DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 221 157 IR 010 161

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TITLE Training in Curriculum Development and Educational Technology in Higher Education.
INSTITUTION Society for Research into Higher Education, Ltd., London (England).
REPORT NO ISBN-0-900868-77-5
PUB DATE 80
NOTE 97p.

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *College Instruction; Course Evaluation; *Curriculum Development; Educational Innovation; *Educational Technology; Education Courses; *Faculty Development; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Inservice Teacher Education; *Instructional Development; Needs Assessment; Program Development
IDENTIFIERS United Kingdom

ABSTRACT

A recent inquiry into training needs in curriculum development and educational technology in further and higher education is documented. This book describes a research project begun in 1973 at Sussex University, which identified instructional and individual procedures, problems, and requirements in training and weighed them against current provisions in colleges, polytechnics, and universities. The development of an experimental MA course at Sussex for experienced staff is discussed, and the initial findings, which resulted in the establishment of three short courses at polytechnics and the Sussex MA in Curriculum Development in Higher Education, are summarized. The book describes the investigation, pilot courses, and their evaluations. The new MA course and its evaluation are also analyzed. Appendices contain the initial diagnosis of training needs in higher education and student reports on the prototype course. A 70-item bibliography is included. (Author/LMM)

MICHAEL ERAUT BRENDAN CONNORS ERIC HEWTON

TRAINING in CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT and EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY in HIGHER EDUCATION

SOCIETY FOR RESEARCH INTO HIGHER EDUCATION

Research into Higher Education Monographs

The Society for Research into Higher Education, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey GU2 5XH

First published 1980

ISBN 0 900868 77 5

Printed in England by University of Sussex Printing Unit

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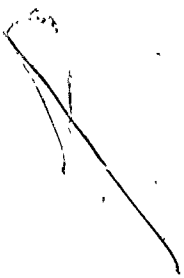


PREFACE

This monograph is largely based on a research project funded by the Department of Education and Science for the period 1 October 1973 to 30 September 1976. We are grateful to the Department for the support they gave throughout the project, in particular to SI Miss K. Burton, SI Mr. E. Sudale, and Mr. D. Timms who worked on our steering committee. In addition, we would like to thank the Open University for agreeing to the secondment of Major Connors from its Institute for Educational Technology. We would also like to acknowledge the important contribution made by the Nuffield Foundation's Group for Research in Higher Education, especially Professor Tony Becher, Dr. Malcolm Parlett and Dr. Geoffrey Squires, who shared with us their own research findings and contributed teaching to some of our experimental courses. Many colleagues at Sussex were closely involved throughout the project, Professor Norman MacKenzie as a co-director in the early stages, Ms. Carolyn Miller as a major contributor to the MA course and others as critics and consultants.

Since some time has lapsed between the formal completion of the research project and the publication of this monograph, we have taken the opportunity to update certain sections (Chapters 2 and 5). We have also had requests for further details on the experimental MA course whose development is described in Chapter 5. We have therefore included a more elaborate description of it than we did in our original report, based on the current 1979 - 80 version of the course, rather than on the original version in Chapter 5.

Little work would have been possible without the continued assistance of both students and colleagues in other higher education establishments, who gave freely of their time and advice. For reasons of confidentiality they must remain anonymous, but we sincerely hope that they will find this report some compensation for the effort which they so willingly made.

Michael Eraut
Brendan Connors
Eric Hewton

1 INTRODUCTION

It is only in the last few years that universities, polytechnics and colleges have begun to consider seriously both the systematic appraisal of their teaching functions and the professional competence of their staff as teachers. During the 1960s institutions were preoccupied with recruiting appropriately qualified and experienced staff and with establishing courses to meet the needs of the growing number of students. Many curricular innovations were introduced but there was little opportunity to evaluate their effects in other than the crudest terms; and few gave any consideration to the pattern and style of teaching. Higher education was not an established area of research, and the talents of lecturers were rarely used to develop and evaluate their own teaching. Nor was teaching ability taken seriously into account in appointments and promotions. Good teaching was a by-product of advanced study and research (and in applied fields relevant professional experience), not a quality that could be cultivated in its own right.

However, there are pressing reasons why higher education institutions should now be giving more attention to their teaching function. The first, perhaps, is the scale of higher education today. The size of the teaching force and the number of institutions in the post-secondary sector - to say nothing of the manpower and money they represent - are such that questions are reasonably asked about their effectiveness in what the public sees as their main task, teaching students. Secondly, the pressure of numbers, which aroused a new interest in teaching methods ten years ago, has been succeeded by pressure on resources. Every institution is now more than ever seeking ways to make the most of its funds, its staff and its physical plant. All aspects of the educational process - curriculum, teaching patterns and means of assessment - are coming under close scrutiny. Thirdly, there has been a growing interest in the curriculum itself. The diversification of polytechnics and colleges has required their staffs to rethink what has previously been offered and to exercise their imaginations about what it may be educationally and socially desirable to offer in future, and processes of curriculum innovation, which were originally developed in the schools sector, have become increasingly influential in higher education. Fourthly, because curriculum changes and teaching methods are inextricably related, there has been a growing interest in the institutional structures within which such changes occur. There have already been innovations in structure which range in scale from the new universities and the Open University to multi-campus polytechnics and new-born institutes of higher education to the creation of new faculties, programmes or modular courses; and the trend may well still be accelerating. Lastly, and most significantly, there has been a marked shift in the attitudes of students, and in staff-student relationships, whose impact is felt throughout the system of higher education. Understandably, the emergence of students as an articulate influence on policy-making has had an effect both on what is taught and how it is taught - and the latter has been a growing point of criticism.

Universities, polytechnics and colleges have responded to all these changes, perhaps better than is generally realized. Higher education in Britain is not inefficient, nor wasteful; it responded to the demand for expansion quickly, it has been flexible about curriculum changes, and it has experimented boldly in patterns of organization. It has not, however, found it so easy to find suitable ways of training and retraining its staff.[1]

Apart from the intrinsic difficulties in devising the means to do this there are three particular constraints which have severely handicapped all ventures in this field. The first is that of authority. Teachers in higher education derive their authority from expert knowledge of a subject rather than from excellence in teaching; and in those areas where such knowledge is supplemented or even, occasionally, supplanted by professional experience (in art, education, medicine and technology for example) it is still the knowledge of 'good practice' that is additionally valued and not the ability to communicate it to others. Hence, in universities and also, but to a lesser extent, in polytechnics and colleges the most influential authority to which a teacher is subjected is the collegial authority of his peers. There is no group of people (those in authority) in a position to prescribe training for another group (those under authority). So the diagnosis of a training need has to include a strong element of self-diagnosis; and that has never been easy.

The second constraint is one of attitude. Time spent on curriculum-building and evaluation or in seeking to improve teaching is formally regarded as part of a lecturer's normal duties, and given no separate recognition as an additional load. But if they are to be taken seriously, such activities can only be pursued at the expense of research, of keeping up to date with a subject or maintaining contact with a profession. So, informally they are seen as time-consuming diversions which distract a lecturer from the things that count for professional advancement. Even where academic criteria are given less emphasis, as in some colleges and polytechnics, a similar effect may follow from bureaucratic interpretations of the teaching role. Where teaching is defined in terms of class contact hours alone, preparation and evaluation do not count as 'real work' and quality becomes irrelevant. In the long run, the attitude created in institutions by senior staff is decisive: unless they consistently seek to develop and sustain a climate which encourages interest in teaching, there is little chance that it will flourish, except in futile fits and starts when some crisis makes lip-service to effective teaching seem politically convenient.

Finally, there is the constraint of finance. In-service training in the schools sector has always been externally financed. Though staff occasionally 'cover' for an absent colleague, in-service training has never made financial demands on a school's own budget; and secondment for advanced training has been encouraged by allowing LEAs to reclaim a large proportion of the cost from the DES. In higher education the reverse is true. Apart from the teacher education sector, which has shared some of the advantages of the schools, in-service training has been financed out of each institution's own budget - and it must compete with the claims of research, libraries, clerical support and many other items of expenditure. There is no formal secondment system and study leave is normally reserved for research or for advanced study in the lecturer's own subject. Few have thought it profitable to seek qualifications in education; and the lack of appropriate courses probably reflects the fact that there has been no serious demand for them. Despite these constraints, however, a number of important initiatives have been taken during the last decade. On the one hand short introductory courses for new staff have been provided, while on the other, special posts have been created to assist existing staff to develop and implement innovations in teaching and learning.[2] Although the combined effect on the average lecturer has probably been small, the experience gained by those taking the initiative has been considerable; and the interest of senior staff is now beginning to increase. In 1972, however, when we first conceived the idea of research into advanced training in higher education, such initiatives were relatively rare; and their effects were not clearly understood. We then saw the situation as follows:

1 Initiatives aimed at improving teaching had to be planned within individual institutions and related to the specific needs of those institutions at that particular time.

2 Initiatives needed to be broadly based and to avoid reliance upon a single-theme approach to innovation, eg educational television, microteaching or even course design.

3 Initiatives needed to be professionally planned, implemented and evaluated, ie those involved needed to have a clear conception of what they were doing, an awareness of alternative approaches, an understanding of the growing fund of experience in the field, and the capacity to evaluate their own activities.

4 The number of people with the appropriate background and able to take responsibility for these activities was extremely limited. Many of those working within support services were probably over specialized. The problem was not a lack of talent but the lack of any opportunity to train or retrain for this kind of work.

5 Introductory courses tended to oscillate between adherance to simplistic and mechanistic views of teaching and flirtation with currently fashionable innovations. There was little analysis of the teaching problems encountered either by new staff or by their more experienced colleagues.

6 There was little institutionally-based in-service training for experienced staff and little attempt to develop and share their expertise.

7 There was virtually no tradition of self-critical research in the area of support service activities and in-service training in higher education - a point which was strongly emphasized in the report of the UGC Educational Technology Subcommittee (1972).

Also influential at that time was a recently completed research project on in-service training in the schools sector (Eraut 1972), in which existing provision had been studied, training needs assessed and experimental courses developed and evaluated. This earlier project had indicated the need for 'action research' rather than 'survey research' in the assessment of training needs. Perceptions of training need were largely conditioned by the nature of the courses then available so it was necessary to introduce and demonstrate new patterns of provision and new styles of course before people could judge their relevance and effectiveness. The problem of judging need against what was currently provided had somehow to be overcome, and the development and evaluation of experimental courses had proved to be an effective way of tackling it.

The principal conclusions of this earlier research project were:

1 If in-service education was to be relevant to the professional problems of schools, the schools themselves had to play a significant role in promoting it and defining its character. The prevailing notion of in-service education as the transmission of knowledge about prescribed 'solutions' had to be replaced by one of co-operative problem solving in which the resources and experience of an external consultant were shared with those of the clients.

2 It was possible to design short courses which encouraged the genuine exchange of professional experience, fostered self-evaluation and introduced new perspectives, while still focusing on the problems and needs of the participants' own institutions.

3 Experienced teachers could be prepared for working in or with schools according to this alternative paradigm by means of a one-year full-time advanced course.

The advanced course which was developed as part of this earlier research programme subsequently became an MA in Curriculum Development and Educational Technology and soon began to attract applicants from the higher education sector as well as from schoolteachers. It was therefore proposed that a similar course should be developed to meet some of the needs for experience and expertise in educational development[3] in higher education. Such a course would require some prior research into training needs, but could also demonstrate new styles of in-service training, and hence contribute to a fundamental re-formulation of the role of in-service training in higher education. The aims of this research and development project, which began in October 1973 with the financial support of the Department of Education and Science, thus were:

1 To survey existing provision for training members of faculty in higher education institutions in educational development[4].

2 To investigate the needs for training in this field.

3 To design prototype courses, including a one-year full-time MA course, and to evaluate the effectivness of these courses.

4 To make recommendations about future provision.

NOTES

1 Throughout this report we have used the term 'training' to refer to all activities involving staff which are specifically designed to improve the quality of teaching. Although the term carries connotations of a prescriptive approach which we wish to avoid, we could find no adequate alternative. 'Education' is too confusing when the field of application is itself called 'higher education' and where the concept of the 'educated man' is still a dominant concern. 'Staff development' is even less satisfactory, because it is an aim rather than an activity. Training is just one type of activity which can assist staff to develop their talents; and the not uncommon notion is inherently misleading that staff can be developed (passive) rather than be encouraged to develop in their own way and of their own volition (active)(Eraut 1977b). For an alternative view however, see Piper and Glatter (1977)

2 These approaches are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3.

3 We use the term 'educational development' as an umbrella term that includes curriculum development, educational technology, and other activities designed to improve the quality of teaching in an institution.

4 For the purposes of this project, we took 'higher education' to include all universities, polytechnics, institutes of higher education and colleges of education, as well as those further education institutions which undertake a substantial proportion of degree level work.

This chapter gives a brief review of current provision for teacher training in further and higher education, for although our research is focused on in-service training and educational development, there are several reasons for setting it in this broader context. Firstly, the three main forms of provision in higher education - initial training courses, in-service courses and consultancy with teaching support units - are closely related in most institutions; and often the same person or the same unit is responsible for all three. Secondly, many initial training courses are also attended by a significant minority of more experienced teachers. Thirdly, most initial training and in-service courses touch upon at least one aspect of educational development and some allot it as much as half the time available.[1] Fourthly, the design and provision of initial and in-service courses is one of the main tasks to which our MA graduates find themselves committed. Finally, training policy and practice is usually a good indicator of the climate of an institution, and this is a critical factor in educational development.

TRAINING PROVISION IN FURTHER EDUCATION

The further education sector is transitional between the schools sector and the higher education sector in its attitude towards training. Training is not mandatory but it is strongly encouraged: the kind of training that is appropriate may be open to debate but the principle is not. About a third of the further education lecturers (out of a total of about 66,000) hold a teaching certificate and, a situation unlike that in the higher education sector, most of the provision for their training is external. Two routes to certification have been used previously - one via the colleges of education (Technical)[2] and one via courses leading to the City and Guilds Further Education Teachers Certificate.

The colleges of education (Technical) have all been created since the war and their main purpose has been to serve colleges of further education and technical colleges by providing a variety of courses suitable for specialist teachers. More recently they have included some polytechnic staff amongst their students. All have a basic pre-service certificate course lasting for a full academic year; a four-term certificate course for serving teachers in which two terms are spent at the college and two terms teaching at the student's own institution; and various day-release courses leading to certificates, diplomas and sometimes BEds[3]. These colleges have also extended their activities to provide networks of college centres which enable serving teachers to attend, on a part-time day or block-release pattern, courses lasting over two years. Garnett for instance has established centres in twelve institutions in the south of England. To provide some idea of size, Garnett, which is the second largest of the colleges, catered in 1975/6 for about 400 full-time pre-service students and about 500 part-time in-service students.

A shorter course leading to a Further Education Teachers Certificate[4] has been offered by the City and Guilds of London Institute since 1969. It is intended mainly for part-time teachers or for serving full-time teachers who have been able to take a full-time course of teacher training. Over 15,000 teachers have received this certificate and now about 2500 pass each

year. Students attend an 'approved' technical college for about 150 hours study on the 'principles and methods of teaching' and this includes a compulsory 30 hours teaching practice of which 12 hours must be under supervision. The syllabus is laid down by the institute but within this the approved technical colleges are responsible for the content and organisation of course work and examinations. The institute appoints area assessors who visit colleges and co-ordinate standards of assessment.

Courses for teachers in further education have also been offered for some years by the Royal Society of Arts and the College of Preceptors.

Although in a somewhat different category, it is also worth mentioning the Further Education Staff College at Coombe Lodge. Established in 1960 with the principle objective of improving the efficiency of further education establishments it has organized numerous study conferences and short courses for senior personnel in education, industry and government in which developments in the FE sector are analysed. Conferences have covered a wide range of topics such as science education, general studies, guidance, the management of change, etc. Significantly, it was a Coombe Lodge conference in 1973 which called for 'specific plans to be prepared for introducing the James Third Cycle into FE'. It was pointed out then that of the 50,000 FE teachers then employed only one third were teacher trained and that this meant there was a particular need for staff development programmes to improve teaching standards, to prepare staff for change and new responsibilities and to enhance job satisfaction'. (Coombe Lodge 1973)

> The James Report had recommended that:
>
> '... all FE colleges should have a suitably qualified member of staff designated as its professional tutor, with similar responsibilities for drawing up a training programme for its staff. All FE teachers in full-time servite should have the right to third cycle facilities on a scale not less than that suggested above for teachers in primary and secondary schools, and the many part-time specialists who work in FE should have opportunities to take suitable part-time courses of education and training.

This suggestion was supported by a joint ACFHE/APTI[5] working party which reported on staff development[6] in 1973. Amongst its recommendations were the following:

1. A senior staff member should be made functionally responsible for staff development.
2. The principal should have authority to approve the attendance of members at courses, conferences, etc.
3. A review should be made at college level of the effectiveness of the staff development programme.
4. Regular discussion about the teacher's performance should take place between teacher and departmental head.

These have now been accepted, at least in principle, by most colleges, and a number now have quite explicit and far-reaching staff development schemes, often linked with colleges of education (Technical) or their regional centres.

Another change which is likely to have far reaching implications for training is the reorganization of large areas of further education provision by two recently created bodies - the Technician Education Council (TEC) and

the Business Education Council (BEC). TEC in particular - partly because of the number of courses it will eventually validate and partly because of the rigorous demands it is making in connection with course design - is already creating a demand for training and support hitherto unseen in this sector.

In its own journal (TEC 1975) the council outlined its expectations as follows:

> 'Validation procedures will enable the Council to approve a college programme in terms of aims, structure, admission requirements, content and methods of assessment; to satisfy itself that the college has adequate resources to operate such a programme; and that the college has developed an adequate mechanism for ensuring continued acceptability of the programme to industry and other interested bodies.'

A series of policy statements and circulars have indicated the importance the council places upon the statement of clear objectives, the provision of suitable teaching methods to achieve these, and the setting of appropriate assessment standards to measure attainment.

The need for support for teachers in designing and implementing their courses in this way has been recognized and workshops have already been provided at Coombe Lodge, North East London Polytechnic, Garnett College and elsewhere. The Council for Educational Technology has designed a 'Learning Package for the TEC Unit Syllabus writers' intended for use by individual teachers or in workshops.

BEC has, as yet, not been influential in the training area. This is due mainly to the fact that a large part of the job of designing BEC courses will be undertaken by the council's own boards. In so doing it seeks to avoid both duplication of effort in individual colleges and escalation of curriculum development costs. Nevertheless the council hopes and expects that, gradually, colleges will wish to devise their own courses, and that this will lead to the demand for training and support already experienced in relation to TEC validated programmes.

The provision of teacher training in further education is clearly diverse and complicated but the long delayed publication of the Haycocks Report (ACSTT 1977), and the largely supportive circular DES 11/77 which followed it, have brought a new clarity to the situation.

The report recommends an obligatory one-year part-time period of in-service training for new entrants to the FE teaching service; and also proposes that about a third of the new entrants should have the opportunity of a second year of training, on the same basis as year 1 and leading to certification. An important aspect of the recommendations is the weight attached to regular release time for training purposes. All new entrants to full-time teaching with less than three years full-time teaching experience would be released for one day a week for a year and have a period of block release of about four weeks. They would have their teaching time reduced by 25 per cent during this period. It is further recommended that there should be at least one professional tutor in every further education college and that these tutors should themselves receive special training. These proposals should be implemented by 1981, by which time provision should be made for the equivalent of up to 5 per cent of the FE teaching force to be engaged in in-service training.

Circular 11/77 accepts the proposals for induction training but doubts whether they can be implemented by 1981, as originally suggested. It also considers that progress could be made towards a 3 per cent (not 5 per cent) target for in-service training without specifying when such a target might reasonably be expected to be reached. Local education authorities are asked to request the regional advisory councils to prepare and submit plans

on the basis of the guidance offered in the ACSTT report, giving priority to systematic induction for staff without previous training or teaching experience.

Planning is now under way and it looks as though most of the new provision will be validated by the CNAA. Several institutions have submitted proposals to the CNAA for providing ACSTT-type courses for FE teachers. The council, for its part, has set up a further education board and begun the process of validating courses, most of which lead to the award of a Certificate in Education after two years of part-time study.[7] Several courses have now been approved. The Council is also discussing the possibility of 'transfer of credit' arrangements with the City and Guilds Institute, the Royal Society of Arts and the College of Preceptors; and has agreed in certain circumstances to allow some remission to teachers taking CNAA-validated certificate courses who have previously obtained a City and Guilds (730) Certificate.

A general format for these CNAA-validated courses now appears to be developing. While there are many variations between institutions, most of the courses include the following topics: FE in its social and historical context, the characteristics and needs of students, course planning, factors influencing student learning, teaching methods and assessment. All include a period of supervised teaching practice.

Two further ACSTT reports have now been published but neither has yet been commented upon by the DES: 'The Training of Adult Education and Part-Time Further Education Teachers' (March 1978) and 'Training Teachers for Education Management in Further and Adult Education' (August 1978). Both seek to extend training requirements in these areas and bring them into line with those recommended in the first ACSTT report. Reactions to these later reports are now being sought from local education authorities and regional advisory councils.

COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

Colleges of education differ from other higher education institutions in their training needs for two main reasons:

1 Nearly all their staff are qualified teachers, and most of them are also very experienced teachers. So there is little apparent need for training related to their teaching function.

2 Most staff are recruited in mid-career and need postgraduate qualifications to participate fully in the teaching of diversified and upgraded courses. Hence colleges have an excellent record in seconding staff to advanced courses and supporting further study.

