and clarify goals of the study groups in more

precise terms and to set these goals in relation to the consultant role. These needs are often reflected in the problems encountered by model project staff entering into staff development activities. A summary of the problems encountered in these Danish study groups can provide insight into the multiple variables affecting consultants of model projects, and meaningful information about how consultants may begin to deal with these kinds of problems.

Participants were asked two questions. The purpose of the first question was to identify what they considered to be the most important problem(s) in their group. The responses are presented in Table 1. The second question focused directly upon the participants' impressions of their consultant(s). The responses are presented in Table 2.

Problem Category 1. The responses falling under the first category (being certain about what we want to do and structure the work so we can reach the goal and make it work in practice) indicate that a majority of the participants felt a need for more structure, a better understanding of the goals and clarification of the manner in which they may obtain their goals. In one sense, it is possible to interpret these data as solicitations for help. These participants are perhaps unsure of the new situation and somewhat frustrated by the apparent lack of progress. They are becoming impatient, and want to "get something done." This is a very typical and crucial phase in most staff development activities. During this period the consultant(s) must be extremely sensitive to the individual needs of the group members and guide these into a set of group goals. Thereafter, it is possible for the consultant and participants to devise a work strategy for reaching the goals.

Problem Category 2. The second category of responses (improving cooperation) reveals the importance of improved communication among members and the necessity to establish a set of group-accepted norms and

Major Problems in the Study Group

TABLE 1

The Most Important Problem in the Group Now

Problem Category	Number of Individual Responses	Percent of Total Responses
1. Being certain about what we want to do and structure the work so we can reach the goal and make it work in practice (work approach, evaluation, planning, lack of leadership, poor decision-making processes, etc.)	78	57
2. Improving cooperation (be open, express our feelings and opinions, include everyone, establish norms, work better as a group)	42	31
3. Dealing with lack of time, money, and possibilities to continue next year	10	7
4. Maintaining our spirits so the work does not fizzle out	7	5
Total	131	100

TABLE 2

Participants' Reports of Ways in Which the Consultants Have Functioned in the Self-Formulating Study Groups

	Functional Consultant Category	Number of Individual Responses	Percent of Total Responses
1.	Supportive, gives good advice, suggests simple techniques, asks good questions, participates in our discussions	60	28
2.	Gets us started, keeps us on the right track, helps us structure our work, relates our work to our goals	46	21
3.	Is a good observer	32	15
4.	Controls, steers us, is provocative, blocks our attempts/plans	32	15
5.	Is reserved, passive, afraid, unobtrusive, and offers a modest amount of feedback	27	13
6.	Offers help to individual members	8	4
7.	Gives lectures, offers knowledge and facts, suggests literature	8	4
	Total	213	100

better techniques for group work. Improved staff cooperation is a major area where the consultant can be of great assistance. Structured group activities designed to improve and analyze the communication patterns among members, group norms, decision-making processes and the like, are numerous and often very effective (Johnson & Johnson, 1975). On the other hand, dealing with different attitudes among group members is much more complicated -- entering into the area of therapy both at the individual and group level. Restraint and considerable sensitivity on the part of the consultant are imperative.

Problem Category 3. The third category (dealing with lack of time, money) represents some very specific problems as a result of outside forces. The consultant has little power over eventual changes in the total structure of the system, but he or she can help the group analyze the various constraints and establish alternative strategies for change.

Problem Category 4. The data in the fourth and last category (maintaining our spirits) suggest that the group is functioning adequately, but showing signs of weariness. A wise consultant can use this opportunity to evaluate with the group members the ways in which their work approach helps or hinders their progress. This activity can either identify some problems which can be attended to, or provide positive feedback to the members, which in turn should give them a lift and renewed desire to carry on with the task at hand.

These four categories represent the participants' perspectives of the major problems in their study groups after approximately three months' work. The consultant must be on the lookout for such problems and be ready to assist the group in identifying the problem, analyzing its components and dealing with it in a constructive manner. It is possible that other patterns will occur and it is only with practice that the consultant can see them and

become increasingly effective in helping the group analyze their difficulties.

What Can Consultants Do to Help?

Once the consultant (and hopefully group members) become sensitized to group problems, it is necessary to develop strategies of help. Groups, because they consist of human beings, need to learn to grow or improve. Collecting adequate data and using the information to make decisions about doing things in new ways is one way the consultant can help the group members grow and improve the combined efforts of the participants. This process can be broken down into several steps.

1. Systematic, reliable and objective information needs to be collected.

2. The information needs to be reported to the group in a clear and sensitive manner.

3. The group members must have time to digest the information -- to check it against their own observations and perceptions, and arrive at tentative conclusions or explanations about why the situation exists.