Their position, however, is not that simple. Teaching in a college is very different from school teaching. The problems of course design are particularly difficult in teacher education. Linking theory with practice in professional training is a challenging task for which school teaching provides little preparation. The supervision of teaching practice is an entirely new role for college teachers, especially when it involves types of schools in which they have never taught. Perhaps the special advantages of having a staff of qualified teachers have created a sense of false security. Certainly very few colleges mount either induction or in-service courses for their staffs and it is unusual for secondments to be used to strengthen anything but subject expertise. Most college staff who have taken courses in educational development have been expected to teach it to students rather than apply it to improving the college's own teaching.

Until recently the main source of in-service provision related to college teaching was the programme of courses organized by the Department of Education and Science. Many of these courses concerned educational technology, and it is in this area that an important attempt to improve college teaching on a co-operative basis was initiated by the Council for Educational Technology in 1972.

The Colleges of Education Learning Programmes Project began with the aim of supporting the application of the principles and practices of educational technology to the education and training of school teachers. The intention was to involve the colleges in the production of learning packages which would prove useful in the initial training of teachers. As the project proceeded, more and more attention focused on the needs of college teachers as they themselves defined them: and this rarely led to inter-institutional production of packages. A recent article by the co-ordinator (Neville 1976) indicates this shift of emphasis towards one of the earliest stated aims of the project - self diagnosis of needs.

> 'What the (college) principals in their wisdom told the team was that if changes were to be effective with tutors what was needed apart from patience was not a prescriptive but a diagnostic approach to tutors' perceived problems; information on solutions for those who had diagnosed their own problems, with a consultancy service to help others define clearly what their problems really were.
>
> 'It is not unrealistic to summarise the performance of the project by saying that it has generally failed when it has succumbed to the temptation to be prescriptive and succeeded when it has worked with tutors towards a clear diagnosis of their own problems.'

The main outcomes of the project are the CELPIS catalogues of materials, the CELP consultancy service and a workshop/conference service. The workshop conferences[9] usually last for about four days and cover themes related to curriculum development and educational technology. They are arranged by the project team[10] at the request of colleges, and again the comments of the co-ordinator are significant (particularly in view of the findings of our own research).

> 'The two key factors in the success of these workshop conferences have been the detailed planning to ensure a close match with the perceived needs of the participants and the availability of skilled consultants .... It is this ability to bring in outside experts both to plan and to expedite the workshops that has made them a particularly valuable contribution to the Staff development programme at the colleges of education.' (Neville 1976)

It remains to be seen whether this growing interest in improving the quality of college teaching will survive the traumas of closures, mergers and diversification. Certainly the preparation and validation of new BEd courses has given opportunities for new thinking about structures even if the classroom has disappeared behind a flurry of paper diplomacy. The urgency of diversification has turned attention away from empirically-based curriculum development and the quality of teaching towards the composition of proposals and the acquisition of higher qualifications. However, the seeds of growth are there for those who can spare time away from the politics of survival. Substantial numbers of college staff have begun to participate in higher education conferences, research into and evaluation of teacher education courses is becoming more frequent (Alexander 1978; Collier 1978), and the need to expand in-service work may well result in changes in teaching style which transfer back to pre-services courses.

UNIVERSITIES

Although the Association of University Teachers (AUT) had approached the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals with proposals for the training of university teachers in 1961, it was perhaps characteristic of the university sector that the Hale Committee which reported on university teaching methods in 1964 recommended a central body to promote a programme of research. On training it was more equivocal because:

> 'the weight of university opinion was decidedly in favour of leaving this matter to be dealt with informally at a departmental level.'

However, the majority of university teachers were in favour of the view that 'newly-appointed university teachers should receive some form of organised instruction or guidance on how to teach.' The committee therefore concluded that:

> 'the present arrangements, if such they can be called, seem to us to be more haphazard than is desirable, and result in much university teaching being less effective than it should be.'

After Hale, research into teaching methods was encouraged, chiefly among psychologists, and began to be disseminated by lectures, books and conferences: the Society for Research into Higher Education was founded, and the University Teaching Methods Unit was created at the London University Institute of Education (cf Beard (1970) for an excellent account of this approach).

Another committee, chaired by Sir Brynmor Jones, reporting on 'Audio Visual Aids in Higher Scientific Education' in 1965, also emphasized research, together with the provision and co-ordination of equipment and facilities. One or two universities had already founded audio-visual centres, and the UGC funded 'high activity centres' for the 1967-72 quinquennium. This educational technology tradition developed rapidly during the late 1960s with a strong emphasis on television (Maclean 1968), though some units also took a broader 'educational development' perspective (MacKenzie 1970).

Training courses, both initial and in-service, began to be more frequent, though they received little official encouragement. Moreover, they tended to reflect the interests of those who offered them rather than the needs of those who attended them. Lectures were dominated by reports of research, exhortations to experiment and demonstrations of visual aids; and little actual training was given.

The National Union of Students, far from satisfied with the progress made, established a 'Commission on Teaching in Higher Education', whose report (NUS 1969) called for compulsory training for all lecturers. Among its many outspoken criticisms was the following:

> 'A new lecturer has a great deal to learn. He has to adjust himself either to a completely new environment or else to being on the other side of what is still very much a fence, to progress in one step from being taught to teaching itself. The arts and technique of lecturing are complex. To assume that a lecturer entering the profession will automatically have satisfactory abilities in this direction is of course nonsense.'

Two years later, in 1971, the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals set up a working group, in collaboration with the UGC and AUT,

to considar the future provision for the training of university teachers. The group reported a year later and amongst its suggestions were the following:

1 Each university should provide a 2-3 day induction for all new staff, covering the organization and government of the university, the central services provided and the teaching aids availabla.

2 Departments should offer induction to syllabusas, student progress, course loads, departmental policy and organization.

3 During his or her first year of service each new lecturer should be strongly encouraged to attend a course of initial training in university teaching extending over several terms or concentrated into two whole weeks.

4 Such an initial course should provide opportunity for the practising of basic teaching skills, and there should be an opportunity for new staff to receive help in improving their performance.

5 New lecturers should be allowed sufficient time for training purposes, and they might be appointed one month early to benefit from such training.

6 An experienced member of each departmant might be nominated to help new staff, by acting as counsellor or adviser; and an experienced member of each department should be rasponsible for keeping in touch with developments in teaching and learning in higher education so that he could advise the department on such matters.

7 After a period of three to seven years service, each lecturer should have the opportunity of attending one or more advanced courses for training, lasting one week; the object being to provide an opportunity for the dissemination and discussion of the results of recent research in teaching and learning and for the exchange of views on common problems. (Main 1975)

The working group also recommended the setting up of a co-ordinating committee to keep the training needs of teachers under continuous raview, to disseminate information, to encourage development, and to offer advice to univarsitias on the principles on which their internal training arrangemants might be drawn up.

The committee, called the Co-ordinating Committee for the Training of Univarsity Teachers, was set up in 1972. It included representatives from the CVCP, UGC, AUT and NUS. A full-time co-ordinating and research officer was appointed in 1973.[11] The work of the committee since that time has involved its members in (1) collecting and analysing university responses to the recommendations of the original working group, (2) surveying training provision in British universities, and (3) assisting universities and a number of educational organizations to explore current problems and future developments in staff training. Conferences and workshops on a national and regional level have helped to stimulate and support activities, particularly in training new lecturers and have considered, among other things, the implications of the recent agreement between the AUT and the Universities Panel on the question of probation.

The committee's publications Impetus and Nexus contain short articles and details of current activities.

Introductions or initial training courses are now almost standard procedure in most institutions. A recent report (Main 1975) stated that:

> 'All but four of the British universities offered a course for new teaching staff in 1974-5..... In addition to this, four of the Scottish universities and three of the Welsh colleges combine resources to offer joint courses on a regional basis.'

It is now estimated that 70% of new teaching staff in universities avail themselves of the opportunity to attend such courses. A course normally lasts for three or four days and combines an introduction to the organization and services available, with several sessions devoted to such topics as teaching methods, the preparation and use of audio-visual material, assessment, counselling and marking. There are wide variations in the content of such courses and the manner in which they are conducted.

These initial courses provide a useful first step, but they cannot be said to constitute a complete staff training programme. Attempts to extend the programme beyond the introductory phase have been sporadic and varied. Some universities organize follow-up seminars or workshops for newly appointed staff to which experienced staff are also invited. These generally deal, in more depth, with topics originally covered in the introductory course; and they sometimes lead to small groups being formed to carry out projects or to discuss each other's teaching problems. Others organize lecture programmes with outside speakers. The response is best described as 'patchy' and few universities would claim to be running successful in-service training programmes.

While the idea of initial training was gradually gaining official acceptance, teaching methods and educational technology units were themselves undergoing change (Eraut 1975a). Their interests broadened, the various traditions grew closer together and the more successful units were assimilated into the general life of their parent institutions. One recent development, the use of video-recording to analyse one's own teaching, draws on both the psychological and television production traditions: and it is now widely used on introductory courses. Many small groups of experienced teachers have also reviewed their teaching in this way, and a tradition of self-help groups has developed in some areas. Considerable impetus was given to these developments by two UGC-sponsored projects - the Small Group Teaching Project at East Anglia and Improving Teaching in Small Groups at University College, London - and by the small group teaching section of the Higher Education Learning Project (Physics).[12]

Educational technology units had always claimed with some justification that the most valuable form of in-service training was the co-operative production of audio-visual resources and learning packages; and now a new tradition of co-operative research and development on teaching methods was also beginning to evolve. Course evaluation became a major area of concern and joint investigations and experiments were carried out in which members of support units offered advice and assistance to academic departments. The rationale for this 'consultancy approach' to in-service education was being developed at Sussex throughout the period (Eraut 1972, 1975a, 1977a); and seemed to meet the need for a more clearly defined relationship between the support units and those whom they were supposed to support.

POLYTECHNICS

Though polytechnics inherited many of the traditions of the further education sector, they have increasingly taken on higher proportions of

degree-level work. Hence subject qualifications are as important as in universities but they still see themselves primarily as teaching rather than researching institutions. They were later than many universities and colleges in developing support services, but when they turned their attention to improving the quality of teaching and learning in the early 1970s, their approach was more 'businesslike' and progress was both more uniform and more rapid. By 1976 fifteen of the thirteen polytechnics had full-time posts for organizing in-service courses (Trickey 1976), twelve had made attendance on in-service courses mandatory for new staff (Mortimer 1975) and all but two had introduced induction courses. There is even the possibility that all polytechnics as well as colleges of further education will be considered subject to the recommendations of the ACSTT sub-committee on mandatory initial training with part-time release (see page 8).

Introductory courses usually last between two and ten days (Harding 1974; Mortimer 1975). They are rather longer than the corresponding university courses and provide specific training in lecturing, tutorial teaching and the use of visual aids as well as some familiarization with alternative techniques. Many polytechnics also have a follow-up programme of weekly meetings, and this too is sometimes mandatory. It offers the opportunity to return to the basic teaching methods in greater depth, giving greater attention to possible variations and to problems of student learning; and it is often at this follow-up stage that many educational development topics are first introduced - curriculum planning, evaluation and feedback, resource-based learning, etc.

These developments in initial training will be further consolidated over the next few years, but to what extent will they lead to parallel developments in the in-service training of experienced staff? Because the introductory course and its follow-up usually constitute the major part of a polytechnic's formally organized in-service training programme, there have been attempts to involve experienced staff at the follow-up stage rather than arrange a duplicate programme. However, many institutions do run an additional programme of short courses; and these courses frequently cover educational development topics. The commonest titles (Trickey 1977) are still AV and TV techniques, possibly reflecting the historical development of support services in polytechnics. As with the universities, the earliest appointments tended to be in the field of media services, though these were shortly followed by appointments more closely concerned with teaching methods and course design (Trickey 1977).

The total impact of formal in-service courses on experienced staff is probably still fairly small, but there are a number of factors peculiar to polytechnics which could alter this situation:

1 The National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education (NATFHE) may be seeking to follow up its 1974 policy statement on Educational Technology [13], which urged that in-service training should be provided at all levels',

2 The strong emphasis on initial training may expand as new staff acquire a taste for educational discussion.

3 Competition for students may lead to a greater focus on the quality of teaching, although we find no evidence for this yet.

4 Mergers with colleges of education and reductions in the number of teacher training places have caused some polytechnics to consider the possibility of transferring a part of this teacher training expertise into in-service work with their own staff. This

> seemingly logical step has not proved easy to implement due to differences between the skills and attitudes required in the training of school teachers and those necessary for successfully working with teachers in higher education. Nevertheless, a growing number of college staff have successfully adapted and are now contributing towards polytechnic training programmes.

More continuous pressure for the in-service training of experienced staff is provided by SCEDSIP, the Standing Committee for Educational Services in Polytechnics, which was formed in 1972. Although originally concerned with the advancement of educational service units for educational technology, audio-visual media and the production of learning resources, by 1975 it was already expressing interest in in-service training (Habeshaw 1975). Then in May 1976, recognizing the implications of the changes taking place as this sector of higher education was reorganized in a difficult economic climate, SCEDSIP issued a policy statement calling for particular attention to be paid to the continued development of educational development services, especially in-service training.

Another important factor could be the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). It is already clear that the council expects to see a well organized scheme of initial training when making a quinquennial visit; and if this extends to in-service courses for more experienced staff, many polytechnics will feel obliged to give it greater priority. In this connection it is interesting to note that the council set up a Resources for Learning working party in 1975, and that the working party's report argues that the effective use of learning resources depends to a considerable extent on the existence of a well designed and in-service training programme. It stresses the need for in-service courses and for opportunities for staff to follow up such courses with more sustained study elsewhere.

The implications of the Haycocks Report for polytechnics (ACSTT 1977)[14] are not entirely clear. They are specifically mentioned once in the report, but not all polytechnics see the proposals as applying to their own staff. Indeed, the London and Home Counties Regional Advisory Council for Technological Education summed up the position as follows:

> '... the Working Party is clear that Polytechnic staff on the whole believe that existing courses leading to the Certificate of Education are of little relevance to them and expect courses to take account of the differing needs of those teaching mainly advanced courses and those teaching mainly non-advanced courses.' (London and Home Counties RAC 1978)

In the London area, following consultation with SCEDSIP, a collaborative scheme was implemented to enable individual institutions to build on their existing provision from their own staff, while at the same time drawing upon the experience of their neighbours.

Thus the effect of the Haycocks Report on the polytechnics has been twofold. First, they have begun to involve themselves in the training of college staff; and second, they have been stimulated to increase their efforts to involve their own staff in institutional training programmes.

We must remember, however, that a well organized programme of courses does not guarantee either attendance or impact; and many polytechnic educational service units stress informal rather than formal in-service training. They would argue that the most productive in-service training arises out of collaboration in educational development between a department and an educational service unit. Hence, the most important outcome of a

formally mounted in-service course might be the improved communication between the participants and the staff of the service unit rather than a sudden enlightment or improvement in teaching skills. To organize courses without the staff who could follow up opportunities for educational development might in the long run prove to be an inadequate strategy.

THE NATIONAL ARENA

Although neither of the national initiatives advocated by the Hale and Brynmor Jones Committee was adopted, other less ambitious experiments were started with the encouragement of the DES in the maintained sector and the UGC in the university sector. The DES programme for introducing closed circuit television into colleges of education in the late 1960s was matched by UGC support for 'high activity centres' in universities during the 1967-72 quinquennium. Then, while this new support for educational technology was being consolidated, attention shifted to the initial training of lecturers. Throughout the 1970s working groups and committees at national level have been making recommendations about initial training, leading rather than following developments at institutional level; and we have already reported their findings as well as the strong support offered by the CNAA, the Council for Educational Technology and, until recently, the UGC.

In parallel with these changes at official level, the last decade has also seen a growth of interest in higher education research and teaching among learned societies and professional organizations. The Association for Programmed Learning and Educational Technology, the British Universities Film Council and the National Educational Closed Circuit Television Association provide for specialist interests while the Society for Research in Higher Education has expanded from its early concentration on teaching methods and psychological research.[15] Subject associations have also begun to hold regular meetings on higher education teaching, especially the Institute of Physics, the Chemical Society and the Institute of Biology. Many of these organizations now hold regular regional meetings as well as an annual conference; and they sponsor a wide range of publications. Whereas in 1967 one could have assembled all those with a professional or semi-professional concern for teaching in higher education into a single room, today one could not accommodate them at a large conference. Though interest may still appear to be very low within individual departments and institutions, there is now an active and complex network of people, activities, publications and organizations.

The significance for this report of this highly ramified network is twofold. Firstly, it helps to legitimate activities in individual institutions and the general climate in which training takes place. Secondly, it constitutes a major part of the training provision itself. It could indeed be argued that a careful introduction into the appropriate branch of the appropriate association was the best possible approach to in-service training for many lecturers.

The Nuffield Foundation was another important influence on educational development in higher education. It not only provided financial support for a series of inter-institutional projects but also publicized them and assisted with their dissemination, thus influencing the general climate of opinion rather more than most other grant-giving institutions. Though never explicitly concerned with training, the in-service education of the participants and their departments was always an implicit aim. On the one hand these projects were intended to exploit the possible advantages of inter-institutional co-operation in curriculum development, while on the other they were designed to create networks of self-help groups which could 'train each other on the job'. This second aim gradually increased

in importance during the course of the decade, while the first aim also underwent considerable modification (Newton 1977). Whereas the main aim of the first project (the Inter University Biology Project 1969-72) was to prepare and share learning packages (Dowdeswell 1974), this became only one of four sub-projects when the Higher Education Learning Project (Physics) was begun in 1973. This HELP project also researched into student motivation and developed techniques of small group teaching (Black and Ogborn 1977); unlike its predecessors, it ran several training courses for lecturers as part of the dissemination process.

More recently, the Nuffield Foundation has sponsored its own internal project in the form of a Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education (GRIHE). Though formally concerned with research, there was an implicit training function in the group's conferences and publications (GRIHE 1975), while network-building was an important aim, and the whole project has certainly had an influence well beyond the regular attenders at meetings of the professional associations we described earlier.

Finally, we should mention the increasing number of training courses which aim to recruit at regional or national level. The University Teaching Methods Unit at London University has been running short courses and seminar series for more than a decade (Beard 1974; UTMU 1976; Piper and Glatter 1977). Surrey University has also been a regular provider, especially for lecturers in mathematics, science and engineering (Elton and Kilty 1975). We shall not attempt to catalogue these shorter courses as the provision is constantly changing. However, it is now a reasonable expectation that the motivated lecturer will be able to find a course on his own topic at least once a year. Hence it would be a mistake to think that higher education lecturers are necessarily limited by the availability of courses within their own institutions.

Longer award-bearing education courses have also begun to recruit more students from further education and higher education and several courses at diploma, advanced diploma, BA and BEd level have become available. The CNAA have also (1980) received proposals for masters degrees for teachers in further education.

DEVELOPMENTS IN OTHER COUNTRIES

This review of provision would not be complete without some indication of developments overseas. In the United States, for example, short in-service courses for experienced staff were becoming quite common in the mid-1960s, especially in audio-visual aids, television and programmed learning. A more general approach to education development was beginning to be formulated (Eraut 1967; Haney 1968; Stewart 1969); and a few long (5-7 weeks) advanced courses for college and university staff were organized under federal auspices. By the early 1970s several universities had initiated doctoral programmes in educational technology, and a career pattern had become firmly established. The main approach to in-service education, however, was through consultancy by educational service units; and advanced training was concentrated on providing people to staff such units. Another development has been the increasing use of course evaluation questionnaires and the formal recognition of teaching proficiency as a major factor in promotion (Woodbury 1975; Flood Page 1974). Some graduate schools run courses in the teaching of their subjects, while others have introduced a Doctor of Arts programme for college teachers which gives equal weight to their subject and teaching expertise (Dressel 1977).

As in the UK, there is a flourishing network of specialist professional associations, and most subject associations have sections concerned with higher education teaching, some even running their own journals.

An excellent account of one of the most prominent educational service units is given in Davis (1976), and an important document which has influenced the thinking of many of those involved with training in this country has been 'Faculty development in a time of entrenchment' (Group for Human Development in Higher Education 1974). The cut-backs in American education preceded those in this country by about two years and the Change document was written in a way that reflected these changes but at the same time indicated how training and staff development could help in adapting to the new circumstances.

Outside the US and the UK there was very little interest in the in-service training of higher education teachers until the early 1970s. There were occasional courses on visual aids, but few systematic institutional attempts were made to improve teaching apart from the pioneering work of the Centre for the Study of Higher Education at Melbourne (Falk 1971) and the Institute for Studies in Higher Education in Copenhagen (Thomsen 1972). Recently, however, interest has expanded rapidly. There are several new programmes in Australian (Miller 1977) and Canadian universities, there is a national programme in Sweden (National Board 1977), and there have been a number of relevant conferences in Germany (Massey 1976), Ireland (Beug 1977) and the Netherlands.

NOTES

1 We do not in fact support a strong emphasis on educational development in initial training, but it is common practice.

2 Garnett, Bolton, Huddersfield and Wolverhampton. The last two are now parts of polytechnics.

3 In Wales teachers may obtain a Certificate in Education (FE) by following courses run jointly by University College, Cardiff and the University of Wales Institute of Science and Technology.

4 The certificates offered by the colleges of education (Technical) are equivalent to the teaching certificate obtained by school teachers, but the much shorter City and Guilds (730) certificate is not of equal standing although many well-qualified teachers take it.

5 Association of Colleges of Further and Higher Education and Association of Principals of Technical Institutions.

6 The term 'staff development' is rarely defined. In some contexts it appears to refer primarily to opportunities for in-service education and/or the acquisition of further qualifications, in others it seems to be a euphemism for redeployment. It can also refer to the careful grooming of staff for greater managerial responsibility, though this meaning which is common in industry is rarely found in education. For further analysis see Glatter (1973).

7 Over a dozen such courses had been submitted at the time of writing, and several were already approved and running.

8 Since this species was rapidly disappearing during the course of our research, we use the term to include all faculties or departments

which existed as separate colleges when we began in September 1973.

9 The term workshop conference is used because most of these 'courses' have been an amalgam of the two: some sessions being workshops, others being small group or plenary discussions.

10 The project ended in 1976 but the Council for Educational Technology still provides advice and support.

11 This first 3-year appointment was followed by a second, which ends in 1981. Both have been university teachers on temporary secondment rather than permanent administrators.

12 This inter-institutional project (commonly called the HELP project) involved seven universities and one polytechnic. It was funded by the Nuffield Foundation and is briefly discussed on page 16.

13 This statement was issued by the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutes (ATTI), prior to its amalgamation with the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education (ATCDE) to form NATFHE.

14 This is the report on the training of teachers in further education, which was discussed on pages 7 and 8.

15 The report of SRHE's 1976 conference on Staff Development is of special interest, as it discusses several of the issues raised in this chapter.

METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEMS IN ASSESSING TRAINING NEEDS

Many of the pressures for the initial training of lecturers stem from the generally agreed need to prevent the kind of teaching that provokes an immediate volley of complaints from students. But it is difficult for the response to these pressures to remain at the same superficial level. If the aim is to induct new lecturers into the profession it must surely be counterproductive to convey the view that teaching competence is nothing more than audible talk and legible chalk. However, any attempt to deepen the perspective involves making judgements about training needs which inevitably derive from implicit models of 'good teaching' or the 'good teacher' and there is much less general agreement about these. Concern about initial training can therefore stem either from the suspicion that over simplistic views of the teaching process will be promulgated or from the anxiety that an institutional definition of 'good teaching' might emerge which was incompatible with many teachers' own ideas and practice. In our view many of these concerns are justified, and we do not see opposition to initial training coming only from academic reactionaries. If one year is considered almost too short a time for preparing schoolteachers, it is not unreasonable to argue that an introductory course of only two or three days might do more harm than good in preparing for the no less challenging task of teaching in higher education. The purpose of raising this issue, however, is not to debate initial training but to point out that one particular conception of initial training is unlikely to prevail at a time when there is little consensus on precisely what constitutes 'good teaching.'

Our survey of current training provision (Chapter 2) also indicated that nearly all formally organized training is initial training. This helps introduce newcomers to the profession without casting any doubts on the quality of existing teaching; and therefore offers little challenge to established practice. In-service training for experienced staff, however, presents a considerable threat. Not only does it imply that there may be lecturers who need training in spite of the fact that they have been teaching for some years but also that there are those who think they can provide training. Both personal autonomy and professional status appear to be challenged and even modest enquiries about training needs are likely to evoke hostility.

Moreover, in the absence of alternative forms of training for experienced staff, advanced training is still seen in terms of the dominant image of initial training, the only difference being a marginal increase in the level of sophistication. In most educational institutions, people tend to perceive training as a highly formal process in which theoretical information of a very general nature is disseminated from an expert to a group of novices. Hence the implication of any proposal to introduce in-service training is that experienced staff are 'deficient', and little different in their teaching capabilities from their newly recruited colleagues. As very few lecturers have any conception of a problem-based seminar or workshop, in which expertise is shared and the leader functions as a 'process helper',[1] they are unlikely to declare a need for one. Even educational development is unfamiliar territory because, like teaching, those who undertake it seldom see it as subject for study and reflection.

There is little to be gained by questioning people about training needs when neither the content nor the teaching style which might be most appropriate is likely to lie within their normal range of options. Such training needs do not often get expressed as wants.

Another approach to determining training needs is to analyse personal and/or institutional problems and than subsequently to assess the extent to which appropriate training might contribute to solving them. Such an analysis would involve extensive institutional research and/or identifying and interviewing groups of people who are willing to express considered views. In neither case can one be sure of general agreement; and even if the nature of the problem is agreed, it is unlikely that links with in-service training can be easily established. Those who are highly perceptive about institutional problems can still fail to see the possible relevance of training, being bound by a vision of training as a formal low-level answer-providing activity, quite unsuitable for experienced faculty.

THE RESEARCH STRATEGY

During the course of the project, three different kinds of inquiry were made into institutional problems: (1) senior management and heads of teaching support units were consulted in the first 'pilot' phase; (2) case studies were prepared of four individual institutions, and these included interviews in which problem identification played a major role; (3) students on the Sussex MA course undertook small-scale projects in institutional research which often disclosed important perspectives.

These investigations have together helped to build a coherent view of common institutional problems, but it is unlikely that many people will be convinced by this evidence alone that in-service training is relevant to their solution. As most of those concerned with higher education have little idea of what advanced courses can achieve, the value of such training cannot just be argued: it has to be demonstrated.

In the light of these anticipated difficulties, it was decided from the outset to give equal emphasis to a third possible approach to the assessment of training needs - the development and evaluation of experimental courses. Visits to a wide range of institutions in higher education would provide the contextual background for the experimental courses, while previous successful experience with school teachers would guide teaching style and method. Hence we anticipated a problem-oriented course with maximum student participation, based on seminars, workshops and projects. The prolonged interaction between all participants, both students and staff, would lead to further modification of our preliminary analysis of training needs; and the students' evaluation of the courses for their perceived relevance and significance, before and after returning to their 'home' institutions, would confirm or deny the validity of our original prognosis.

It should be noted, however, that this incorporation of experimental courses into our research design introduced an element of hypothesis-testing. The researchers' assumptions that certain aims were relevant to both personal and institutional needs, and that taught courses could achieve these aims to an acceptable degree can be regarded as hypotheses which could be tested by running experimental courses. The adequacy of this testing would then depend on the quality of the evidence provided by the course evaluations - an issue to which we shall return in Chapter 5.

One limitation of this experimental approach was that evidence on the usefulness and achievability of those objectives which were included in the trial courses was bound to be greater than that on objectives which were neglected. Thus our research design was oriented towards determining priorities within our intended field of educational development and not assessing the merits of any other forms of training. We did not expect to

be in a position to evaluate the programmes of initial training described in Chapter 2, merely to ascertain the advantages of supplementing it with advanced in-service training in educational development.

Our research aims, therefore, were as follows:

Aim 1 To survey existing provision for training staff in educational development.

Aim 2 To investigate the needs for training in this field.

Aim 3 To design prototype courses, including a one-year full-time MA course, and to evaluate their effectiveness.

Aim 4 To make recommendations about future provision.

However, as a direct result of the methodological problems discussed above, Aim 2 – the investigation of training needs – could not be pursued in isolation from Aim 3 – the development and evaluation of prototype courses. To facilitate the latter we planned a pilot year in which we:

1 Surveyed existing provision – (Aim 1)

2 Visited a large number of higher education institutions to discuss institutional problems and training needs – (Aim 2)

3 Collected case material and prepared the first MA course – (Aim 3).

The survey of existing provision was based on visits, reading the literature and attendance at relevant conferences. This information was updated throughout the project, and the broad picture which emerged is reported in Chapter 2.

The Nuffield Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education, with whom we were closely collaborating, were visiting universities and had agreed to make their findings available to us. So we restricted our visits during the pilot phase to six polytechnics and five colleges of education. In each institution we interviewed the director or his deputy, and the head of the teaching support units or co-ordinator of staff training. As expected, senior management had rarely given detailed consideration to the content, mode and duration of advanced training; and though they generally declared themselves in favour, it was difficult to assess what priority they would give it in practice, especially when the interviewer so obviously had a vested interest. However, they were prepared to talk freely about institutional problems without showing any special concern for the possible relevance of training; and from this we were able to identify a group of issues with which our courses would have to contend. Other rather different issues emerged from our discussions with heads of support units; and there were some interesting variations in emphasis between universities, polytechnics and colleges of education. (2)

The pilot year resulted in a preliminary formulation of training needs in educational development, which we were then able to test, refine and modify during the second and third years of the project. Three types of activity contributed to this reassessment.

1 We undertook four case studies of individual institutions, spending about a week in each interviewing teachers and students about institutional problems and in-service training. We chose a university, a polytechnic, a college of education and a technical college offering a high proportion of degree work. These case studies are reported in Chapter 4.

2 The first MA course was based on the project's initial assessment

of training needs and offered considerable opportunities for its evaluation. By close interaction with the students, all of whom were experienced teachers in higher education, we hoped to discover how well it matched their own assessment of training needs and to which aspects they would give priority. Their own assessment would itself be refined and possibly modified by the fieldwork undertaken in their home institutions; and this would, in turn, help to deepen our understanding of some of the institutional problems identified during the pilot phase. Moreover, several months after completing the course the students would be in a particularly good position to make critical comments. Their increased awareness of the range of training possibilities would remain, but the 'halo' effect would have worn off.

3 Short prototype courses away from the Sussex base (see page 71) provided the opportunity for informal but highly relevant discussions about institutional problems; and, occasionally, about the provision of in-service training.

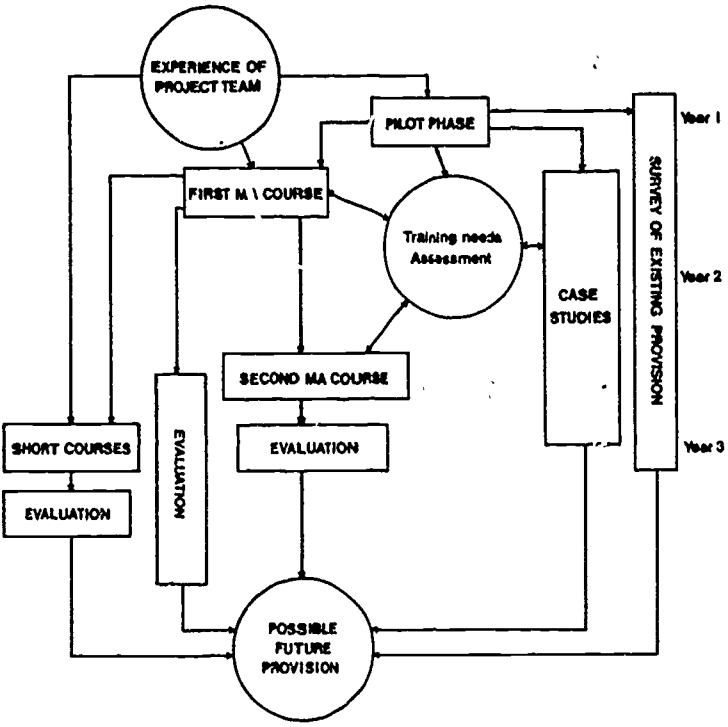
Returning to the third aim - the development and evaluation of prototype courses - our limited time and resources restricted us to two 1-year MA courses and three 3-5 day courses. Given the need for a pilot year, only two 1-year MA courses could be run before the end of the project and only the first group of students could be followed up several months later. Hence the first course was more thoroughly evaluated than the second. The details of the evaluation are included in the report on the MA course in Chapter 5.

It was originally intended to run a 1-term course and possibly a 1-month course at Sussex but this proved impracticable, largely because of the demands of potential students. It appeared that lecturers who saw themselves as future specialists in educational development wanted an award, and this could only be granted after one year of full-time study or its part-time equivalent.[3] While, at the other end of the scale, one week was the maximum length of time which non-specialists would be prepared to spend on an in-service course. Moreover, the problems of a 1-week course were so different from those of a 1-year course or even a 1-term course that this offered quite a different kind of challenge to the project team. Some courses of 2-5 days were already being provided on an occasional basis though usually with an emphasis on some specific skills, eg small group teaching in physics. We therefore decided to experiment with an area where we saw an unfilled need, that of course evaluation and the diagnosis of teaching problems at departmental level.

Another decision was to run the short courses at polytechnics, in co-operation with the local teaching support unit and recruit on a regional rather than a national basis. Planning and teaching courses jointly with other institutions enabled us both to benefit from their expertise and to pass on some of our own. It also had potential for building up a network of centres which could implement some of the project's findings. However, we underestimated the time it took to arrange and negotiate such courses and none of them could be mounted until the third year of the project, though this did allow us time to gain valuable experience with the MA course. As we had originally hoped, the MA course provided a workshop in which shorter courses could be forged, offering the freedom to experiment, to make mistakes and to receive constructive criticism. Moreover, the MA projects provided excellent case material for use on the short courses and on two occasions MA students helped with the teaching. This and other aspects of the short courses and their evaluation are discussed in Chapter 6.

Assessment was continuously refined as it both influenced and was itself modified by the pilot phase, the MA courses and the case studies. Such pooling of experience and evidence is a characteristic feature of 'action research' which makes the process, but not the result, difficult to describe.

Figure 1 OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH STRATEGY



GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL COURSES

Most of those interviewed during the pilot phase were concerned in one way or another with the problem of change, but they tended to view it from a variety of different perspectives. Senior management in polytechnics and colleges talked of 'coping with change' and were primarily concerned with institutional growth and survival or with changes in its function and status. On the one hand there were the problems of financial cuts, mergers

and contracting or changing demand, while on the other there was the term-by-term business of getting courses approved by CNAA. Some saw course design as an important topic for advanced training but none linked the idea of training with the broader problem of coping with change.

Heads of teaching support units echoed this concern for the problems of getting courses validated, but tended to be less aware of other external pressures for change. Their perspective emphasized the need to stimulate internal change rather more than the need to cope with external change; and the main focus of their interest was the quality of the teaching rather than the function and status of the institutions. They were well acquainted with the range of possible teaching methods and hoped that in-service training might help increase the number of staff who were prepared to experiment with new approaches to teaching and learning, as well as improve the quality of more traditional forms of teaching. Such training, however, did not necessarily have to take the form of courses. Co-operative work between teaching staff and support units on specific development projects could result in 'training on the job', and also help to spread interest and enthusiasm.

Our own perspective was different yet again. While not wishing to deny the importance of course design and innovations in teaching and learning, we felt that these provided an inadequate base for educational development. People needed to acquire a deeper understanding of institutional problems, backed if necessary by small-scale research, if they were not to misdirect their efforts. It is too easy to treat the symptoms and ignore the disease, or to mould one's perception of the problem to fit a preconceived solution (Eraut 1975ab). Evaluation is at least as important as development, particularly when associated with problem diagnosis rather than routine troubleshooting. Moreover, there is a danger in regarding innovation solely in terms of the individual entrepreneur. Both evaluation and development have to be seen as social processes in which all those affected are actively involved; and interpersonal skills are of critical significance. Then, finally, there was the need for a greater awareness of possible academic structures and their likely effects at a time when many institutions were undergoing fundamental change and debates on issues of this kind tended to be particularly ill-formed.

Taking into account this broad range of views we drew up a preliminary list of possible objectives for advanced training both to serve as a basis for further discussion and to assist us in the design of our experimental courses. This list is reproduced in Appendix A and indicates our general orientation at the end of the pilot phase and the start of the first MA course.

A further problem during the pilot phase was deciding whom we expected to recruit for the first MA course and what kind of institutional role we hoped they might ultimately fulfil. Until we had a chance to test the market we had to rely on evidence from parallel studies of successful and unsuccessful attempts to promote innovation in teaching in higher education (GRIHE 1975; Eraut 1977a). Although these were largely based on experience in universities, we had no reason to suspect that the more centralized organizational structures found in the maintained sector would greatly reduce the dominant influence of the department or school of studies. Most innovations occur at departmental level and they are usually dependent on the commitment of one or more lecturers with a special interest in teaching. Although some of these lecturers go to conferences and publish articles about teaching, others are relatively isolated from external ideas and try out inventions of their own. Their main distinguishing feature is their willingness to invest time and energy

in thinking about, discussing and trying to improve their teaching; and this does not just come from a strong sense of duty but is probably an important facet of their personality. They are energetic people and their intellectual interest in teaching is comparable in magnitude to that which they have in their subject. Many would welcome the chance to develop their interest further by participating in an advanced course enabling them to share their experience, broaden their knowledge, develop more of a theoretical basis for their activities and acquire research and evaluation skills to supplement their intrinsic understanding of teaching problems. But few would wish to abandon their departmental base.

One solution would be the creation of specialist roles within departments which acknowledge the interests and experience of particular teachers, and which at the same time provide them with a recognized status allowing them to devote part of their time to advising their colleagues and experimenting with possible improvements in teaching. Some portion of their time might also be allocated to work outside the department on institutionally sponsored educational development or training activities. A first step towards the creation of roles of this kind might well be the training of teachers who could fill them. Thus, in addition to the need to prepare more candidates for posts within teaching support units and to provide opportunities for those already in such posts to undertake advanced training, we saw the possibility of stimulating the development of a relatively new kind of role - that of the departmentally-based educational adviser (or DBEA). We hoped that some of those who completed our MA course would be able to assume this DBEA role while others became institutionally-based educational advisers (IBEA) who worked full-time as members of teaching support units or co-ordinators of initial and in-service training. Moreover, early enquiries indicated that we would be able to recruit people with both kinds of aspiration. There were members of teaching support units who wished to broaden their experience and acquire new skills; there were several members of academic departments who had a history of involvement in new teaching initiatives, some of whom wished to adopt an IBEA role, some to maintain their departmental base.

In our short courses, by contrast, we wanted to provide support and encouragement for the intra-departmental innovators and to convince other lecturers with an interest in teaching that expanding that interest would be a stimulating and worthwhile professional goal. Perhaps short courses of an appropriate kind are one way in which a teaching support unit can attempt to increase the number of specially interested lecturers within each department.

Although the pilot phase played an important role in determining the content of our prototype courses, and influenced our thinking about potential students and their future roles, the question of teaching style was largely predetermined. Previous experience in helping faculty at Sussex and the Open University and in the in-service training of schoolteachers had led us to develop a non-traditional view of educational processes in in-service work, which we fully intended to test out in this new experimental context. Hence we gave priority to reports on people's own activities and problems, group discussions on common issues and carefully selected documents, and project work in which course members pursued, under guidance evaluation and development, tasks seen as relevant to their own teaching situations. The detailed rationales and designs of individual courses are discussed in Chapters 5 and 6, but we felt it would be useful to indicate the general orientation at this stage.

NOTES

1 The role of 'process helper' involves facilitating the exchange of experience and ideas and assisting a group to think constructively and co-operatively about their problems. It normally precludes supplying a group with ready-made answers (Havelock 1971).

2 These are described on pages 8 and 9 and further elaborated in Chapter 4. Six university teaching support units were visited in addition to those in polytechnics and colleges of education.

3 We had neither time nor resources to run a part-time MA course at that stage, but a part-time version of the MA course involving day release has now been negotiated and approved, and is described in Chapter 6.

INTRODUCTION

The second aim of our study - the assessment of training needs - was a constant preoccupation; and every aspect of our research can be said to have contributed to it in some measure. Within the context of the project itself we gathered evidence from:

1 Four case studies of individual institutions - a university, a polytechnic, a college of education and a technical college with a high proportion of degree-level work.

2 Constant discussion with MA students during and after their course.

3 Projects undertaken by MA students, many of which disclosed fundamental educational problems.

4 Discussions during the planning and implementation of the short courses.

This was supplemented by the on-going experience of the researchers as members of Teaching Support Units at Sussex University and the Open University, the Nuffield Foundation's Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education, CNAA panels, and university validating committees.

The modification and refinement of our perception of training needs is difficult to trace, as it slowly changed through interaction with students, colleagues and those we interviewed. But one part of our research - the case studies - stands out clearly as evidence of training needs that can be separately presented and assessed. We shall therefore base this chapter on the case study evidence; and use the other evidence to support the generalizations and qualifications which any interpretation of case studies inevitably demands.

The purpose of these case studies was threefold: (a) to assess institutional problems and the potential relevance of training to those involved in tackling them or diagnosing them[1]; (b) to see how educational development is perceived by those involved in it; and (c) to discover how training needs are percieved by people identified as being 'good teachers'. We were also interested in the problem of formally designated responsibilities for educational development and the potential roles of educational advisers[2]. But this interest was kept in the background as identification with it could easily have prejudiced the responses to our other questions.

Three main groups of people were interviewed in each institution:

A Those who have some formal responsibility for educational development within their institution, and who spend a significant proportion of their time on it. The leading members of groups developing courses for submission to CNAA might fall into this group, as would academic staff involved in media and consultancy services or in in-service training within their institution. We sometimes refer to this group as <u>educational developers</u>.

B Teachers who are recognized within their own departments as being especially interested, active and knowledgeable in educational development. While they may spend some of their time on formal institutional roles - for example, as key members of a teaching and learning committee - they spend most of their time in relatively close contact with students, either in teaching them or in planning or organizing their courses. It is these teachers who have normally been responsible for the 'numerous specific developments, usually conceived for some local or pragmatic purpose, assembled and implemented in often unique fashion' reported in the Nuffield studies of universities and polytechnics (GRIHE 1975). We refer to this group as keen teachers, because they are most easily identified by the keenness with which they pursue their teaching roles. Most of them are also perceived by their colleagues as 'good teachers', but it is more difficult to collect reliable evidence on 'goodness'. Moreover, our experience leads us to expect to find many good teachers who do not necessarily display this eagerness for innovation.

C Students of the above teachers. The purpose of the student interviews was firstly to gain a student perspective and secondly to check that people identified by their colleagues as keen teachers were also perceived as such by their students. In fact the evidence that the staff we identified as belonging to Group B were highly esteemed by their students was conclusive. They clearly stood out in students' eyes as being both enthusiastic and successful teachers.

Since the case studies had to be conducted concurrently with other parts of the research, we had to be realistic about their scale and scope. So we decided to concentrate on four institutions and to limit ourselves to at most two man-weeks in each, focusing our initial attention on staff from Groups A and B above. Random sampling is impossible in these circumstances, and we had to rely on people we knew in these institutions to make at least some appointments for us in advance. We were able, however, to ensure that they were very widely spread among departments and, as far as we could tell, they were not unrepresentative. Interviews with students in Group C took place during subsequent visits.