4. Finally, they need to be able to make some decisions for change.

The consultant can specify to the group what kind of information will benefit their efforts. In the past the consultant has been the major collector of group process information. It is, however, quite possible and even advantageous to appoint a group member, perhaps on a rotating basis, to serve as group observer, with the task of noting the manner in which the group works. Numerous methods of observation have been developed to record

group processes (Bales, 1950; Bradford, 1976; Murgatroyd, 1977; Pfeiffer and Jones, 1975).

One can see the close connection between assessment of a problem, strategies of change, and evaluation of group progress. All of these processes can be made more precise and easier for the consultant if some plan is developed for tracing changes in attitudes, relationships, and behavior periodically during the course of the group experience. At the same time, participants can provide ongoing feedback to the consultant.

Participants' Descriptions of Consultants

The information in Table 2 presents seven different ways in which participants perceived the consultant(s) in their study group. Each category describes an aspect of the consultant role -- not a particular consultant. Some participants described their consultant(s) among multiple dimensions, while others gave more concise and one-dimensional descriptions. From this analysis, it is possible to describe general behavioral patterns among these consultants.

Consultant Category 1. The first category covers the supportive and analytical role of the consultant. The participants describe how the consultant has offered good advice, is actively involved in discussions, and picks up on what is going on in the group. Perhaps the most important feature is that the participants indicated that the consultant was sensitive to group needs, could describe objectively and accurately what was happening in the group and supported them in attempting self-analysis and change strategies. This process seemed to be enhanced if the consultant was able to pose nonthreatening questions to the group which in turn would help the members begin to see new aspects of their work. The consultant helped the group analyze their situation

and at the same time offered emotional support. More specifically, the consultant encouraged group analysis by 1) turning questions back to the group as a whole, 2) pointing out successful decisions and responsibilities assumed by the group, and 3) spreading responsibility among group members.

Consultant Category 2. This category suggests a certain amount of control and direction of group movement on the part of the consultant, more direction than in the first category. The consultant points out what the participants are doing in terms of their long-range goals, and he or she offers practical suggestions for improving their work strategies. The consultant takes on the responsibility to help the group accomplish a particular task by pointing out difficulties and offering suggestions, rather than turning the problem back to the group for self-analysis. Although these participants positively rated such consultant activities, members in the study groups usually have widely varied feelings about how much the consultant should be controlling or directing the group. Often group members become divided into factions -- those who wish the consultant to exert more control over what is happening and those who resent the consultant's comments and in fact wish he or she would remain silent and leave. The analysis of these different feelings of dependence and counterdependence (see Problem category 4 in Table 2) can often be extremely fruitful in understanding how members feel about the problem of control and steering on the part of the consultant.

Consultant Category 3. The third category describes the consultant as a sharp observer. Participants valued the detailed and objective descriptions of group interaction patterns and group processes, such as decision-making skills, which the consultant(s) had offered them. These members welcomed this type of feedback and indicated that it had helped them analyze their group processes in a new and fruitful manner. They admired the consultant's ability to see the intricate processes of the group, and the

manner in which they presented the information to the group for further discussion.

Consultant Category 4. The fourth category depicts a more negative picture of the consultant, in contrast with the first three categories. These participants indicated that the consultant was too directive and provocative, and tried to control the group to the extent that their attempts at planning and organization were blocked. As indicated earlier, an analysis of the different feelings regarding the type of consultant help is extremely complicated. Some group members welcomed consultant suggestions and opinions, while others saw these behaviors as threats to their own attempts at being self-directive. Personal power structures within the group may also contribute to the different interpretations. Therefore, it seems imperative that the different feelings about consultant style, control and guidance be clarified early in the group process.

Consultant Category 5. The descriptions falling under the fifth category share negative feedback about the consultant role. The participants indirectly implied that the consultant was too cautious and passive, and that they would like the consultant to be more active. They suggested that consultants should come forth with their own feelings and attitudes and share their experiences and knowledge about the subject area and group processes. This category is the polar opposite of the previous category, and points again to the need for further clarification surrounding the consultant role.

Consultant Category 6. The sixth category places the consultant in a therapeutic role. Certain individuals in the group needed help and the consultant provided the necessary assistance in a positive manner.

Consultant Category 7. The final category places the consultant in a more traditional teacher role. The consultant gave constructive knowledge and facts, and

suggested additional literature related to the problems under consideration.

The seven different descriptive categories of the consultant role in self-formulating study groups suggest that the consultant must focus upon two general areas: the task and the socio-emotional conditions operating within the group.