Details of the staff sample are given in Figure 2 for three of the case study institutions.

Figure 2 STAFF INTERVIEWED IN THREE INSTITUTIONS

	University	Polytechnic	FE College
Engineering technology	3	2	
Physical sciences/maths/computing	1	1	2
Pharmacology/food science/nursing	1	1	1
Management/law	2	2	
Social sciences/history	2	2	6
Languages		1	2
Fine arts/literature		1	2
Education	1	2	3
Teaching support unit/academic development	2	3	
TOTAL	12	15	16

The college of education did not lend itself to the same categorization and has therefore been excluded. Twelve staff were interviewed at the college, only two of whom belonged in Group A. Although a total of 55 staff were interviewed in all four institutions, the numbers in each one are not sufficient to justify the presentation of data in numerical form. So we have avoided using terminology that is unjustifiably precise.

INSTITUTIONAL AND SECTOR DIFFERENCES

In the course of our research major differences emerged between the perceived needs of the university and maintained sectors, which reflect their differing patterns of external control and internal organization. We shall examine some of these sector differences before proceeding to a more detailed analysis of the needs of each sector, as it helps to set the scene.

The universities are relatively autonomous; and they have considerable freedom within which to exercise discretion over academic matters. Their decision making is usually carried out through an elaborate committee structure aimed at providing a reasonable degree of participation by a large number of their staff.

The potential for innovation is very great but in the main is not exercised. The reasons for this have been much discussed in various reports, all of which point to a traditional conservation, a lack of real pressure and a reward system skewed towards research rather than teaching (Eraut 1975a, 1977a; GRIHE 1975, 1976; Newton 1976, 1979). Innovation, where it has occurred, has generally succeeded only where it has gained wide acceptance at the 'lower' levels, and the power structure is such that developments affecting teaching and learning are difficult to impose from above.

The work of the Nuffield group has indicated beyond very much doubt that most innovations result from individuals, and often do not spread much beyond those individuals, and this view was reflected in our own case study of a university. Occasionally, because of the activities of the departmental head or some other relatively senior figure, a development may involve an entire department, but the converse can also be true in that an interesting innovation is not only not copied, but actually disapproved of by the innovator's immediate colleagues. Furthermore, the committee structure can act as a brake on the spread of useful developments by offering opportunities to groups directly or indirectly opposed to them to delay seriously or halt their progress.

Individual teachers tend to find their satisfaction in developing their own teaching and their own part of the course. Developing or changing a whole course, however necessary it may be, represents an exercise of considerable complexity which is more often than not avoided by university teachers. Indeed, there seems to be a widespread assumption that the proper form of development in universities is the development of the individual teacher.

Polytechnics and most colleges of further education are in a quite different situation. They have an exacting paymaster close at hand in the shape of the local education authority, and although in the recent period of rapid growth resources have often seemed to be freely available, these institutions have limited freedom where resource-allocation is concerned. Although, like universities, they possess an elaborate committee structure, some individuals within the hierarchy can be seen to be exercising a strictly managerial type of decision-making power, in handling budgetary matters. Academically too these institutions are far from autonomous. Their degree awards are generally validated by the CNAA and often, since

many of their courses are highly vocational, they require the approval of a body representing the interests of the profession for which the students are being prepared.

These external influences coupled with a more bureaucratic managerial structure lead to a situation in which changes are more likely to be initiated and directed from above. Development clearly has a better chance of succeeding where it is accepted at grass-roots level, but it is still possible to impose and implement change from the top - a situation which would be almost impossible in most universities. It follows that the polytechnic system can and is more likely to initiate and support curriculum development involving whole groups, as well as individuals, and whole courses, as well as limited clusters of learning/teaching events. Indeed, if this had not been the case, the polytechnics would have been forced to invent a means of making it so; for most of their courses have to be validated through the CNAA, and this demands a submission which encompasses the course as a whole. True, CNAA submissions often fail if the people who actually have to teach the course have not been fully consulted, and are not committed to it, but the speed of consultation is to a large extent controllable and arrangements which can be implemented to accelerate the flow of information have a profound effect. Furthermore, the alternatives within the polytechnic system are usually a CNAA course or no course at all, which guarantees some co-operation even if this is difficult for certain individuals. Survival may depend upon a system of consultation and decision making which is comprehensive and rapid, and the interpersonal skills which make this possible seem to be particularly prized in curriculum development within the public sector. Individual teachers may develop their own corner of the curriculum in the same way as those in the universities, but they are seen to be only part of a curriculum development system which includes everyone, staff and students alike, and every event, from mass lecture to the tutorial.

Colleges of education are also tightly circumscribed where decision making is concerned. Before the days of diversification they were, in the main, strictly monotechnic, and their day-to-day financial decisions were not only subject to external scrutiny but restricted to the very limited scope considered appropriate to an establishment preparing students for a single profession. Particularly since the introduction of the BEd they have operated under a system in which all major academic decisions are arrived at somewhere between the very top of the hierarchy and an external power, which is usually vested in a university. In most colleges few decisions of any importance are delegated even to departmental level. Like the polytechnics the colleges of educations are therefore subject to powerful external influences where innovation is concerned, but, unlike the polytechnics, they often lack the necessary organization, experience and expertise to give adequate support to the innovation process which is a necessary if not sufficient condition for their survival. Restrictions in the number of teacher training vacancies, the need to diversify, amalgamation with polytechnics or other FE institutions, and exchanging CNAA for university validation - some or all of these have affected every college of education in the country. Those which have in one way or another reorganized to meet the new problems, as did the subject of the case study, have at least attempted to institutionalize the processes of change and recognize that the new wine will not easily fit the old bottles. It may be doubted whether all colleges have yet recognized the inadequate nature of their consultative and decision-making machinery, and this seems to be a particular problem where two or three highly disparate colleges are going through a process of largely involuntary amalgamation. In some cases, it may be doubted whether the requisite managerial skills exist,

and even if they do, they may not be easy to harness unless there is an acceptance of the need for structural change. Certainly, some of the projects presented by students on the MA course show a tendency to amalgamate in name only, and to go it alone, if necessary in open competition rather than in collaboration with their new partners.

PERCEIVED NEEDS IN THE UNIVERSITY SECTOR

For our case study we chose a university as different from Sussex as possible, a former college of advanced technology with a high proportion of students on sandwich courses, an urban location and close links with industry and the local community. Unlike some universities, where 'high activity' centres for educational development support services were built up in a relatively short time, the university has an Educational Technology Unit which evolved relatively slowly from modest beginnings as a response to demands from staff. Over a period of approximately ten years a small photographic studio was extended to include cine film, graphics and television facilities. A technical staff of fourteen was built up, and an academic staff of three now includes a director, a fellow in educational technology, and an organizing tutor in university teaching methods. Their activities are co-ordinated by an advisory committee of faculty members, who advise the director of the unit on:

1 The proper development of educational technology in the university.

2 The nature of the programme to foster involvement of educational technology in general teaching in the university.

3 Proposed schemes for training university teachers.

The cost of these activities was by comparison with most other universities a relatively high proportion of the annual budget of the university as a whole, thus reflecting the importance attached to them by the Planning Committee.

Most of the on-going educational development could be ascribed to the activities of teachers developing their own particular interests with their own students on their own courses. One or two, because of status or personality or both, had an influence of a wider kind, extending to their immediate departmental colleagues, and such activities could be seen to be at least approaching those that might be expected of a member of a support unit, although the individuals concerned had no special formal institutional responsibility as such. The degree of influence of the Educational Technology Unit was hard to assess but it was clear that many of those interviewed did make use of its services as and when the need arose. The impressions gained, however, was that it was seen as a back-up service rather than an active force for the stimulation of educational developments.[3]

Few of those interviewed thought that they possessed any special teaching skills of a formal and technical kind. Nor did they believe that the quality and effectiveness of university teaching would be improved by requiring new entrants to the profession to obtain teaching qualifications. Only one possessed such a qualification, and he did not believe that it had contributed greatly to his interest or skill in educational development. Skills might be developed, but not by formal training programmes because:

1 Skills can only be taught in a specific context.

2 Skills need the trainer and the student to work together.

3 Even if skills could be taught, they would be subsidiary to the ability to apply them appropriately in a given situation.

4 Skills may in the last resort depend upon innate qualities, so that one should aim to recruit the right kind of teachers, and encourage them to develop their talents.

One interviewee, who had experimented with many different modes and methods of teaching, had undoubtedly acquired a number of highly technical skills, but he had found it relatively easy to learn these by himself from books and journal articles.[4]

All were convinced that it was essential to be aware of students as individuals, and to build up satisfactory personal relationships with them; and this theme was developed almost as an alternative to the idea of training. The following points, taken from these interviews, show what was considered important.

1 An awareness of 'audience reaction'.

2 Tutors should learn as much from their students as students do from them.

3 There should be responsiveness to personal problems as well as to academic ones.

4 Seminars should be planned as joint learning sessions for both staff and students.

5 Mutual respect is an essential foundation.

6 I try to copy my own college and its close staff-student relationships.

7 I admired my professor who actually had some sympathy for us undergraduates.

There were several references to self-evaluation, not so much as a skill which these teachers saw themselves as possessing, but as something they wished to have more of. Some seemed to be well aware that feedback from their colleagues and their students was a crucial element in this, but only one had attempted a systematic evaluation of one of his courses; and this was to some extent part of his professional subject expertise as an educational researcher.

Although the processes of educational development enjoyed a favourable climate at university level, at least in so far as this can be judged by the resources made available for the purpose, many of those interviewed thought that the greatest constraint on their development work was the attitude of their colleagues, particularly that of their senior colleagues. It was clear, however, that the institutional climate for innovation was much reinforced by the local climate of the departments; in some, professors were either involved in or actually leading development activities; in others the trend was in the opposite direction. An unfavourable climate often seemed to be associated with a closed system in which teaching was almost a secret activity which one did not discuss with one's colleagues. Half of the teachers interviewed said that almost the only information they could glean about other people's seminar rooms was what students volunteered, often quite by chance, in the course of conversation. It is

characteristic of many innovators that they want to know what is going on both in their own institutions and elsewhere[5], and these university teachers were no exception to this.

The only other factor to emerge strongly when people were speculating on what had made them into 'good teachers' was experience outside the usual academic career path. In a university with a technological origin and with close contacts with industry, it was perhaps not unexpected that many teachers should have had this sort of experience, but it was remarkable how many of them thought that it exerted a crucial influence on their becoming innovatory teachers. Of experience of this kind they said that:

1 It should be a prerequisite for appointment as an academic.

2 Problems could be seen against their proper social context.

3 It showed what teaching could be like if properly planned.

4 It showed what students were really capable of when removed from the purely academic environment.

5 It suggested that traditional subject boundaries were not very useful in real-life situations.

It would be difficult to devise any feasible form of training which could provide this kind of experience, although several of those interviewed said that their national service days had done just this for them. If non-academic experience were found to be as valuable as its possessors claimed, it might be one of the criteria for identifying potential educational developers, rather than a component of their training.

PERCEIVED NEEDS IN THE MAINTAINED SECTOR

Our interviews in the maintained sector were heavily influenced by recent institutional history. The technical college had a long history of developing and implementing new courses at a range of levels, including several degree courses. Though the pace of development had been accelerating it was in a relatively stable state and staff were able to reflect on their experience and give considered views. The college of education had successfully developed and obtained approval for an Honours BEd degree much earlier than most other colleges; and they were 'flush with success', in spite of an imminent merger with the local polytechnic. The polytechnic in our case study, however, had already merged with one college of education and was about to absorb a second. Their ambitious proposal for a Combined Studies degree incorporating both BA and BEd programmes had recently been rejected, so our visit took on some of the characteristics of a post mortem.

We begin by considering the pathology of this ill-fated combined studies proposal because it reveals the kind of atmosphere that has prevailed in many parts of the maintained sector during the recent curtailment of teacher education. At first we did not seek to ask any questions about the proposal but it came up so often in our interviews that, in pursuance of our interest in training needs, we sought opinions as to why it had not been successful. The answers, some of them carefully argued and some couched in more emotional terms, fell into three categories according to whether people blamed CNAA procedures, external 'Conspirators' or the institution itself.

The main criticisms of CNAA procedures were not unfamiliar to us, as

we had heard them in other contexts; but not all of them were reasonable. The more cogently argued criticisms were:

1 That the composition of the panel had varied a great deal during the course of the negotiations.

2 That the handling of integrated courses by subject specialists did not always do them justice.

3 That the handling of the part-whole problem had been unsatisfactory: ie critics of parts were not always aware of the structure of the whole, and vice versa.

The first is disconcerting, though it is difficult to assess its effect. Given CNAA's reliance on part-time panellists, who hold positions of responsibility in their home institutions, it is not easy to see how this problem could be avoided. The last two criticisms, however, point to difficulties which are inherent in any validation system. It will always be a matter of judgement as to whether their effect is significant enough to prejudice a 'fair trial', and we are in no position to make such a judgement without pursuing the matter further than our own research would warrent. Nevertheless, it is important to note that problems of integration and part-whole relationships also arise during the development of a course and when giving it internal approval. Would greater attention to these issues at an earlier stage have helped to anticipate some of the problems which later arose during validation?

We shall not dwell on the external conspiracy theories, though their very existence was an indication of the pyschological climate. Neither DES nor the neighbouring college were in any position to influence the validation decision. The internal weakness theories, however, were of special relevance to our research; and all three were related to problems we had encountered in other college-polytechnic mergers. Briefly, these internal explanations of the proposal's rejection were as follows.

1 The former college of education, having had its awards validated by the local university, had no expertise in the important new area of CNAA submission-designing, so that the proposals had been put together by people who were experienced in this but who were not going to teach in the new degree course; CNAA accordingly found not only a lack of commitment but a lack of familiarity on the part of those who were actually going to do the teaching.

2 Fears for their future employment prospects led one particularly powerful subject group to inflate their own contribution to the future "Ed so much that not only were the resultant proposals seen to be unbalanced by CNAA, but they were naturally poorly supported by colleagues, who felt that they had been cheated out of their fair share of the teaching load.

3 The reduction in teacher-training places meant that there was fierce competition between different establishments, and the consequent pressure to produce a scheme for implementation in September 1976 ('or else we'll lose out altogether') had resulted in a botched-up rush job, in which there had been far too little consultation with those who would actually have to teach on the new course.

It is unlikely that any single cause of the proposal's rejection could be substantiated, but some of the reasons outlined above may at least have

formed part of the total pattern of events which led up to it. Moreover they point to factors which are important in any large-scale piece of curriculum development: the need for co-operation, consultation, good management and the sharing of expertise.

In discussing what had been learnt from this experience, several important suggestions were made.

1 There is a premium on social and political skills which involve people and facilitate co-operation. Reaching a fair compromise between the many, sometimes violently opposed group interests calls for a degree of political sophistication which is not often found among those who initiate the planning let alone those who are later required to participate.

2 There is a need for time. Even without the time constraints perceived by institutions and individuals in a state of competition, there is the time constraints imposed by the need to maintain the old order while simultaneously planning the new; or, more concretely, to arrange for teachers who already carry a full teaching load to devote to detailed planning an adequate amount of time, which is not likely to be available during normal working hours. Moreover, it is not just planning time but consultation time which is needed.

3 There is a need for anxiety-reduction. Fears that the institution as a whole would suffer through not being able to offer an Honours BEd. and that individual employment prospects would be at risk, probably had an effect on both the shape of the proposals and their timing. Purely educational issues are likely to receive inadequate consideration where individual or institutional survival is at stake. This already difficult situation was exacerbated by lack of reliable information from both inside and outside the institution.

4 It is important at such a time to re-evaluate the scheme itself and the processes which gave rise to it. Those explanations which identified weakness in the scheme did at least suggest possible remedial action. Those which concentrated on blaming others were more likely to inhibit, not foster, any productive further development.

These needs were all referred to by one or more of the people interviewed; and again it is noticeable that the emphasis is on politics and organization, climate and attitudes. The implication is that skills in course design, if they exist (and some of those interviewed thought they did), are unlikely to be applied unless the organizational and attitudinal context is appropriate.

In other areas of the polytechnic we found 'keen teachers' relatively unaffected by the trauma of the combined studies proposal, who talked with us in a relaxed manner more akin to that of the university teachers reported earlier. Few of them thought that their success had been due to the possession of any particular technical skills of teaching; and the one who was something of an exception to this had experienced little difficulty in finding out about those techniques that he had identified as being useful in his particular situation. Other interviewees referred to such qualities as an awareness of student need and receptivity to feedback, qualities which emerged equally strongly in the case study of the University. Those who had previously worked outside teaching (the majority, in fact) had found the experience valuable in their educational activities, but it was noticeable that, unlike the university teachers, they did not perceive

their possession of such experience as being at all unusual. Perhaps the closer vocational orientation of polytechnic courses produces a teaching body which is likely to have had some experience of the practice of their profession in a non-academic situation. It was also noticeable that even those teachers who had been unaffected by the combined studies degree negotiations described above were, on the whole, conscious of their activities as being part of a course which was being implemented by a team; and this general attitude was in contrast to the unspoken assumption of some of the university teachers that educational development could be equated with the improvement of the performance of the individual teacher rather than with the co-ordination, within the design of a single course, of the activities of a number of teachers.

A number of interviews with students showed that they, too, usually thought of educational development in terms of improving the standard of individual teachers: eg 'statistics was relatively easy, it was only the teaching that made it difficult'. When asked to consider the course as a whole, the most important point that emerged was their need for information on this. Many of them had found their courses to be rather different from the picture drawn for them by the prospectus, and on the whole they had had to find out for themselves - few of their teachers were knowledgeable enough about anything but their own subject speciality to be able to discuss the courses as a whole.

The college of education which we selected was a complete contrast. We were not aware of recent difficulties with submissions when we chose the polytechnic, but our subsequent choice of a college which had had early success with proposals to the CNAA was deliberate. We thought that it might have views on training that were particularly relevant to other colleges in the future, though we did not anticipace the extent to which every interview quite spontaneously focused upon the planning, implemantation, evaluation and development of their Honours BEd degree course.

Many of those interviewed stressed the crucial nature of the planning groups set up to consider the initial submission to CNAA. The college had formerly possessed eighteen small subject departments, and these were later re-grouped into five larger departments in the way outlined in the Houghton Report, but most of the significant central planning was carried out by two specially set up bodies which cut across the normal departmental and committee system. One was a CNAA ad hoc working party, which consisted in the main of senior members of staff. On the whole it concerned itself with working out and supporting the ideas originating from the second group, a research and service unit. This comprised members of staff from a variety of different departments and of differing levels of seniority, but principally chosen for their informal influence within the college, their ability to communicate (all of them were well known within the Senior Common Room) and, although this may not have been obvious at the time, their orientation towards innovation. To these two seminal groups were attached sub-groups and working parties, usually chaired by a member of one of the two main groups.

This arrangement seems to have worked well. Ideas which arose were discussed across all subject and departmental boundaries, and those that survived were then scrutinized by the ad hoc working party, one of whose members described his role as follows:

> Although not really an innovator, I was prepared to take a radical point of view, if it were shown to be logical, and to be prepared to discard the conventional. I don't believe I'm a thinker like the other group; I'm an operator who tries to put ideas into practice, and I'm quite prepared to modify the ideas to make them fit the practical situation.

This quality of open-mindedness was referred to by many members of staff as crucial to the process of educational development. Some of them related it right back to the college's inception as an emergency training college, and said that it had struck them as being characteristic of the college ethos. One department, according to several interviewees, had shown itself generally hostile to the decision to seek a CNAA-validated degree, and took virtually no part in the activities which ensued. This department subsequently lost its principle role and was shorn of responsibilities, remaining only as a centre for service teaching on other courses.

The ready availability of information and speed of communication were seen by most people to have been another crucial element in the successful promotion of such a major piece of educational development. In particular the appointment, wherever possible, of a member of one of the two main planning groups as chairman of sub-groups and working parties was seen to have been a useful aid to good communication, allowing virtually all members of staff to participate in one or more sub-groups and working parties. Moreover, where a sub-group could see that its plans carried implications for those of some other sub-group, it was encouraged to consult the other directly, so that there was an adequate horizontal as well as vertical flow of information.

It would be misleading to suggest that there were no differences in perception of how the BEd was 'really' planned. For example, 'educational developers' tended to ascribe greater significance to the deliberations of the formal planning bodies than did the 'keen teachers' in our sample. Nor was there any absence of continuing internal conflict. But in comparison with other institutions which we visited, there was less tension and less conflict than normal. We attributed this, as did many of our interviewees, to the most distinctive feature of this particular institution - the development of a new decision-making framework to meet a new situation.

When asked to consider what kind of training, if any, might be provided to ensure that other people teaching in higher education might benfit from what had clearly been a very successful exercise in institution-wide development, few interviewees could immediately think of anything that they themselves (with perhaps a rather restricted perception of the word) would consider as training. It was suggested that the efficient conduct of committees might be a useful topic of training, but the general opinion was that whatever training took place should aim at attitude change rather than at any particular skill. Several people said that the best training for them had been their participation in a live piece of planning - 'the whole thing was a learning exercise; the people at the top learning about the people at the bottom, the people in one department learning about the attitudes of people in the next department, the people with the ideas learning that the constraints were real ones, etc'. It was probably with this in mind that some members of staff insisted that whatever training took place should be as a group activity.

Though unaffected by mergers the technical college we visited was certainly not a static institution. We chose it both because it had a number of degree courses and because it had a reputation for innovation in teaching. We had no difficulty in finding 'keen teachers' to interview in all its constituent schools, and those we did talk to had a relatively sophisticated perspective on educational development. Unlike many, and perhaps most technical colleges, this one had recognized relatively early on the need for some kind of institutional backing for educational development, and in 1970 had made a member of staff responsible for in-service training and general educational support. She had previously been on the staff of a development-minded division of the college, and the appointment would seem to have been an example of a progression from the role of 'keen teacher' to that of a formally designated educational developer within the

same establishment[6]. With the addition of two further full-time academic appointments and a modest level of media support a Division of Educational Studies was formed.

Few of those interviewed thought that the possession of technical skills in teaching had much to do with any success they had enjoyed as educational developers, and they were almost unanimous that, in one way or another, interpersonal skills played a crucial part. Some of them singled out a heightened sensitivity to student reactions as the most important attribute.

They said:

- I had to look to my students or they would simply vote with their feet.
- My Trades Council Group had to be held together; persisting with formal teaching would have been fatal.
- My administrative duties make my teaching more effective, since it helps me to get to know more students personally and I get their honest opinion on my teaching, as between equals.
- I learnt a lot about bad lecturing when I was a student myself.
- As soon as a student looks bored, I'm aware of it.
- Students are not given enough guidance as to the kind of criticism which teachers might welcome; some sort of ground rules are needed.

Others concentrated more upon the interpersonal relationships with colleagues and the skills needed in this area. Underlying this was often the unstated assumption that teaching students should be an open activity rather than a private and individual one, and it was clear that some of the more recent arrivals at the college had been persuaded that this was so by the induction and in-service training offered by the Division of Educational Studies. Among the things that were said were:

- Ideas can spread in education, provided that you get the right people together in the right place.
- I regret the lack of open appraisal of teaching skills.... It could be done by the right people without being seen as a threat by those who are being evaluated.
- In joint problem-solving sessions the staff that are present exhibit different teaching approaches, which for once are open to other members of the staff, and can be discussed in sensible fashion.
- I now take particular care to talk to people to find out what their job's about.
- My principal skills are in the forming of relationships with other teachers and in my natural taste for new approaches.

The value of closer interpersonal relationships with both students and colleagues on the teaching staff was usually seen as straightforward enhancement of the flow of useful information, but several of the teachers interviewed showed themselves to have a more sophisticated awareness of the social and political factors which affect the process of innovation. It was evident that this greater awareness stemmed from successful experience within the college: another indication, perhaps, of its not unfavourable climate for innovation (Collier 1974).

About half of those interviewed had had experience outside the usual academic world, most of whom saw this as a distinct advantage in their approach to educational development. Some very interesting points were made:

- Studying science does not include practice in writing clear, simple English, yet I found this essential in my work in industry.
- On arriving in teaching from personnel work in industry, I found not only that the standard of teaching was poor, but that the selection processes compared badly with industry.
- My students respect me because they can see that I can do it in the real-life situation.
- I see my work in film productions as very similar to the teacher's role in creating the conditions in which other creative minds can work.

The interviewer may perhaps make the point that these people with a wealth of outside experience are much more interesting to interview, in that they can illustrate their points with a wealth of examples and analogies that 'straight' academics often do not possess; and it seems very probable that they are also more interesting people when in the classroom, and for very much the same reasons.

Throughout the interviews the impression was given that this was a college in which educational development was not only possible but actually encouraged, and some of those interviewed made explicit reference to the help which they had received from the institutional support services. What was, perhaps, even more impressive was the way in which many of the others took it for granted that useful, informed, and non-threatening support should and would be available to them if they required it. On these criteria the institutional support services have been successful in gaining acceptance for their activities. It is often difficult to explain why this should be so in some establishments but not in others, but some possible pointers in the case of this college may be:

1 The support services did not originate as a media or hardware group.

2 The original appointment had been head of the division throughout its five-years of existence.

3 At the time of the appointment the head had already been on the staff of the college for five years and was well known to colleagues in all departments.

4 Two later appointments to the division complemented each other very well, and each member of the division, although able to call upon colleagues' advice and special skills, seemed to have a group of clients who regularly consulted him.

5 Over the five-year period, the college in-service training course in teaching had clearly fostered relationships of mutual confidence between support service staff and the newly-appointed lecturers who were their student-colleagues.

6 In preparing some of the staff for the London University External Certificate in Education, and in nourishing ambitions eventually to mount a CNAA Diploma course in teaching, the division was involved in development on its own account, as well as that of the institution as a whole.

Finally, the support services have played their part in an institutional ethos which was referred to more than once as a 'tradition of innovation'.

These case studies from the maintained sector have been grouped together in a single section because they are as representative of the sector as a whole as they are of particular types of institution. We could equally well have chosen a college which had run into difficulties with its BEd submission or a polytechnic faculty which had introduced special procedures for the development of curriculum proposals. However, to find an effectively functioning organizational structure for evaluating an institution's teaching or developing ambitious new proposals was still relatively rare.[7] Short-term considerations, such as getting submissions accepted as rapidly as possible and acquiring political support from rival internal factions, tended to prevent the more careful consideration of either course structur or vocational need. Even where a faculty or college had arrived at a more satisfactory mode of working it was noticeable that visitors seeking information and stimulus still gave more attention to its products than its processes.

CONCLUSIONS AND RESERVATIONS

Throughout the case studies we were struck by the diversity of needs and the extent to which these needs were rooted in particular situations. The differences, however, are not surprising given the considerable variations in the kind of problems faced by those interviewed and the kinds of organizational structure and ethos in which they worked. But these differences do not make a mockery of any attempt to assess training needs - they merely point to the danger of coming to any simple conclusions or postulating any comprehensive and inflexible solutions.

The main points which emerged from our interviews with 'keen teachers' have generally been substantiated by the Nuffield Group and the findings of our MA students. They are listed below for convenience of reference.

1 Few individuals engaged in educational development would claim to have specific technical skills in education and many would explicitly disclaim using any such skills.

2 Those teachers who do think that such skills are important in their own situation would usually argue that it is reasonably easy to acquire them.

3 Nearly all teachers emphasized the importance of interpersonal skills, whether these were exercised in the teaching and counselling of students or in staff discussions of course proposals and problems.

4 Most people who had significant experience outside the academic system perceived it as being a valuable asset to them in the curriculum development process.

5 Many teachers were concerned about evaluation, both of their own teaching and of courses to which they contributed. They felt that it should play an important role but had little knowledge of how best to go about it.

6 Some teachers, operating within the CNAA validation system, were aware of specific course description, course design and approval-seeking skills.

7 There was increasing awareness of the importance of political skills in educational development.

8 There was a general desire to know what was going on, both in their own institution and elsewhere. They needed opportunities to hear about, but not necessarily be taught about alternative approaches.

Given our sample of 'keen teachers' and the semi-automatic tendency to equate training with the formal instillation of the technical skills of teaching, it was not surprising that most of the information we acquired was about people's perceptions of their own teaching performance and its relationship or lack of relationship to training. Teaching skills could only be developed 'on the job' and by people helping each other. So there would be no support for a lengthy pre-service or in-service training programme in specific teaching skills. A significant number of our interviewees had taken formal training courses and strongly disapproved of them. However, short induction courses were welcomed, whenever they were practically oriented; and workshops based on the analysis of recorded teaching events, experiment and mutual criticism would also be supported. Indeed most of the teachers we interviewed would strongly endorse the Nuffield Group's conclusion in their final report that:

> 'The training of staff should be, in general, a small-scale and intimate activity; perhaps with pairs of teachers agreeing to help each other, sitting in on each other's classes from time to time, and small groups of up to five or six meeting periodically to discuss problems as they arise.' (GRIHE 1976)

Since the issue of interpersonal relationships almost dominated our case studies, it would be reasonable to infer strong support for the objectives listed in Appendix A under Staff and Students and Interpersonal Skills, though there would be some scepticism about the feasibility of developing these qualities to a significant degree. Certainly, any training or evaluation activity which increased staff understanding of student perspectives would be welcomed; and developers who could introduce and discuss ideas like those contained in, for example, Parlett and Simons Learning from Learners (1976) would be perceived as getting their priorities right.

The more sophisticated and experienced of our interviewees emphasized the importance of understanding the organization and developing the appropriate political skills, but this was seen primarily in terms of getting one's proposal adopted. The organization was seen more in terms of something to manipulate than something for which they had a shared responsibility; and the nearest one got to a concern for institutional health was a feeling that courses should be evaluated. Those whose teaching brought them into regular contact with outside bodies or mature professional students frequently discussed the relationship between the institution and the 'outside world'; and this was also stressed by those with significant work-experience outside the academic system. Though it was scarcely mentioned by their more secluded colleagues, it would be safe to conclude that an educational developer who failed to recognize these links between higher education and society would command scant respect from many of those with whom he would most need to work.

Course evaluation was seen as important by many of the teachers we interviewed in the maintained sector, but they were doubtful of its feasibility in more than a token sense because it was seen by their

colleagues as a threatening and potentially time-wasting activity. If people were to be trained as evaluators, their training would need to take such hostility and suspicion into account. In the university sector this need was scarcely mentioned because teaching was seen in individual rather than corporate terms and the good teacher was someone who was self-evaluative, and sensitive to feedback from his students. The students, however, saw it rather differently. In all institutions they found few staff who knew enough about the course as a whole to give good academic advice; and they were acutely aware that they received only a small proportion of their course from any one teacher. This raises questions of corporate responsibility, and indeed accountability, that cannot be lightly dismissed.

The Nuffield Group respond to this issue in their final report by suggesting that:

> 'All degree programmes should be formally reviewed every five years; there should be informal discussion of individual courses each year; and mid-course feedback should be a regular feature of all teaching.'(GRIHE 1976)

The implementation of such a proposal in a manner which would allay rather than feed people's natural anxieties would be greatly facilitated by appropriate training in course evaluation.[8] We found very little understanding of the newer, more democratic approaches to evaluation, and suspect that without a great deal more guidance than is currently available the institution of a regular review process would lead either to open conflict or meaningless ritual.[9]

Finally we come to the mythical/mystical skills of course design. We found some scepticism even in the maintained sector as to whether the skills involved in getting proposals through the CNAA had any educational significance; and some saw them as purely administrative and diplomatic. Those who were obviously skilful claimed to have acquired the ability through a combination of innate talent and practical experience, while those who were not so skilful deprecated their importance and significance. However, members of support services saw course design as a major priority for staff training, whether they interpreted it in simplistic terms or not. Our own view is that course design can be an extremely complicated process in some situations, but is relatively simple in others. It depends on the political, social and academic context. Within a single Honours degree and a department whose academic norms are unchallenged, the very idea of designing a course seems absurd. But when there is a vocational degree course with a sandwich element taught across several departments it becomes an administrative as well as an educational necessity. Similarly, while some people appear to acquire a capacity for course design without any training, these people are not very common, even in higher education. Many of those interviewed in the case studies possessed this natural talent, but they were not a typical sample of all teachers and the manner of their selection almost guaranteed that they would have strength in this area.

Lastly, it should be emphasized that we do not see course design as the simple application of the Bloom-Tyler paradigm (Eraut 1975b, 1976) although it can be useful in some circumstances. Nor do we believe that teaching and learning problems can be solved by the specification of objectives alone (Macdonald-Ross 1973). Perhaps curriculum development is best seen as a kind of social and intellectual problem solving which is essential for continued organizational well-being; and it is only

after rationales and structures have been sorted out, both academically and politically, that the concepts and procedures of the curriculum development literature can begin to be applied.

Taken as a whole, these case studies reveal many types of institutional problem to which departmentally or institutionally-based educational advisers might usefully address themselves; and suggest many of the skills and qualities which they might need to possess in order to be successful. But they do not indicate whether such skills and qualities could be developed by training. Indeed, many of our respondents were quite sceptical about the usefulness of in-service training at this level. However, we would argue that there is a growing understanding of curricula and teaching processes in higher education, and the problems of initiating and implementing changes in patterns of teaching and learning; and that all higher education teachers need to have direct (by training) or indirect (by consultancy) access to this knowledge if institutions are to make the best of their increasingly limited resources (GRIHE 1976). Though this view cannot be strongly supported from the evidence of the case studies, it nevertheless forms part of our overall interpretation of the training needs relevant to educational development.

NOTES

1 Not all the problems we identified were recognized at institutional level, and the scarcity of proper procedures for problem diagnosis became even more obvious when MA students began to report on their fieldwork.

2 cf The distinction in Chapter 3 (page 25) between institutionally based and departmentally-based educational advisers.

3 This is probably true for most university support units. It results partly from their media-service-based origins and partly from the diffuse authority structure which tends to preclude change strategies other than social interaction with large numbers of individual teachers (Eraut 1975a,b).

4 Though he had not attended any courses, he still felt the need for participating in relevant professional associations (page 15).

5 cf Gouldner's (1957) distinction between 'cosmopolitans' and 'locals'.

6 On a number of occasions during the course of the research we were approached for advice about the appointment of educational development advisers. We nearly always recommended finding a 'keen teacher' who was already in the institution and giving him opportunities for further training. This advice was rarely taken, but we still stand by it.

7 Many institutions had instituted a bureaucratic structure for handling submissions; but this did not necessarily support, and sometimes even prevented, a more enterprising and collaborative approach to course design and evaluation.

8 Although the researchers knew about important work in evaluation that was proceeding at this time (Collier 1978; UTMU 1975) few of those interviewed were aware of anything other than the usual course feedback questionnaire.

9 For an example, however, of an institutional evaluation programme which was carefully planned, see Alexander (1978).

5 DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF AN EXPERIMENTAL MA COURSE

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE ORIGINAL COURSE DESIGN

We stated in Chapter 1 that many ideas for this course stemmed from the experience that Sussex University had gained from 1968 onwards in running courses for an advanced Diploma in Educational Technology and, subsequently, for an MA in Curriculum Development and Educational Technology. While these courses were focused mainly upon the work of the schools sector the broad themes that were dealt with were general enough in their applicability to cater for other needs, as a succession of students from other sectors would testify. Moreover, assessment was based on students projects related to the needs of their own institutions, and a third of the teaching was devoted to individual tutorials. This course had already taken students from the higher education sector, and there was evidence that they had found it relevant and useful.

Nevertheless, it was decided to design the new course 'ab initio' for the following reasons:

1 Although the existing course was useful for higher education lecturers, it was felt that it could be more closely oriented to their particular needs.

2 There were known to be many differences in educational development activities and problems between the schools and higher education sectors, which might be more effectively catered for by a separate course.

3 The research project made it possible to carry out a thorough needs analysis for the higher education sector, corresponding to that already completed for the schools sector (Eraut 1972).

4 New staff were to be involved in teaching the course, and it would help if they could also contribute to its design.

5 Given our commitment to action research with experimental courses as a means of investigating training needs, a new course offered the opportunity of gaining a new perspective.

So there was no prior commitment to the content of the new course or to its detailed teaching strategy. But we were committed to maintaining the same mode of working: ie to a strong emphasis on group discussion and individual, tutorially-supported projects.

There are two very common approaches to course design; they are usually implicit rather than explicit and their results are often strikingly different. One is to take the students as the starting point and to try to provide for the knowledge and skills which they are thought to need. If this seems to be the only possible way to design a useful course, it is only fair to say that it can lead to a situation in which, although the students' time is already well filled, some of the teaching

staff are unemployed since their specialities do not coincide with the students' needs as perceived by the course designers. The other way is to consider the teaching staff available and try to harness their existing expertise in some integrated way. Such an approach is certainly popular although it ignores students' needs at its peril; and it is not always necessary to assume that teachers cannot learn new knowledge and skills - after all, the students are expected to.

Although the MA course was primarily designed in the first way, ie to meet the needs identified in the pilot phase of the research, it was also influenced by the strengths and limitations of the staff available to teach it. These were:

1 Two full-time members of the Education Area with long experience in teaching support units, one at Sussex (Dr. Michael Eraut) and the other at the Open University (Mr. Brendan Connors).

2 One full-time member of the Education Area with research and evaluation experience in higher education (Mrs. Carolyn Miller).

3 Two members of the Science Area with extensive experience of educational development, who had also played leading roles in inter-university projects (Dr. Michael Tribe and Dr. Peter Unsworth).

4 Two part-time teachers who were members of the Nuffield Foundation's Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education (Dr. Eric Hewton and Dr. Geoffrey Squires).

One interesting example of this interaction between staff experience and course objectives is provided by an important 'innovation' which we built into the course - a two-week period of fieldwork in the middle of each term. A new lecturer, coming in with experience of training research students without rigid timetables and unused to taught courses, insisted on adequate time for fieldwork in support of student projects and challenged the traditional assumpton that seminar series should proceed on a weekly basis without interruption. Others saw the potential for strengthening the link between the course and the students' home institutions, as well as the difficulty of conducting higher education fieldwork out of term[1], and readily agreed. It seemed to add a new quality to the course, and the following year the schools-oriented course followed suit.

Similarly, a lecturer's interest and experience in the illuminative approach to evaluation (Parlett and Hamilton 1972) led to an emphasis on interviewing and qualitative evidence. Other survey methods were not neglected but given a supplementary role, and this in turn affected the impact of the first term of the course. Not only do interviews and questionnaires yield different kinds of information but they also have quite different effects on the researchers using them - a factor neglected in many books on research methodology. The experience of interviewing had an emotional impact which helped to develop empathy for their students and colleagues as well as giving important information about how other members of their institutions perceived what was going on. Students welcomed this early focus on inter-personal perception, and the 'keen teachers' we interviewed during the case studies (cf Chapter 4) also saw it as a crucial factor in their work.

In the first year the staff's limited experience with polytechnics proved a handicap, though we attempted to counteract this by giving special

attention to polytechnics during the pilot phase. The problem diminished in subsequent years because we were able to learn from our students and their projects, and from colleagues in polytechnics with whom we collaborated on our short course programme (cf Chapter 7). The Nuffield research team also conducted several visits to polytechnics during the first year of the course, and fed back information through our common members. One of us had long experience of working with colleagues of education, and another had taught in further education; though again we were anxious to expand our knowledge of these sectors via the case studies and through learning from our students.

Finally we should emphasize that just as the interests and experience of the teaching staff deployed have a modifying effect on any course, no matter how well it has been described on paper, so the individual and group characteristics of the students can (and indeed should) exert an additional modifying influence. While this gave rise to many minor alterations in the MA course, it also resulted in at least one major revision - in the third term of the first year.

THE COURSE STRUCTURE

Since the first course had to be designed, approved and advertised near the beginning of the project, its initial structure was worked out half way through the pilot phase before the list of objectives in Appendix A had been fully developed. At the time we were becoming increasingly aware of two major factors which we considered essential to successful educational development. The first was the developer's awareness and understanding of how staff and students perceived their institution, their department, their courses and each other. Without this kind of understanding teaching developments will be likely either to fail for lack of staff support or to be ineffectual because they do not meet the students' real needs. The second factor is perhaps best described as organizational awareness. The developer needs to understand extremely well the organization in which he works, not just the formal internal structure but also the informal influences and the external pressures. How do you identify the essential decision-making processes and the various important loci of power? What are the factors for and against change? What is the best way to consult people? What is the best way to get one's proposals approved?

We decided to concentrate on developing this personal and organizational understanding of the higher education context during the first term, while simultaneously providing initial training in research and evaluation skills. In order to develop personal understanding, MA students were to undertake a project which involved them in interviewing staff and students in their home institutions as well as discussing the relevant literature; and we would train them in open-ended interviewing and the techniques of illuminative evaluation. This appeared on the timetable as two seminar series entitled 'Students and Staff' and 'Research Methods', taught by the same person and linked with a two-week period of fieldwork two-thirds of the way through the term. Organizational understanding, on the other hand, was dealt with primarily through seminars in the Organization of Higher Education Institutions and Curricular Patterns with an assessed essay on some aspect of the organization/academic structure of their own institution.

The teaching in the second term focused on individual courses and problems of teaching and learning. The fieldwork was devoted to a course evaluation which gave further practice in interviewing, provided an opportunity to develop observational skills, and introduced the difficult task of handling evaluation as a social process. This meant combining

empirical evidence with value judgements, introducing the possibility of alternative courses, and accepting some responsibility for the effects of the evaluation on the future of the course[4]. The course evaluation project was fed by seminars on Course Analysis and Problems of Higher Learning, while a seminar series on the Analysis of Teaching and a Teaching Learning Workshop concentrated on problems of small group teaching and the introduction of relatively unfamiliar teaching methods - simulation, use of television, computer assisted learning, Keller plan, etc. Another related topic, that of assessment, had been separately dealt with in the first term but was subsequently moved back to the second term where it fitted more logically.

Our attention in the final term then shifted from diagnosis and evaluation to development, with four closely related seminar series on Curriculum Development, Staff Training, the Innovation Process and Support Services. With teaching ending in June, a further two months remained for the completion of the final project. We had thought that restricting the teaching to two days a week would leave sufficient time for fieldwork, but interference from summer examinations in their home institutions and the difficulties of weekly travel over large distances led to a late student request for two weeks fieldwork early in the summer term. This was granted, but it left the seminar series badly fragmented, a structural problem which had to be resolved for the following year. Hence the structure of the course as actually taught in 1974-5 was as follows:

Term 1- The Higher Education Context

The organization of higher education institutions
Curricular patterns
Students and staff)
Research Methods) Including two weeks fieldwork
Assessment)
Assessed Work - An institutional profile [5] (20%) and an essay on organizational and curricular patterns (10%)

Term 2 - Teaching and Learning: Courses

Course analysis (with two weeks fieldwork)
Teaching and learning workshop
Analysis of teaching
Problems of higher learning
Assessed Work - a course evaluation (20%)

Term 3 - Curriculum Development and Support Services

Support services
The process of innovation
Course design and development (with two weeks fieldwork)
Pre-service and in-service training
Assessed Work - a major curriculum development project (50%)

It is interesting to note that this structure gave two terms to evaluation and problem diagnosis skills and only one term to development skills, whereas the existing MA course for the schools sector devoted one term to the former and two to the latter[6]. Though many development issues naturally arose during the course of the first two terms, this change in balance reflected our growing conviction, confirmed by the case studies,

that all people engaged in educational development activities should be able not only to carry out their tasks but also to assess whether those tasks are appropriate and whether sufficient participation has been achieved. It can even be counterproductive to develop problem-solving skills in isolation from problem diagnosis skills, because it is all too easy to find 'solutions' for the wrong problems.