A task orientation necessitates that the consultant use his or her intellectual understanding of the subject area under consideration, be somewhat manipulative in order to help achieve the purpose of the group, offer productive ideas, and have the social and practical skills to develop the group ideas more completely. A socio-emotional orientation demands that the consultant have a positive status within the group, be a diagnostic observer at appropriate times and levels, clarify and protect the group norms, initiate ways for the members to analyze group processes, and be a contributing, accepting, and supportive group member.

In short, the participant descriptions of consultant functions in self-formulating study groups which the participants found helpful, can be reduced to three general dimensions: offering support, providing structure, and developing meaning and understanding of the group activities through analysis.

These findings are in agreement with other studies on leadership behavior, specifically the Lieberman, Yalom and Miles study (1973). These authors found four basic dimensions of leader behaviors -- Stimulation, Caring, Meaning-Attribution and Executive Function. Caring and particularly, Meaning-Attribution were found to be associated with beneficial effects, whereas Stimulation or inordinate attention to Executive Function were associated with negative outcomes. Using these basic dimensions, the authors developed six leadership styles. Three of these styles -- those of the Provider, the Social

Engineer and the Energizer -- were found to be associated with beneficial effects.

The characteristic of the Energizers is intense Stimulation. But they also gave moderate to high attention to group structure and supporting behaviors of members. The Providers were high in supporting and caring behaviors, and in giving meaning to the group processes. They gave love, as well as information and ideas about how to change. They exuded a "quality of enlightened paternalism" (Lieberman et al., 1973, p. 173), and had a systematic theory about how individuals learn in groups, which they used in the group but did not force. The Social Engineers were outstanding in their ability to give meaning to group activities and allow self-analysis of individual problems and group processes. They were primarily group focused and concerned with how people related to the social system. They also exhibited a moderate amount of caring, indicating relatively high levels of support and affection. They mainly offered the communication, support and steering of the work as a whole.

These three positive leadership styles, as identified by Lieberman et al., contain basically the same three aspects of positive consultant behavior as identified by self-formulating study groups. Using this information we can begin to outline characteristics of consultant behavior in self-formulating study groups, which can be useful guidelines for training and application in model project staff development activities.

Implications for Staff Development

Self-formulating study groups are one of the many types of adult learning activities which have been influenced jointly by educational reform strategies and the research

findings and general principles derived from social psychology. Our knowledge of adult learning processes raises questions concerning the training, characteristics, and ethical responsibilities of group leaders and consultants. Universal answers to these questions are unlikely; nevertheless, there are several guidelines related to these questions which I consider valid and worth further discussion.

Training for Consultants

Unfortunately, the training and development of consultants has for the most part been a haphazard process (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978, p. 104). Consulting involves people dealing with people, and therefore, good interpersonal skills. A consultant must be able to "communicate and deal with people in an atmosphere of tact, trust, politeness, friendliness and stability" (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978, p. 104). Because very few of us have acquired such skills, each consultant should continue to determine the extent to which he or she demonstrates the array of required competencies implicit in the consultant role (Havelock, 1973). Furthermore, these skills cannot be easily picked up from a training manual on appropriate consultant behavior. They must be learned, practiced and evaluated in light of each set of circumstances. Training can aid the future consultant in developing a wider repertoire and help him or her be surer about why and when to behave in certain ways. A functional view of group behavior as espoused by Miles (1973) supports the assumption that people can learn to be more effective in groups. The functional view leads, then, to an emphasis on identifying useful consultative behaviors and encouraging the application of these behaviors until they are learned. Ideally, any training in group processes should encourage an inquiry approach to future problems. Good training never really ceases. Better job performance will be a

result of the internalized self-training skills each consultant identifies for his or her particular task.

General Characteristics of Successful Consultants

Some general characteristics of successful consultants are suggested. This list can be treated as a guideline for training programs or for internal discussions among consultants. These characteristics have been assembled from personal experience, discussions with consultants and participants in previous staff development programs and from literature concerned with leadership roles and the training of consultants and group leaders.

Patience. It is important that consultants do not try to oversell their ideas or themselves in order to bring about their definition of desirable change. Change is hard work. It cannot be forced or demanded. Patience, attention to detail, and time are essential companions of change. The consultant must have a framework which will help the group experiment, test, readapt and evaluate. The consultant should be encouraging these skills rather than a particular outcome.