THE TEACHING STRATEGY

We had evolved on previous MA courses a style of relatively non-directive teaching which we found appropriate for the in-service education of mature professionals; and it was partly our awareness of the divergence of this practice from the common image of in-service education as formal one-way expert-to-novice communication that led to the methodology outlined in Chapter 3. The four main teaching methods involved were seminar discussions, project work, tutorials and workshops. We wanted to use all four on the new course but we had to work out the balance afresh. As before, we had to recognize that, although proper selection of students would ensure that all of them possessed some of the qualities we expected of educational developers, they would enter the course at a variety of levels. In certain areas of the course some students might be virtual beginners, while others were more experienced than any member of the teaching staff. Furthermore, each student would have a different set of interests, problems and goals to be catered for, so we had to allow for considerable variation in what they got out of the course.

The rationale for the heavy emphasis on seminar-discussions was approximately as follows.

1 It is flexible enough to allow an appropriate balance to be developed between the three main sources of input - the literature, the experience of the teacher and the experience of the students. If the teacher's experience is largely built into the design of the seminars and the selection of reading material, subject of course to modification in the light of student feedback, then he is free to assume a much less directive role and to focus his efforts during seminars onto promoting interaction between ideas, problems and people.

2 So many features of a person's own institution are taken for granted that it takes a strong comparative element in a course not only to increase his awareness of alternatives but also to help him understand what he already knows. Given the sparsity of relevant case study material, this is best achieved by student presentations to their colleagues as well as on-going discussion both in and out of hours.

3 Our analysis of training needs placed considerable emphasis on getting on with people and understanding other people's perspectives, qualities which are most likely to be developed during various forms of group work. Moreover, we were acutely aware that our teaching styles could be taken as models for the evaluator/consultant/developer roles for which the students were being prepared.

'Clearly the relationship between teacher and student on a formal course is different from a consultant-client relationship, but

it must not be so different as to fail to communicate to students what that relationship would be like. In group discussions the the student is perceiving the problems that arise when groups of experienced teachers meet together to discuss issues or to work on a common problem and ways in which an outsider can promote productive interaction; and in tutorials he is often the client working on a project and getting help from a consultant who may be much less knowledgeable than himself about many aspects of the problem.' (Eraut 1972)

4 The need to accommodate to a set of group norms appropriate to the new group would encourage a readiness to acquire and to build on the attitudes perceived as needed by curriculum developers.
To take just one specific area as an example, the student group could be assumed to possess a considerable amount of knowledge about academic structures and curricular patterns, but there was no guarantee that this would include all the items that the project staff perceived to be of importance in these two areas. It would be necessary for the teaching staff to guage the extent of their own contributions to seminars so that the most important points were covered in such a way that the student group had the maximum amount of time possible in which to contribute and compare their own experiences in the area being discussed. A seminar of such a kind would begin to approach the ideal teaching/learning experience in which the roles of teaching and learning, talking and listening, questioning and answering, asserting and qualifying circulate among all the members of the group.

The balance between the acquisition of new knowledge and the comparison and sharing out of old knowledge would obviously vary from one theme of the course to another; and although a knowledge of course evaluation, for example, was considered to be important, it was not thought that most of the students would have much experience in this area. Nor would they necessarily yet possess to any marked degree the associated skills of not merely knowing about course evaluation but actually carrying out the process of evaluating a course. For this and similar areas such as the introduction of alternative teaching methods, either a workshop or project mode was used. Since projects are necessarily fairly lengthy independent pieces of work, their use was largely confined to work that could count for assessment purposes. Workshops, on the other hand, were used for introducing new teaching methods[7] and for some but not all of the sessions concerned with research methods, evaluation, curriculum development and assessment. The typical pattern of workshop first introduced students to or reminded them of certain ideas and procedures, then required them to practise the appropriate skills in sub-groups of varying sizes.

Though students were allocated personal tutors to look after their individual concerns, the major proportion of tutorial time was directed to the support of projects. From a third to a half of the total teaching resources were allocated to tutorials,which gives an indication of the weight attached to tutorially-supported project work. The reasons for this were as follows.

1 The projects were learning experiences which allowed students to learn development skills in as realistic a context as possible. They were undertaking tasks in their home institutions with all the political difficulties that involved, but with two main advantages: they received regular tutorial guidance; and the course provided a

useful reason for the project.

2 The projects gave the students some scope for developing their own personal concerns and skills - they could choose issues and areas of their institutions which were more or less familar to them, according to their perception of their own training needs.

3 The projects constituted a continuing link between the course and the student's own institution, thus helping to keep the course relevant and providing invaluable case study material for use on future courses[8].

4 The projects provided the individual work necessary for assessing the student for the award of the MA[9] without introducing too many artificial requirements - an excellent example of how assessment could enhance rather than distort the teaching-learning process.

This use of projects had been a very successful feature of the schools-oriented MA course and was always popular with students, but the introduction of fieldwork periods in the middle of each term gave it an entirely new dimension. In spite of the emphasis given to the projects in the course description and at admission interviews, students were (and still are) surprised at the impact which they have on the course as a whole. Moreover, seconding institutions have consistently failed to realize how much work that is directly useful to them can be completed while their lecturers are still on the course.

RECRUITMENT AND STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

The course was included in the department's handbook of long courses for teachers, and advertised in the Times Higher Educational Supplement in a way that was less than obtrusive when compared with the scale of, say, recent polytechnic advertisements. In the first part of 1974 a description of the course was sent to all major higher education institutions, with a request that it be handed on to those people within the institution most interested in curriculum development. This almost formed the basis of a research project in its own right, since it quickly became evident that some institutions were not at that time altogether clear what curriculum development was, or whether they had anyone likely to be particularly concerned with it. In addition to the applications evoked by these forms of publicity and by personal links between members of the project and other higher education staff, there were some applications for the existing Sussex MA in Curriculum Development and Educational Technology which were suitable for the new higher education course, and in the event just about enough applications were received in the first year for the usual selection and interviewing processes to produce the full quota of twelve students. Much the same happened in the second and third years although the students' home institutions were rather differently distributed.

Figure 3 INSTITUTIONAL ORIGIN OF STUDENTS ON MA (CDHE) COURSES

	1974-5	1975-6	1976-7	1977-8	1978-9	1979-80	Part-time 1977-80
Universities	1	4	1	2	1	1	3
Polytechnics	2	3	2	6	4	0	10
Colleges of education	7	2	3	1	4	2	5
Further education	2	3	4	1	1	6	4
	12	12	10	10	10	9	22

Our selection criteria were mixed but reasonably clear. All courses like to have bright, well-motivated students; but brightness by itself may not be enough, and there are many different kinds of motivation, so that the interviewing process was aimed at identifying students who could not only discuss curriculum development but had actually implemented some of their own, for which they could provide a rationale and which they could evaluate themselves in the light of a realistic grasp of the constraints inherent in their situation. The ideal student (and there were one or two) was someone who had done this, who had come on the course at the suggestion of, or at least with the full knowledge and encouragement of, his superiors, and who had a fairly clear idea of the kind of development he proposed to undertake for his project work on the course. The opposite of this ideal student was the least welcome kind of applicant (and there were a few of them) who had been given a year's secondment on a Buggins-turn basis, who had selected a pleasant seaside resort for twelve months rest and who had given curriculum development next to no thought during all his years of teaching. Applicants like this were uniformly rejected, and the fact that they existed at all seems to pose a question mark over the way that valuable secondments, potentially a source of useful new expertise within an institution, are distributed.

The first year's cohort were the most coherent group, both in their characteristics and in their behaviour as a group during the period of the course. Although age or rank had not figured in the criteria applied to the selection process, they were almost all senior lecturers, and within a year or two of forty years old. The second year's cohort were more widely distributed in chronological age and in seniority within the hierarchy, but were better balanced in the sense that each part of the higher education world was reasonably well represented. The third year seemed to achieve both coherence and balance, though the selectors claim no special credit for this fortunate occurrence.

The range of subject interests was very wide, and while the following list amply demonstrates this, it should be read with caution since some individuals' interests do not fit neatly into broad subject divisions, and college of education staff, in any case, are often interested both in the teaching of their own subject and in education itself as a subject.

Figure 4 DEPARTMENTAL ORIGIN OF STUDENTS ON MA (CDHE) COURSES

Mathematics & statistics	4
Natural sciences	11
Engineering	6
Social sciences/history/geography	11
Management/accounting/law	5
Education	12
Education with AV methods/library/counselling	11
Art/film studies/music	7
Liberal studies/English/drama	6
Nursing/medicine/social work	4
Physical education/home economics	5
Languages	3
TOTAL	85

Thirteen out of the 85 either came from or were returning to support service units, a point we shall return to in our evaluation (see page 60).

THE EVALUATION PROGRAMME - SOURCES OF EVIDENCE

If a course such as the Sussex MA is to practise what it preaches, the processes both of evaluation and development should be continuous and complementary. Although the highly structured evaluation programme set out below was essential to the research project, it would be wrong to conclude that information on the operation of the course was only being collected in the ways described. The informal and unstructured evaluation and development processes were operating at all times, and there was not a seminar or a tutorial which did not, if only by inference from the direction that discussion took, yield its own quota of information on the effectiveness of the course. Coffee breaks, too, were valuable for much more than rest and refreshment, and many vital exchanges, staff-student, and student-student, took place at these times; and when other MA courses happened to be in the common room at the same time, a comparative element was introduced into perceptions of the course.

Nevertheless, it was important to carry out additional formal evaluation activities as part of our programme of research. A large number of assumptions about training needs were built into the design of the course and it was important that these should be properly refined and tested. The formative evaluation of the course would not only help to improve it by indicating where modifications were needed but also contribute to the refinement of our original analysis of training needs; whereas the summative evaluation of the course was the most effective method open to us for testing our major hypotheses - (1) that the needs for advanced training in educational development were appropriately described (Appendix A), and (2) that these needs could be met by an MA course of the type we had set out to design.[11]

The effectiveness of the MA course can only be measured in the last resort by the effectiveness of the students when, having left the university, they seek not only to develop their own curricula but also to play some part in curriculum development at the departmental or institutional level. The time scale for developments of this kind is a long one, and a full-scale evaluation might call for a follow-up investigation over ten years or even more, something clearly impossible within the time constraints of the present project. However, it was possible to follow up the 1974-75 students and try to gauge at least what kind of re-entry problems they might have experienced, together with what developments they were taking part in at various levels. In particular, of course, we hoped to establish whether students could report a change of role, either formal or informal, in relation to curriculum development.

The evaluation of an advanced course is fraught with difficulty. To begin with, there is no method that is either universally effective or universally accepted. Methodologies can range from the highly quantified to the wildly impressionistic, time scales from instant testing to long-term follow-up, and the number of people contributing to the evaluation can vary from the single neutral unobtrusive observer to the participation in one way or another of all those involved in the course and its outcome. In general, the style of our evaluation programme was one of maximum involvement and participation of staff and students, backed by deliberate attempts to obtain criticism from a wide range of external 'experts'. To supplement the informal evaluations already described, which continued long after students had finished the course, we planned the following formal evaluation activities.

1	Live feedback sessions at the end of each term in which students and staff discussed the course in the plenary meeting.	Dec 74 April 75 June 75
2	A short written critique from each student at the end of the course.	June 75
3	A report from the external examiner based on his assessment of the students' projects and a meeting with students earlier in the year.	Oct 75
4	An initial report from each student after one term back in their home institution.	Dec 75
5	A second report from each student after two terms back in their institution; students were asked to have a colleague read and comment on this report.	April 76
6	A students' reunion at which each student gave a verbal report of his present activities, which was then discussed.	April 76
7	Interviews with selected students (7 out of 12) conducted by Professor R.A.Becher who was not concerned in the design or teaching of the 1974-75 course.	April - June 76
8	Appraisals by external 'experts' of course documents, student coursework and incidental meetings with students. Opportunities to gather such appraisals	Jan 75 Sept 76

arose when we were visited by people interested in the research, during the planning and implementation of the short courses (cf Chapter 6), and at a special conferance of educational developers organized at the end of the project in June 1976.

This information was used for both formative and summative purposes, and students were asked to separate these two aspects of their chinking when they submitted their raports. Activities 1,3,6 and 8 have continued for subsequent courses ut 2,4 5 and 7 were confined to the 1974-5 course.

FORMATIVE EVALUATION AND SUBSEQUENT CHANGES IN THE COURSE[12]

In discussing the formative evaluation of the first course, it is useful to note the general impression gained by staff that students quickly acquired a strong pionaering spirit and immense enthusiasm. This was confirmed by sitors, and by staff and students not involved with the course, many of whom felt that they were missing something. So it is against this background of enthusiastic participation that course criticism needs to be viewed. We shall consider specific problems that resulted in course modification on a term by term basis, before concluding with some more general issues raised by students and the staff's attempts to respond to them.

What we failed to anticipate in the first term was the overwhelming impact of the two weeks of fieldwork. This dominated the students' thinking and led to their concentrating most of their effort on the fieldwork project. As a consequence the seminars on Organization of Higher Education Institutions, Curricular Patterns and Assessment suffered, and the subsequent essays were rather weak. Since the fieldwork proved a highly successful innovation we had no wish to abandon it. Some of the work was of publishable quality and students were taken aback by the intensity of the learning experience. As one commented:

> 'I've learnt more about my college in two weeks fieldwork than in six years teaching there.'

Accordingly, we postponed the assessment seminars to the second term and combined the two pieces of assessad work into a single project, asking students to set the specific issues rsised by their fieldwork against a background analysis of their institution's organizational and curricular patterns.

The second term raised a rather different kind of problem - getting started. Students arrived partly euphoric from the first term and partly exhaustad by vacation work on the project. The projects had to be handed in at the beginning of the second term and were still uppermost in students' minds when, suddenly, they found the new term upon them and a new set of concerns and demands. Something was needed which would bring the group together, refocus their attention, provide a forum for discussion between themselves and generally maintain the impetus built up during the first term. The solution was suggested by a student after we had identified and discussed the problem. He had been impressed by the enjoyment derived by students on the schools course from a workshop lasting several days on the analysis of curriculum materials. This was therefore brought into the higher education course as an opening event. The other changes in the second term have been relatively minor; and the second project has been found to build very usefully on the experience of the first, developing skills of analysis and argument while giving further practice to collecting

empirical evidence.

As we mentioned earlier, the third term was badly fragmented by the incidence of a two-week fieldwork period in the middle of an already short term. Moreover the corporate momentum of the course weakened as students shifted their attention almost totally onto their major projects and the problems of returning to their own institutions. We decided to try and improve the students' diminishing interest in each other's work by introducing a week at the end of the term in late June when they could report back to the group on the progress of individual projects. This helped maintain cohesion and also offered us the opportunity of pointing out the links between the work of different students at a time when they were inclined to overemphasize the uniqueness of the problems they were tackling.

We also added a submission-writing workshop to the curriculum development seminars. We had been, perhaps, so concerned with the reality of curriculum development that we had neglected the rhetoric. Although their precise effect on teaching is often problematic, course submissions are important documents which need to be well prepared. Students requested more assistance with this particular task and staff readily agreed, as they themselves were becoming increasingly concerned about the poor quality of some of the submissions they had to interpret when working for validating agencies. The method used was the group editing (2 or 3 in a group) of existing submission documents; and the workshop was placed early in the third term as it had the useful secondary purpose of showing what happened when course rationales had been insufficiently developed. The effects of the other major problem - lack of consultation over submissions - had already been fully documented during the first two projects, and it was helpful to show that curriculum development required thought, argument and imagination as well as consultation and participation.

The need for all these modifications was identified by a combination of informal discussions between staff and students and more formal end-of-term feedback sessions. But there were other criticisms which did not so readily lead to changes in the course. There were inevitable mismatches between a course which had to be designed with the interests of the whole student body in mind and the expectations of any one individual student, with the result that some criticisms were mutually contradictory. One student, for example, might ask for more time on a topic while another asked for less; and one student might prefer a more structured teaching approach than another. It was difficult to respond to these criticisms at the time, other than by pointing out the flexibility inherent in individual projects and tutorials; and often the problem proved to be temporary or idiosyncratic. However, two major issues remained unresolved. These were (1) the extent to which plenary sessions were unduly concentrated on particular types of institution; and (2) the degree of guidance given to students as to what was required of them.

Major institutional differences of the kind described in Chapter 4 have always been a problem on the course, though they are also a source of strength. Contrast often lends depth of understanding, when so much of the ways in which our various institutions work gets taken for granted. Some students tend to worry about the limitations of a mixed group while others enjoy its benefits. This problem was greatest on the early courses when tutors had less experience to draw upon. One response has been through a programme of guest speakers and special events: eg a special discussion of problems of implementing BEC and TEC schemes, or a simulation of a CNAA visitation. Another response stemmed from students asking for more work in small groups. The first course consisted largely of plenary sessions and individual work, and we recognized that some students who felt

a little inhibited in plenery sessions still had a lot to contribute. We therefore tried to institute a number of occasions in which groups could work on problems from the viewpoint of their particular sector and then report back to the plenary for cross-sectional comparison.

Tho issue of guidance is possibly more difficult still. Staff have learnt from experienca and students have gained from having access to the work of their predecessors, but an underlying dilemma remains. To insist upon a standard pattern of major project, carrying 50 per cent of the total assessment weighting would certainly have enabled the teaching staff to give more precise guidance as to what students should do, but this would be to restrict the students' ability to pursue their own interests and problems. It seemed to the staff that it should always be possible for a student to pursue a theme which, though idiosyncratic, was highly relevant to his own situation, and that any restriction of the form or content of the major project would be entirely against the whole ethos of the course. It may be that operating in a climate of considerable uncertainty is one of the key skills in curriculum development in higher education, but this should not necessarily lead to assessment becoming a sort of initiation ordeal with a high level of anxiety. However, the external examiners at the end of the third course commented with some justification that, while this freedom has benefited the stronger students and enabled them to produce original and exciting work, it had not necessarily helped all the students. Some had been allowed to attempt very ambitious work when they could make little headway in the time available. The tutors concerned have come to the conclusion that they have to use a great deal of intuitive judgement. By the third term they are getting to know individual students very well: they have observed how they tackle their work and they have read the results: ie the reports from the first two projects. Students often present ideas for their final project which fit neatly into the general scheme: eg a course with which they are familiar in their own institution to be re-vamped as a contribution towards the development of a new course for CNAA or TEC validation. Most students should, by the third term be able to deal effectively with such projects.

The difficulty arises when students have been fired by enthusiasm generated by discussion, reading or work on earlier projects and wish to explore areas that are not familiar to them or to their tutors. It sometimes seems that they might 'bite off more than they can chew': the tutor must then be firm and discourage over-ambition which might lead to disaster. Negotiations can sometimes be difficult and a great deal of sensitivity and diplomacy is required. Generally students will accept the reasoning and lower their sights - although some have later applied to do higher level research work in the same topic.

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION [13]

Notwithstanding the shrewd and soundly-based criticisms from students, considered above, it was clear that all of them had enjoyed the course, and that most saw it as a critical event in their lives. Many mentioned their heightened awareness of the complexity of the problems of educational development, while all of them demonstrated that same awareness by describing their activities within their institutional context in ways which were very different from their responses to much the same questions at the interviews which originally led to their selection for the course. Some referred to a new confidence in their relations with their colleagues, and others to a more considerate work-style. One said that he was 'less of a bull in a china shop', while another, who thought he had changed his style of management, was described forthrightly as 'less aggressive' by the

colleague he had asked to comment on his report.

When asked in June to prepare a summary of their individual appraisals of the course for presentation to the project's steering committee, the first group of students chose to offer a collage of quotations, one from each student's report. Though this could be regarded as giving an unduly favourable impression, it was their own decision and it does give an accurate portrayal of the kind of points which the students chose to emphasize.

'It got me over a dangerous propensity to think that I was sensitive to what others thought - fieldwork showed me that my preconceptions could be wildly inaccurate. It also brought me to realize the incredible complexity of the political structure of institutions, and that tho taking of decisions did not always involve following one's own perceptions of what was a correct course of action.'

'I am sure that I still do not have immediate answers to many of our problems ... the big difference is that I now view the curricular situation from a wider perspective and I certainly have the confidence to try different ways of dealing with difficult issues.'

'The course was invaluable in helping to identify, focus and develop a wide range of skills required.'

'The most beneficial effect has been the weaning away from a hard-edge educational technology approach, to one which (I hope) enables me to tolerate the duality of the formal and informal curriculum, and focuses on the teaching/learning situation as a social situation in a social system.'

'A dynamic learning experience within a highly cohesive group.'

'... helped me to prepare for the next stage of innovation in the polytechnic. The first stage I see as being near completion, ie the development of new courses. The next stage will, I believe, be in the form of improving, modifying, and changing teaching and learning methods.'

'It has facilitated a major revision in my thinking about educational research. The re-adjustment has not been easy.'

'What I valued most was the interaction and exchange of ideas and experience between all concerned - both staff and students - and I believe that the deliberate flexibility and effective use of the opportunities it gave were an important factor in the learning process.'