Responsibility. As mentioned before, I take the position that the primary and ultimate responsibility for what occurs in groups lies with leaders. Some leaders have argued that they bear no responsibility for what happens to the members of their group. Often contracts are made whereby the leader is released from any assumed responsibility and it is left with each member. I maintain that such a view of the leadership role is misguided and dangerous. It ignores the fact that a leader, even a part-time consultant, has the greatest importance in the group, not only because of the different status attributed to him or her by the members, but also because he or she is in a unique position to harness, for better or worse, powerful group forces.

At the same time, I realize that an external consultant is placed in a difficult position. He or she cannot always be present when important decisions are made, and thus may miss some vital opportunities for avoiding problems. Nor is it easy for the consultant to control or guide the group norms and goals. But, in the last analysis, the reason the consultant is assigned to a group is because he or she supposedly has a set of skills which can benefit the group under the conditions in which they operate. The consultant's acceptance of that implicit assumption is reason enough for him or her to accept responsibility for the outcome of the group.

Willingness to Change. The consultant role requires one to look at oneself in relationship to the group and individual members. It is necessary to question nearly everything and be willing to accept from others that it may be best to take another approach.

Ability to Analyze the Group Functions. A good consultant notices and is aware of happenings in the group. It should be possible for the consultant to identify and describe in objective terms to the group what is happening. According to Miles (1973), the effective leader must "be aware of how things are said, by whom, when, and what function they service in what group context" (p. 22). It is more a matter of acquiring essential process skills than providing information on content or topics to be discussed. Knowledge of content is essential, but not sufficient for effective group work.

Ability to Guide the Group Toward Self-Analysis. The consultant must be able to comment on group process, make generalizations, raise questions, and generally help the participants think explicitly about their group experiences. It is especially important that the consultant guide and train the participants in developing these skills. This usually happens through discussions wherein the consultant can make interpretations about what is happening in the group, show the relationship between two different situations, invite the members to analyze the

situation, point out that something has happened (a decision is made), and invite a group analysis. Both the pointing out and the subsequent analysis are essential.

Ability to Help the Group Establish Explicit Norms and Goals. Group norms are connected with the expectations that the members and the consultant have for the group. Although the consultant's role in the formulation of group norms is limited, it is of utmost importance that the consultant assess the group members' expectations about the rules which will operate in their group. This may be done either formally (written) or informally (verbally). If the consultant fails to analyze the expectations for group norms and attempts to introduce opposing norms, he or she may become engaged in a struggle against some rather potent forces in the group; therefore, group and leader norms should be in agreement. But agreement is not enough. Types of norms also make a difference. According to the extensive study by Lieberman et al. (1973), those groups in which appropriate behavior was more clearly defined (more norms) and consisted of moderate levels of emotional intensity, moderate confrontation, looser boundaries, and peer control rather than leader control, had the highest yield.

The same general cautions about group norms can be directed toward goals. Groups with clear and realistic goals which are in accordance with the consultant's goals are described by Lieberman et al. (1973) as more cohesive, satisfied, and productive. In most instances, the consultant must assist the participants in the reevaluation of the goals from individual to group perspectives, and relate them to work approach and group norms. Groups with goals different from what the consultant expects and demands are more hostile, resistive, negative, and dissatisfied with their output.

Ability to Focus on Two Levels. The consultant can ask the participants to work on two plans -- first, the cognitive or subject area which may result in a product, and second, the processes operating within their group.

This requires the participants to expose their own behavior to analysis, and to be willing to change some old patterns. Participants need support to do these things. The support will often initially come from the consultant, but gradually should be absorbed by the participants. Support is an area in which group norms take on enormous importance. An open discussion about group norms can help the consultant identify typical support behaviors (reduction of excessive conflict, warm and friendly comments, encouragement, and reduction of group tension) and set these in relation to group norms and group goals. In this way the need for support has been legitimized and, at the same time, the consultant makes it clear that the group must share the leadership responsibility in order to avoid overdependence on the consultant.

Ability to Balance Control. As mentioned previously, the consultant exerts control over the group in numerous ways: the suggestions, the mode of activities, the times he or she remains silent, and so on. At the same time, the participants hold widely varied feelings about how much control the consultant should have. Thus, there are implicit and explicit means of consultant control. The research study of self-formulating study groups pointed out this dilemma quite clearly -- some participants encouraged consultant direction while other members resented nearly all comments and attempts at guidance, to the point that the consultant was, for all practical purposes, excluded from the group.

Obviously, an analysis of these different attitudes regarding degree of control by the consultant can be extremely fruitful in understanding how participants feel about the problem of leadership. This is especially crucial in groups entering into replication efforts. Often these groups are given (or accept) the impression that they are in complete control; the various interpretations of control can result in severe problems for both consultant and members. At the same time, some consultants exert a great deal of control. Learning to use the right amount

and kind of control behavior is a matter of practice, reflection, and open discussion between consultant and participants.