'... definitely more aware of teaching/learning problems in higher institutions; better equipped and more confident in helping to initiate innovations.'

'Before beginning the course I could have been described as an enthusiast who thought and convinced a few of his colleagues that team teaching was the answer to all problems associated

> with teaching engineering subjects. I am now more aware of the wealth of pedagogical possibilities and the importance of looking at the development of courses as a whole.'
>
> 'I feel better able to carry out the functions of a process helper within the institution. One cannot help being made aware of the limitations of one's role due to (a) institutional climate, (b) the attitudes of colleagues.'
>
> 'More knowledgeable; more politically aware (devious?); more confident to discuss on foreign terms; more knowledge of alternatives.'

Those comments bear eloquent testimony to the educational value of the course, but they do not provide adequate confirmation of our training needs hypothesis. For this we needed evidence that the students found their training useful and appropriate after they returned; and later reports were requested for this specific purpose. Their continued approval of the general content and style of the course was expected, as they had many opportunities to discuss this while they were still with us. They had also been able to demonstrate some of their newly developed skills in their final projects. However, we still had to find out whether these skills were useful after they were re-absorbed by their employing institutions, and whether their training had enabled them to assume any different roles. Later reports from the students themselves form the major part of our evidence, but we were also able to make cross-checks on their validity:

1 By asking their colleagues to comment on the reports (the colleagues concerned were selected by the students themselves as this was felt to be the only morally defensible procedure);

2 By receiving evidence of their contributions to their institutions from several independent sources (a procedure we could hardly avoid, given the overlapping membership of professional networks and associations);

3 By getting Professor R.A.Becher, a new member of our staff who had not then taught on the course, to interview former students six months after they had completed the course.

As a result of these enquiries we are satisfied that the evidence of the students' reports is substantially correct.

One important point which emerged from these reports was the all-pervading influence of what has been called the institutional climate for innovation. This climate varies from one location to another: it has a profound influence upon what development takes place, and constrains the activities of the developers. And, like the weather, it is only partly predictable - one student reported that redundancy fears had made his colleagues retreat into conservatism, while another, in a similar college not a hundred miles away, reported that the same fears had led to a marked shift in favour of innovation. The institutional climate would certainly seem to be one of the prime variables affecting the use of the knowledge and skills gained on the course. Low expectations of a returning student can make it difficult for him to change his role, while high expectations can lead to a successful role-change irrespective of the nature or relevance of the course.

Nevertheless, without falling t. much into the post hoc ergo propter hoc fallacy, it would seem that attendance on the MA course has had a marked positive effect upon the careers of most of the students, and that their new appointments and roles indicate that they are having an impact upon educational development within their own institutions. While maintaining their anonymity, it is worthwhile listing the effects on all twelve of the 1974/5 intake.

1 Now award tutor in a college of education

2 Now co-ordinator of a university educational technology unit, for which purpose he had, in fact, been nominated for the course.

3 Has established a curriculum development unit within his polytechnic department.

4 Has taken a university research appointment, directly connected with his project work on the course; continues to design short courses for his polytechnic on a part-time basis.

5 Is moving from an AV service role into a teaching role.

6 Reports an extension of the development roles which he had occupied before the course; has published a Sussex Occasional Paper.

7 Took major responsibility for a CNAA degree submission which he began as his major project on the course.

8 Has a new post with special responsibility for curriculum development in one particular area.

9 A new appointment in another college.

10 A new appointment in another college.

11 Promored and given special responsibilities for the introduction of TEC schemes.

12 Has taken up a temporary Sussex University research appointment, before returning to his college.

As can be seen, four of the students (4, 9, 10 and 12) have, at least for the moment, given up full-time employment with the institutions at which they were serving before coming on the course. While their motives in doing this have been mixed, it is clear that dissatisfaction with development opportunities played some part in their decisions, and this is probably connected with the institutional climate for innovation already referred to. It is also remarkable that, at a time when new appointments are relatively scarce, such a high proportion of ex-students have had little difficulty in changing jobs. Most of those who have stayed in post, however, have had significant changes of formal role to report; and, perhaps, more important, some of them see indications at an informal level that their colleagues are looking at them with new eyes, and that the course has been, if not the sole cause of a new informal status, at least the trigger which has set this in motion. Nine out of the twelve reported making either direct or indirect use of their major projects.

Those seeking confirmation or elaboration of these points may wish to consult Appendix B where excerpts from the reports of six of the students have been included.

Finally, we should mention the strong support given to the course by a succession of visitors whom we received during the period of our research. They were normally given the opportunity to meet some of the students as well as the staff; and their responses, while not giving grounds for complacency, were wholly encouraging. They were surprised to find such a radically different approach to MA teaching but were usually convinced that this was a more appropriate way to meet the needs of the students and their parent institutions. This informal external evaluation became relatively formal at a 3-day conference for educational developers in higher education which we held at the conclusion of the project. Detailed course descriptions and samples of student project work were available for examination; and there was considerable agreement that this was the kind of work that was most relevant to their institution's needs.

NOTES

1 Previously fieldwork had been confined to vacation periods and off days free of timetable teaching. Though not wholly satisfactory, it was at least feasible because school terms did not coincide with university terms.

2 This section describes the rationale for the original structure. Modifications to this are given on pages 55-7, where a much more detailed description of the current (1979-80) course can also be found.

3 As the course has matured over the years we have recognized the need for the curriculum developer to face the sometimes unpalatable fact that politics is part of the business. We have come increasingly to the view that the nature or power and authority must be understood both in a theoretical and practical sense in order to bring about desired changes. Seminars and readings have changed to reflect this focus.

4 A more detailed account of how the course handles training in evaluation can be found in Evaluation Newsletter (Miller and Eraut 1977).

5 This rather misleading title, borrowed from the schools MA, often referred to an empirical study of a particular institutional feature rather than a profile of the institution as a whole.

6 The MA (Curriculum Development in Schools) has since been modified to give a balance of about 4 : 3 in favour of diagnosis and reduce the pressure on the first term.

7 Many of these were run by the students themselves, some of whom had special expertise.

8 A few students undertook projects away from home in order to gain wider experience (usually the course evaluation project). Overseas students had to do 2 away projects.

9 Paired projects were encouraged rather than discouraged, though no student undertook more than one.

10 Although the third, 1976-7, year of the course took place after the conclusion of the research, we have included information about it in this section. Student statistics for 1977-78, 1978-9 and 1979-80 were added when the report was being revised for publication.

11 The terms formative and summative were introduced by Scriven (1967) to distinguish between evaluation for purposes of course improvement (formative evaluation) and evaluation to judge the work of a course (summative evaluation). The latter includes making judgements about value as well as about effectivaness.

12 This Section refers only to changes consequent on the formative evaluation of the early experimental courses. Chapter 6 gives detail of the current course.

13 A detailed description of the latest course (1979-80) is given in the next chapter. Since this incorporated changes resulting from the formative evaluation described above we believe it was an improvement on the 1974-5 course. But it is the summative evaluation of the 1975-5 course which is presented below.

INTRODUCTION

Several readers of our original research report said that they would like to see a more detailed description of the MA course. They wanted to see how certain ideas were put into practice and to get a better feel of the way it worked. Since this interest was in the course rather than the research we thought it would be most appropriate to respond by describing the current course rather than earlier versions. In providing this description we have tried to find a style in keeping with the rest of the monograph and to avoid the temptation of either writing a CNAA-style submission to display our erudition or else attempting to capture the total experience. We lack the novelists's touch and cannot provide the book of the film.

Formative evaluation of the course has continued each year. We have sought the views of students on the course, listened to the comments of visitors and internal examiners, and taken the opportunity of consulting former students whenever we have met them. Changes have been made from year to year in response to these comments and to changes in our intake - we now have more students in the FE sector; but the staffing and structure of the course has remained more or less constant since 1977[1]. The changes over the first two years were described in Chapter 5, and the diagram below shows the structure that resulted[2]. This overview gives the main features of the current course together with the qualities which it is hoped to develop in our students. Individual parts of the course have been numbered to assist cross-referencing in the description that follows.

Figure 5 SUMMARY OF MA (CDHE) PROGRAMMES

COURSE PROGRAMME	PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS
TERM 1 The Context of Teaching and Learning	
1 Curricular Patterns (eg boundaries of a discipline; modular structures) 2 Organizational Structures (eg power, committee responsibility)	Greater awareness of the variety of curricular patterns, their advantages and disadvantages, and the types of organizational structure they imply.
3 Staff and Students (eg effects of the institutional context on teaching and learning - 'hidden' implications) 4 Methods of Inquiry To obtain information about 1, 2 and 3 above (eg analysis of documents, interviewing techniques, questionnaires, etc)	Awareness of the differences and the range of perspectives that staff and students have on teaching and learning issues and the effect of the context on these. Skills to obtain and analyse information from staff and students.
Project I A teaching and learning issue, in the home institution, showing its links with organizational structure.	Ability to select a topic relevant to home institution, carry out data collection there successfully, and write report.
TERM 2 Analysis and Evaluation of Courses	
1 Methods of Evaluation (eg Stake, Scriven, Case Study methods, etc) 2 Analysis of Course Materials	Awareness of different evaluation models methods and purposes.
3 Objectives Analysis of explicit and implicit aims and objectives 4 Assessment Procedures (eg effects of different procedures, advantages, disadvantages)	Ability to analyse the assumptions behind different kinds of courses.
5 Alternative ways of teaching and learning on a course (eg independent learning, small group teaching)	Ability to view a course against alternative ways of running it.
Project II Analysis of a Course (in home institutions or elsewhere)	Ability to negotiate and successfully complete an evaluation of a course in action.
Term 3 Development of Courses and Curricula	
1 Curriculum Development	Ability to develop a range of perspectives on curriculum development as an interpersonal and problem-solving process.
2 Innovation (Case studies of different types of innovation)	
3 Teaching and Learning Support Units (eg providing resources to help staff evaluate and develop courses)	Development and appraisal of self as a resource person for the institution on return. Appreciation of the importance of interpersonal skills in this.
Project III A piece of curriculum development	Ability to design a course to fit a particular context, and negotiate it with those likely to be involved.

THE FIRST TERM

The first term of the course focuses on the institutional context, and the range of differemt perspectives that individual members may have about it. The seminar series are entitled Organization, Curricular Patterns, and Staff and Students. Each of these topics relates the explicit structures of the institution to their translation in action by different individuals with varying needs. Thus Organization discusses how formally assigned roles may be interpreted in practice. Curricular Patterns links the educational ideas behind a particular type of curriculum with the implications they have for its use. Staff and Students looks at aspects of the 'hidden curriculum' in teaching and learning; the assumptions, rules of thumb and expectations that people build up in operating within the constraints of their learning milieu. The seminars feed into the first project, in which the student chooses a teaching and learning issue of relevance in his or her home institution, and collects and analyses information about it during a two-week, mid-term 'field trip'. The problems of setting up this project, and the advantages and limitations of methods that can be used for collecting data are discussed in the Methods of Inquiry seminars. Further details of each part of the course are given below.

Curricular Patterns

Seminars on curricular patterns aim to give students the opportunity to take a close look at the main current alternatives to the three-year single-subject Honours course.

The series begins with a brief introductory session on the evolution of, and rationale for, the traditional pattern, and goes on to consider, in turn, unit and modular course structures, various types of 'broad' courses, and interdisciplinary programmes. Each of these main themes is given two sessions. The first is a general discussion for which students prepare on the basis of a selective reading list; the second comprises a series of illustrative case studies which students contribute on the basis of their own experience. The remaining two seminars aim to set the ideas generated in these discussions in a wider context. The first looks at the interface with work and society, in terms of such concepts as sandwich courses, recurrent education and open-learning systems. The second and final session examines the complex inter-relationships between curricular patterns and the organizational structure in which they are embedded. It thus brings together the two strands which have hitherto been considered side by side.

One theme emphasized throughout the series is the tension between the structure of knowledge and its social determinants - between the categorical accounts of various philosophers and the relativist views of many sociologists. The recognition of this tension should help the student to appreciate some of the practical as well as the theoretical problems generated by non-traditional curricular arrangements, and contribute towards an understanding of the interplay between curriculum and organization.

Organization

The introductory course on organizational structures is intended to provide students with some understanding of various possible styles of organization and of methodologies which have been developed for studying them. Ideas about organization are compared and related to students' own experience of working in complex institutions.

The main aims of the course are to enable individuals to appreciate more fully the structure and the processes which together define their own institution, and the ways in which these place constraints on innovation. It is intended that this should be achieved by a broadening rather than a narrowing of focus, and considerable emphasis is placed upon the exchange of information. Students are advised before coming on the course that

they will be expected to present to the group a brief outline of their own organization.

The environment in which the organization exists is also considered, particularly the political, financial and planning constraints which impinge upon institutions. The effects of the policies of the DES, of LEAs, of the UGC and of the CNAA are explored.

Students are advised to direct their reading towards a consideration of the following issues: the meaning of organization and organizational structure; the nature of power and authority; the implication of departmental structure; the notion of organizational culture, the concepts of collegiality and bureaucracy; the meaning of 'role'; and the way in which organizations attempt to control their members.

Reading has to be wide ranging and cover general texts on organization such as Handy's (1976) Understanding Organisations; Salaman and Thompsons' (1973) People and Organisations; and books or articles dealing with specific themes such as Trow's (1976) American Academic Department as a Context for Learning, Noble and Pyms' (1971) Collegial Authority and the Receding Locus of Power; or topical reports including Oaks, Haycocks and CNAA discussion documents.

Staff-Student Context and Methods of Inquiry

Methods of Inquiry and Staff-Student Context seminars are closely linked. The questions and problems posed in the Staff and Students sessions lead into discussion of the kinds of methods that can be used to gain information about them.

The aim of the seminars is to emphasize that educational settings are complex social contexts in which the participants have different perspectives and experiences. This has important implications for how problems are perceived and defined. An appreciation of the different priorities, expectations, concerns and assumptions of staff and students is essential in understanding particular teaching and learning settings. This is illustrated in the early seminars by discussion of case studies focusing on particular issues, and later by students applying this to examples from their own institutions. For both kinds of example, the questions posed are discussed and then related to methods of answering them. Some of the case studies are used every year - Snyder's (1971) The Hidden Curriculum at MIT, Miller and Parlett's (1974) monograph on assessment at Edinburgh, and Perry's (1968) study of the intellectual and ethical development of college students. Others are chosen to suit the interest and experience of a particular cohort of students. Work by former students and on-going research at Sussex also provide relevant examples.

Seminars in the latter half of the term focus more on the problems being investigated by the students for their first projects. The students are encouraged to formulate issues and questions and to work out methods of inquiry that will increase their understanding of them and yield appropriate evidence. Specific skill training is provided by workshops on interviewing, participant observation and questionnaire design. Most of the methodological discussion is based on the case studies, the training workshops, and the projects; but a few key texts such as Schatzmann and Strauss's (1973) Field Research, McCall and Simmons (1969) Participant Observation and Parlett and Hamilton's (1972) Illuminative Evaluation are also used.

The First Project

The first project, although less crucial in terms of assessment (only 25 per cent) is often regarded as the most important by students because of the impact it has upon them. For most, it is their first introduction to research of this kind; for many it is their first acquaintance with

research of any kind. To make this clear to prospective applicants we have added a postcript to one of the course outlines as follows:

> Although in many respects, this is a taught course involving seminars it also has many elements in common with a research degree, students inevitably focus a great deal of attention upon their projects and most tutorials and workshops are concerned with these. Experience on the previous courses has shown that the combination of course work and project is an extremely powerful form of learning but it is one which places considerable onus upon students. It requires of them flexibility, imagination, selectivity, autonomy and persistence in their work: In other words all the qualities of a good researcher.

In addition to the discussion of projects in seminars, each student is given individual tutorials specifically on his own project.

The projects undertaken in term 1 have covered a wide area of interests including attitudes of staff and students to team teaching in a college, problems of small subject groups in a polytechnic, student induction in a polytechnic , the experience of overseas students in a university and morale in a closing college of education.

THE SECOND TERM

The main focus of the second term is a project to evaluate a particular course in action. Again there is two weeks fieldwork towards the end of the term. Half the term's teaching is directly concerned with preparation for this project, while other seminars continue to develop students' knowledge of different types of higher education practice. So the curricular pattern theme of the first term is followed by a similar appraisal of assessment schemes and alternative (or less traditional) approaches to teaching and learning. These seminars raise issues relevant to course evaluation as well as broadening the students' repertoires for their curriculum development project in the third term.

Methods of Evaluation

Seminars on methods of evaluation suggest possible frameworks for conducting the course evaluation project. The evaluation literature is used more to alert the students to the issues than to provide detailed guidelines, because so much of it is based on the resources and experience of full-time evaluators and is unsuited to the needs of someone working on relatively small-scale, home-based evaluation projects. Salient papers by Cronbach, Parlett, Scriven, Stake and others are discussed; and considerable attention is given to the problem of negotiating a course evaluation and gaining the involvement and participation of interested parties. The general approach is that summarized in Eraut (1978), with students' choice of emphasis and empirical approach varying according to their interests, the context and the nature of the course being evaluated. Detailed methodological discussions are largely saved for the tutorials, so that they can give close attention to the particular context in which the evaluation will be conducted. Another important skill is the ability to write up the evaluation in a report which is helpful, fair and useful to those who have agreed to take part. Hence the problems of focusing a report, and handling different value positions among client groups are fully discussed, both in tutorials and in post-fieldwork seminars.

Analysis of Course Materials and Objectives

The analysis of course materials is taught in a one-week workshop at the beginning of term, using techniques developed by earlier research at Sussex (Eraut 1975). Students work in small groups and analyse anything from a traditional textbook to an independent study course. The purpose is to disclose underlying structures and assumptions and to develop criticism from several standpoints.

The workshop on objectives is shorter, not being concerned with the writing of objectives but with their role in course planning. It also attempts to sort out the very confusing literature in this area. Bloom's (1956) taxonomy is introduced through the analysis of examination papers, and this leads on to a review of other attempts at classifying objectives, and the different problems posed by different subjects. Course documents containing statements of objectives are then examined with a view to establishing the status of these objectives, their success in communicating the author's intentions and the degree of specificity. With this practical feel for how people use objectives it is then possible to approach the more controversial literature for and against using objectives in curriculum planning and for students to draw their own conclusions.

Assessment Procedures

A short set of seminars introduces students to the range of assessment practice that can be found in higher education, and to the many controversies that assessment decisions have initiated. They have to work out how they could evaluate an assessment scheme and get to know the main themes in the assessment literature. Rowntree (1977) is used as the main text and supported by a large portfolio of articles on assessment.

Alternative Ways of Teaching and Learning

The course on alternative ways of teaching and learning involves a number of separate elements concerned with independent learning, student study methods and small group teaching. The intention is that these developments should be considered in broad terms so that the full range of possibilities can be appreciated. The reasoning behind the methods, and the implications for organization, resources and individuals are critically examined.

Small group teaching involves students in a consideration of the aims, methodologies and resources associated with this mode of teaching and learning. Use is made of videotapes and role playing.

Independent learning requires a broad examination of the idea of independence in higher education and the many forms in which it is implemented. Specific schemes ranging from self-placed, formalized programmes in a specific subject area to more broadly-based student-negotiated courses are looked at in detail. Study skills and 'learning to learn' are topics which also receive attention.

Students are encouraged to study and reflect on their own experience as 'temporary' students. In their new role, what meaning and implications does independent learning have for them personally?

In recent years it has begun to take on the appearance of a student-directed course. Students make many of the decisions normally made by a course tutor, particularly those related to content, modes of teaching and learning to be adopted, and the reading to be undertaken. In this way the relationship between independent and co-operative learning (in a group) can be explored. The reading varies from year to year but in the past students have adopted books ranging from Dressel and Thompson's (1973) Independent Study, Rowntree's (1972) Educational Technology in Curriculum Development and Pirsig's (1974) Zen and the Art of Motor Cycle Maintenance.

Second Term Project

For their second project, students have to evaluate a course or part of a course being taught in a higher education establishment. Where possible their evaluations should be useful to those teaching the course. Support is provided by seminars and tutorials. Past students have undertaken evaluations of a wide range of courses, including an HNC course in medical laboratory subjects, a modular degree course at a polytechnic, a correspondence course in underwater engineering, a foundation course in art and design, a degree course in accounting, and the teaching practice element in a BEd degree. Like the first project, it counts for 25 per cent of the overall marks and is 10,000 - 12,000 words in length. Students tend to find it difficult to keep this particular project down to size.

The Third Term

The work in the third term on curriculum development draws its strength from the previous two terms. Having studied the institutional context in term 1, and evaluated a course in term 2 in relation to its context, students have the background to begin work on developing a course which could be implemented in their home institutions (Project 3). Their previous work on evaluation has illustrated the complex process of translating aims and objectives into reality, and the need for the course to fit its setting if it is to work successfully. The seminars in term 3 use case studies to illustrate a variety of experiences of curriculum development and innovation, and the lessons which can be learned from them, while tutorials give specific support to the third and major project.

Another feature of the third term is students' questioning of his or her own role on returning to the institution. This reappraisal is assisted by a series of seminars on the advantages, limitations and recent experience of teaching and learning support units. Although only some of the students will be working under the formal auspices of such units, their problems and experience are relevant to anyone who wishes to make a broader contribution to their institution than that of the ordinary lecturer. If, for example, someone wishes to assume a part-time role as a resource person for course evaluation, how could it be negotiated, what sort of position should be sought, and what kind of problems should be anticipated?