Ability to Balance Positive and Negative Feedback. Confrontation and negative feedback by the consultant can be the first steps toward helping the group function more effectively. Several authors (Douglas, 1976; Konopka, 1963; Lieberman, 1973; Miles, 1959; Northern, 1969; Rogers, 1972; and Rose, 1973) comment on the fact that conflict within a group can lead to increased understanding and an increase in trust among group members, largely because differences are brought out into the open and cease to be a source of hidden irritation. The same authors, however, point out that it is absolutely essential that the consultant help the group distinguish between disabling disagreement and that conflict which enriches problem solving and productivity. The consultant must aim toward a clarification of conflict and demonstrate how communication lines have been tangled. At the same time, the consultant must offer the security which is essential to the effective operation of confrontation. Few true feelings will be offered when group members are anxious about the confidentiality of the setting in which such feelings will be offered. A moderate amount of confrontation seems optimal; too much causes frustration, dropouts and blockage; too little leads to apathy and even more dropouts.

Consultants should not accept a particular theory of confrontation, but rather they should examine their own application of various techniques of confrontation and compare the effects of these on individual and group progress. Confrontation is objective (and often negative) feedback which is tempered with equal of amounts of warmth, sincerity, and empathy. With the consultant's support and acceptance, constructive confrontation can help individuals reassess their thinking and increase their feeling of self-worth.

Ability to Develop a Rationale for Group Practice. Ideally each consultant should define his or her own role and develop a theoretical rationale for group practice which will enable him or her to identify goals for activities, and to evaluate the effectiveness of his or her own role and the value of the activities. The consultant can become more aware of the skills required in the consultant job if he or she analyzes the tasks connected with the consultant role. These skills can be made more explicit, practiced, evaluated, and finally set into a theoretical framework which in turn will guide future behavior.

Ability to Evaluate. Evaluation goes hand in hand with role identification. It is a process of trying to find out whether certain actions (behavior) have led to desired consequences. Evaluation is best seen as a continuous process engaged in by the people who are responsible for setting up and carrying out the program. Although evaluation procedures need not be overly rigorous, they should be well planned and systematic. In most instances, consultants and participants will be interested in evaluation for immediate steering purposes (internal decisions) rather than long-term assessments (external decisions). But both types of evaluation are necessary and many instruments can be used.

The many different types of evaluation techniques available to consultants will not be covered here. Entire books are devoted to the methodological concerns of evaluation which the interested consultant may use. What is being stressed is that evaluation is important and evaluative techniques should be improved. The responsibility for the evaluation process must be shared by consultants, participants, and the educational institutions.

Ethical Responsibilities of Consultants

Developing a set of personal and group guidelines for ethical behavior is crucial. Consultant behavioral styles and philosophical and dynamic assumptions about the consultative role differ from individual to individual and should be made explicit to the client. An ethical code helps to provide fair treatment for clients by defining the dimensions of a professional role, and narrowing uncertainty.

Many groups are defining ethical codes and guidelines for consultants (Institute of Management Consultants, International Association of Applied Scientists, NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, Association for Creative Change, Society of Professional Management Consultants, Academy of Management, American Society for Training and Development, Organization Renewal, Inc., International Consultants' Foundation). Lippitt and Lippitt (1978) have reviewed the professional codes of ethics and suggest principles for the professional consultants.

1. They are responsible, and place high value on objectivity and integrity.

2. They maintain high standards of professional competence by recognizing the boundaries of their competence.

3. They show sensible regard for the social codes and expectations of the community.

4. They avoid misrepresentation of professional qualifications.

5. They respect the clients' rights regarding confidentiality and loyalties and possible conflict of interests.

These guidelines can be very helpful to new consultants, but do not cover the personal ethics which each individual consultant must establish and bring to bear on his or her consulting style.

Final Words

Consultation is a large and often ignored role of model project staff. Many challenges face the new model project staff as they begin to meet the objectives outlined in the grant or contract proposal. The importance of the consultant role is especially obvious during the early stages of internal staff development activities and again when the model project enters into external inservice or staff development activities during the replication and continuation phases of the model project. Success in these endeavors may be dependent upon competent consultants. The consultant role in Danish self-formulating study groups was described as one way to isolate essential characteristics applicable to model project staff. Finally, conclusions were drawn regarding the consultant role in model project staff development activities in terms of training, specific consultative behaviors, and ethical considerations.

It is hoped that this article will assist future consultants to meet the diverse demands of a complex role and contribute to pedagogical discussions surrounding the consultant role.

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