Curriculum Development

Curriculum development is seen both as a problem-solving activity and as a social process (Kraut 1976). So it is necessary to see that the detailed work required for course submission documents is based on proper foundations. Such foundations include a thorough analysis of a course's context and rationale, a consideration of alternative course strategies that is deep enough to ensure that the approach finally chosen can be properly justified, and sufficient involvement of those likely to be teaching the course to prevent major difficulties at the implementation stage.

In order to develop these qualities we have gradually evolved a combination of workshops, seminars and tutorials. The first 2-day workshop is concerned with criticizing course proposals. Next come two 2-hour sessions on writing précis of existing course proposals, an exercise designed to pull out of what is often quite a lengthy document the rationale and key characteristics of the curriculum strategy. The third workshop (also of two 2-hour sessions) involves three 'rival' teams of students producing different designs from the same course brief - the purpose is to contrast the different strategies and to develop a critical awareness of the social and intellectual demands of curriculum problem solving. Finally a writing workshop is held in which excerpts from course proposals are criticized and edited. Along-

side these workshops a short seminar programme gives students the opportunity to discuss the work of major writers on curriculum development. The tutor provides the historical context and guides the reading, while students present in turn their case for and against the perspectives offered. Tyler, Taba, Bruner, Bloom, Gagné, Stenhouse and Sockett were chosen this year.

Innovation and Teaching and Learning Support Units

The courses on Innovation and on teaching and learning support units have become closely linked in recent years and have recently been sub-titled The Management of Planned Change.

Whereas 'curriculum development' normally concentrates on course production and improvement, the 'management of change' theme deals with associated staffing, organization and policy issues which have a direct bearing on the possibility, nature and effectiveness of curriculum change.

The course addresses itself to three key questions: Where and how does change, or the desire for change, originate? What are the most commonly met resistances to change in higher education? What strategies might an organization adopt for encouraging and facilitating curriculum development?

Themes covered include the characteristics and origins of innovation, barriers to change, organizational development, staff development, consultancy and practical approaches to changing attitudes, and processes which constrain curriculum development.

Reading ranges from expositions of innovation theory by Bennis (1961) and Zaltman (1973) to more practically orientated works such as Havelock's (1970) Change Agents Guide to Innovation in Education and Berg and Östergren's (1977) Innovations and Innovation Processes in Higher Education. Case studies written up by members of faculty working with the teaching and learning support programme at Sussex are also used, together with the articles on staff development support series already cited in Chapter 2.

Third Term Projects

The final project accounts for 50 per cent of the overall marks and students have considerable choice of subject and method of approach. Their brief is to produce a piece of curriculum development, but they are required to report on the process of negotiating and formulating their proposals as well as presenting their final designs. Evidence of researching the context, including potential teachers and considering alternative strategies is normally expected. These projects are mainly supported by tutorials, but students are also required to give a seminar on their project proposals towards the end of the term. They can choose any level of design, from a whole degree course on the one hand to part of a single term's teaching on the other. Past titles have included the revision of a CNAA degree in economics, part of a degree course in industrial design, a staff training course on the introduction of TEC, and a study skills course for science students.

NOTES

1 There is a core teaching staff of four: Ms. Carolyn Miller, the current course convenor; Dr. Eric Hewton, who convenes the part-time course (see page 75) and Professor Tony Becher and Dr. Michael Eraut. Individual seminars and workshops are contributed by other university colleagues and sometimes by staff from other institutions.

2 This diagram was first published in a short article on the training of evaluators (Miller and Eraut 1978).

THE SHORT COURSE PROGRAMME

Our original proposal committed us to experimenting with shorter courses than the MA, but for reasons already described in Chapter 5 (page 22) we found it impossible to gain support for any courses of intermediate length (2 weeks to 1 term). The only non-award-bearing courses which we had the opportunity to investigate were relatively short (3-5 days); so we chose to experiment away from our Sussex base and work in close co-operation with educational development units in polytechnics. We had to organize the courses either during or immediately after term in order to attract sufficient custom, and asked for an off-campus site to protect participants from the constant intrusion of other duties. This required special financial provision and considerable forward planning so all the courses were conducted in the third and final year of our research. By then we had already completed the first MA course and were much better prepared to cater for the specific needs of polytechnics. Though eventually restricted to three courses of 3-5 days in length, our short-course programme still served a number of useful purposes.

1 It tested the extent to which some of the ideas and approaches developed in the MA course could be usefully communicated through short intensive courses; and pioneered a style of in-service course that was new to the host institutions.

2 By working co-operatively with the teaching support units in the three polytechnics concerned we were able to pass on some of the experience we had gained during our research, while at the same time gaining valuable insight into the particular needs of their own institutions.

3 The course itself enabled us to discuss specific problems of educational development individually and informally with a large number of polytechnic staff, and hence contributed to our general assessment of training needs.

4 Subsequent feedback both from course members and from the teaching support unit helped us to assess the value of an external impetus to an on-going in-service programme.

Our research team was keen to experiment with a workshop style of course, and offered three possible topics - course evaluation, course design and independent learning. All three polytechnics chose course evaluation[1], both because it was the area in which they felt they had least expertise and because it was well suited to their hope of making a strong initial impact which could be followed up later by individual consultations that they could handle unaided. In each case the local polytechnic support unit indicated the broad training needs as they saw them and took responsibility for local organization, while the university undertook the detailed educational planning and supplied most of the teaching inputs.

The general aim of each course was to get teachers in higher education to analyse, discuss and compare their courses with a view to identifying

significant teaching and learning problems. Then, mainly in a follow-up period, they would either conduct more formally organized course evaluations or, where the nature of the problem had been generally agreed, begin to formulate solutions. Our strategy involved three main phases.

1 Presentation and discussion of case studies

The purpose of this first phase was to present case studies of particular courses in order to:

a introduce important problems which were likely to figure significantly in several of the participant's own courses,
b give some idea as to what a course analysis might involve,
c create a constructive atmosphere in which it was possible for people to admit to problems and to recognize that some of them were not susceptible to simple solutions.

These case studies were presented and discussed in plenary sessions with short follow-up discussions in smaller groups. Further case-study material was loaned to course members for the duration of the workshop; and we made special attempts to provide material that was relevant to each participant's own subject.[2]

2 Analysis of the participants' own courses

Participants were asked to bring to the workshop as much evidence as possible about one of the courses on which they were teaching. They then prepared a brief analysis of that course which combined their own knowledge of it with the documentary evidence they had brought, using either their own analytic structure or one of the analysis models provided by ourselves. This was then discussed with colleagues in similar subjects, and major course problems were identified. Since they were asked to select a course which needed analysis, few of them turned out to be entirely without problems.

3 Preparation for follow up work

Each participant was asked to make a plan for some future development activity, either the redesign of a course or a more thorough evaluation of the course he had just analysed. This was discussed with the workshop staff with particular reference to (a) the problem of gaining his colleagues' and head of department's co-operation and support; (b) the general strategy; and (c) the appropriate methodology. This last point was particularly important for those planning to undertake evaluation studies.

The last two phases were mainly conducted in small groups with people from similar subject areas offering each other mutual support. During each small group session the course staff, both Sussex and local, operated as consultants, sometimes staying with a particular group and sometimes peripatetic. There was a certain amount of formal reporting back from small groups to plenary sessions, and a great deal of informal exchange of information and ideas.

EVALUATION OF THE SHORT COURSES

The conclusions drawn in this section on short courses must be regarded as tentative because the size of the sample was so small and each course was in its own way unique. But we still believe that the evidence provides some useful pointers to ways in which this style of in-service education could profitably develop.

The location of the courses had a significant effect on morale, which needs to be born in mind when examining the evaluation evidence. Course A, which lasted four and a half days, was held at an annexe several miles from the main polytechnic building in rather dingy classrooms during a spell of cold, grey and foggy weather. Students had not in every case been relieved of all their teaching duties, with the result that the numbers attending varied from day to day and session to session. The ten students came from a polytechnic, from FE institutions some distance away, and from two other polytechnics. Course B lasted three days and was residential, being held out of season at an inexpensive, rural adventure and recreation centre. Accommodation was adequate though not especially comfortable, but participants were beyond the reach of other demands on their time and were able to combine periods of informal contact off duty with long working hours. Fifteen of the nineteen students came from B polytechnic, one from another polytechnic, one from a college of education and two from further education. Course C, which also lasted 3 days, was non-residential. Though close to the main polytechnic, other demands on participants' time were largely avoided by prior planning, so all fourteen were present for most of the time. All of them came from C polytechnic.

Another influence was the 'home' support group, whose commitment and confidence varied. Where they were able to collaborate with participants and visiting staff in a reasonably relaxed manner, things proceeded fairly smoothly; but when they were tense and apparently wanted to pressure the participants to produce results to justify the course, this got in the way of establishing an atmosphere of mutual trust. It was partly a question of being patient enough to wait for the moment when the participants were ready to make plans for future activities.

A brief feedback questionnaire was completed on the last day of each course and the results are presented below[3].

Figure 6 RESULTS OF FEEDBACK QUESTIONNAIRE

			Percentage of students		
			A(8)	B(13)	C(12)
1	In the sense that the course might have some application to your own situation, did you find it on the whole	Very useful	75	77	25
		Fairly useful	25	23	67
		Not very useful	-	-	8
2	Whether you can see any personal applications or not, did you find the course	Very interesting	75	77	50
		Fairly interesting	25	23	50
		Not very interesting	-	-	-
3	Did you find the general level of the course	Too high	-	-	-
		About right	75	100	92
		Too low	25	-	8
4	Did you find the duration of the course	Too long	62	8	8
		About right	38	84	92
		Too short	-	8	-

			ABC
5	If you had to choose one, and only one, topic for the next course run on these lines, which would it be? (If nothing on the list appeals to you, please write in any suggested topic at the bottom of the list)	H.E. Organisation and Curricular Patterns	1
		Students & Staff; Their Attitudes & Perceptions	7
		Evaluation in H.E.	6
		Teaching/Learning Methods	4
		Independent Learning	2
		Assessment Problems	1½
		Small Group Teaching	1½
		Course Design	5
		The Process of Innovation	4
		(Philosophy of Education	1)

These results would seem to confirm that three days is the most appropriate length for a course of this type (only A, the 5-day course, was perceived as being too long). The less favourable response to Course C surprised us as it did not correspond with our personal impressions, and the replies to question 5 are interesting for emphasizing those areas to which we gave the most attention rather than those which we neglected, thus suggesting a certain whetting of the appetite. A sixth question, asking for further comments, received a varied response, some wanting a more specialized course within a single department, others welcoming the opportunity of gaining a wider view across the polytechnic. Some wanted more productive group work, while others would have liked a higher proportion of structured input.

A second questionnaire was sent to the participants of Course B about six months after the end of the course, asking for a retrospective evaluation of the course and for information about the progress of educational development plans which had been formulated on the course. Two-thirds replied, although it was near the end of the summer term. The majority (about two-thirds of the respondents) reported considerable progress or important effects on their thinking about their jobs, while a minority reported little or no progress. Two now gave strongly negative appraisals of the course, and it was interesting to note that both were already involved in educational development along fairly traditional lines with an emphasis on materials production and the definition of objectives. In our view these results showed the importance of the third phase of the course, although in this particular workshop we were careful not to introduce it at too early a stage.

A polytechnic ran a second course on similar lines the following year without our assistance, thus furthering our aim of disseminating some of the experience gained in our research. However, we also received comments from several participants to the effect that the external stimulus had been responsible for their coming on the course in the first place, so there are evidently limits to any dissemination strategy. We raised this issue at the conference for heads of teaching support units which we held at the end of the research project; and they agreed that it was always extremely useful to be able to call upon external resources provided the initiative remained with the internal unit. They also expressed strong support for the kind of advanced training being offered on the MA course, and stimulated us to find ways in which this could be made more widely available.

FURTHER EXPERIMENTS WITH LONG COURSES

The success of the original MA course led to the Education Area at Sussex making it a permanent feature of their programme, although attendance was limited to those who could obtain full-time secondment. Demands for a part-time version then began to accumulate; and these were brought to a head when the Learning Resources Unit at Brighton Polytechnic gave strong support and offered to recruit staff from their own institution. The idea was then discussed at a regional meeting of SCEDSIP (qv page) where the Polytechnic of North London also declared an interest and the following points were made to us in correspondence.

> 'This is a particularly important time for staff involved in mergers and the re-direction of academic effort and there is great interest by such staff in retraining to meet needs in the development of new courses and alternative modes of learning in higher education. At the same time there is some reluctance to undertake a year's full-time separation from their institutions while such major upheavals are taking place. Thus

the idea of a two-year part-time course, running parallel to involvement in course redesign and other educational development activities is most attractive.'

'At PNL we are trying to initiate an educational development service, and we have particular need of academic staff with this sort of expertise. It is, though, difficult at present to press for full-time secondment because of financial stringencies - a part-time course, by contrast, allows us to integrate teaching commitments and further study with minimum disruption.'

This gave some guarantee of a viable number of students, and consultations began with both polytechnics over the possibility of day release.

Meanwhile, the arrival at Sussex of another member of staff with higher education research interests and experience made the staffing of such a course feasible, so a part-time course was approved by the appropriate university committees with the proviso that we recruited only once in two years. It was agreed that the content should correspond as closely as possible to the full-time course and that the assessment should also be the same, ie on the basis of three projects. The course should be spread over two years instead of one and this would extend the time taken for each project from one term to two terms. Students would be required to set aside one day a week during term time for attendance at the university or for independent course work. They would also be expected to spend the equivalent of one additional day per week overall, carrying out fieldwork for their projects and writing up their reports. In addition there would be three pre-term workshops at the university, requiring full-time attendance for two days on each occasion.

Applications were received from members of many institutions in London and the South-East; and twelve students were accepted. The criteria for selection were similar to those used for the full-time course, with particular attention being paid to the support offered to applicants by their home institution. Half the group were from polytechnics and half from colleges or institutes of higher education. The range of subjects was mathematics, science, engineering, education, learning resources and languages. The first course began in January 1977 and has now finished, with comments from internal and external examiners indicating that the resultant projects are on a par with those of the full-time students. A second course began in October 1979. This time ten students were selected, from a much larger application list. They represent polytechnics, colleges of further education, the open university, and medical and nurse training institutions. Again, the broad spread of subject backgrounds has been maintained.

A number of differences between the full and part-time courses are worthy of note. Group identity is much more difficult to create part-time. Members of the group clearly lose something by not having daily contact with each other. The exchange of information, books, papers, ideas and problems takes place naturally on the full-time course; but on the part-time course it either does not occur or else has to be deliberately engineered, always with the risk of appearing contrived. Residential workshops help, to some extent, to overcome these problems.

The main advantage for the part-time student lies in continuing close contact with developments in the home institution as and when they occur. They provide frequent opportunities to relate course work back and to arrange and carry out ad hoc fieldwork. As aginst this, however, their regular presence tends to draw them into departmental affairs at the cost of their agreed release time. Although regular visits to Sussex have remained top priority, the preservation of time for project work has become, for many, a hazardous business. Another less obvious disadvantage is that

those who are full-time at Sussex can return to their institutions with the temporary status of 'outsiders', whilst the part-timers are still seen by their colleagues very much as 'insiders'. This makes a considerable difference to their credibility as researchers and hence to the attitude of colleagues and students during their fieldwork.

Despite the difficulties and the obviously greater strain which a part-time commitment presents to students, we nevertheless feel encouraged in the belief that this form of course has a major part to play in an overall programme.

NOTES

1 A fourth polytechnic requested a course on independent learning but we were unable to get sufficient financial support at a time of heavy cuts in expenditure.

2 Sometimes it was possible to use completed MA projects after obtaining the author's permission.

3 It is unusual to use percentages when such small numbers are involved, but in this case it allows comparisons to be made without disturbing the format of the original questionnaire.

THE CURRENT SITUATION

During the five years from 1972 to 1977 most institutions of higher education established reasonably successful courses of initial training for their staff. However, though many institutions have now evolved interesting and valuable programmes of in service activities for experienced staff, the total effect is relatively small.

Initial training, in-service training and educational development are interdependent activities whose success is greatly influenced by the climate prevailing within individual departments and institutions. Educational development activities in which experienced staff receive co-operation and assistance from members of teaching support units are themselves an important form of in-service training.

An informal national network has developed of professional associations and individual lecturers with a strong interest in educational development and teaching in higher education. This network should be regarded as a useful resource for in-service provision.

Many of the people to be found within the network can be classified either as having a formal institution-wide responsibility for educational development (usually through belonging to a teaching support unit) or else a special role within their own departments (possibly being recognized as an innovator or as someone who can give useful advice about teaching). The latter group are important in facilitating change, and many would welcome and benefit from some formal recognition of their departmental roles. This would be enhanced by their receiving appropriate advanced training. Many members of teaching support units would also welcome the opportunity to undertake advanced training, and to gain formal qualifications related to their area of expertise.

University staff tend to see teaching as a wholly individual enterprise, with innovation being a matter of personal rather than corporate concern. But in the maintained sector there is more focus on the course and the group of staff responsible for teaching it; and the more hierarchical structure allows initiatives to come from above as well as from below. This implies that rather different approaches to educational development may be needed.

NEEDS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The expressed need for in-service training among experienced teachers is relatively small, because:

1 There is limited awareness of the kind of training that could be provided.

2 Expressing a need for training implies that one's current performance is possibly deficient.

3 Low priority is given to the quality of teaching in most institutions and departments.

Opinions about training needs are highly dependent on the context in which they are solicited, so surveys of need are likely to be misleading. Inter-

views can be useful only if they allow the respondents' perspectives to emerge.

A second approach to needs assessment starts from an analysis of institutional goals and problems; and assumes that it is possible to contribute to these by introducing appropriate kinds of training. Such training needs may not often be acknowledged, and off-the-peg courses are unlikely to be appropriate.

The third approach to the assessment of training needs is experimental. It involves designing courses to meet hypothesized needs and then evaluating the courses to see whether the training was both effective and relevant. Long courses offer the special advantage of allowing training needs to be refined and modified within the course itself.

All three methods were used in our research. The findings of the first two are summarized below and the third on page 80.

In investigating expressed needs we gave special attention to staff identified as being 'keen teachers'. This group gave relatively low priority to formal training and high priority to interpersonal skills. They also welcomed the opportunity to meet like-minded colleagues and to link in to national networks. In the maintained sector there was a parallel emphasis on political skills and on the ability to work with colleagues and gain their support. Evaluation was seen as important but there were doubts about its feasibility.

Evaluation was also emphasized by members of teaching support units, many of whom felt that they themselves could benefit from training in this area. Political skills were again mentioned; and so was course design particularly where the preparation of documents for validation was of vital importance.

Different groups saw in-service training meeting different purposes. The 'keen teachers' were concerned with getting a better deal for students and making teaching a more rewarding experience for staff. Senior management saw institutional needs in terms of coping with change. They wanted to maintain stability, morale and a sense of direction amidst rapidly changing external circumstances. Educational developers, on the other hand, wished to stimulate change and to re-examine institutional norms that appeared to affect the quality of teaching.

Our own analysis of institutional goals and problems was based on previous experience, with evidence provided by the case studies and research undertaken by students on our MA course in their own institutions. In addition to the needs identified above we would emphasize the importance of communication in educational development. A high proportion of the problems we identified in the course of our research appeared to result from poor communication, both between different groups of staff and between staff and students. Mutual suspicion, narrow interpretations of the teaching role and a failure to share ideas and perspectives not only prevented development but even more seriously resulted in a lack of understanding of the existing state of affairs. For this reason we would give high priority in training to understanding and coming to terms with the full range of staff and student perspectives on important issues; to the skills of working with people; and to approaches which treat both development and evaluation as social processes. A broader knowledge of the institution itself, of its general direction and its links with the outside world are also important if educational development is to be seen in its proper context.

Our initial diagnosis of training needs is summarized in Apendix A. It is distinctively different from that which appears to underly many current in-service programmes. These tend to be overtechnical in thei.

approach, neglecting interpersonal skills and social processes and treating teaching problems in relative isolation from their broader institutional context.

EXPERIMENTAL COURSES

The test-bed around which much of the research revolved was an experimental MA course for experienced staff in higher and further education (details of the current course are given in Appendix 3). This course is intended to prepare its students for future roles as educational development consultants at either institutional or departmental level; and the majority of the students subsequently assumed or resumed such roles. The course embodied a set of assumptions about training needs which participants were invited to experience, test out and modify. These assumptions were refined and confirmed by feedback from students on the course, by student experiences while undertaking fieldwork in their own institutions and by former students attempting to use their training after they had finished the course (cf Appendix B). A number of external evaluations by visiting experts and examiners were also sought.

The experiment also produced strong evidence in favour of the course's intellectual style and teaching strategy. Features confirmed as being particularly valuable included (1) the emphasis on project work in a student's own institution, (2) its treatment of educational development as a social and political process as well as a technical process, (3) its use of seminar discussions and tutorials, and (4) the early focus on evaluation and problem diagnosis.

People who receive this kind of advanced training in educational development can make important contributions to higher education, and many have already done so. The major factor affecting educational development will continue to be the prevailing climate of opinion within individual departments and institutions, but this is not unaffected by educational development activities which take proper account of the individual concerns of staff and students.

Experiments with part-time versions of this MA course are now in progress; and attempts to transfer some of the techniques and experience gained to shorter 3-day courses have been reasonably successful. There is scope for further experiment with 3-5 day courses, particularly those which are residential, institutionally-based, and incorporate follow-up activities. An external stimulus is useful on such occasions, both because it confers special status upon them and because innocent outsiders have to be instructed in the ways of the place, which thereby become explicit and debatable.

APPENDIX A INITIAL DIAGNOSIS OF TRAINING NEEDS

KNOWLEDGE

1 Higher Education and Society The place of a student's institution in society; expectations of it and attitudes towards it; the political and financial pressures on it; how it is perceived by various groups of members and by various groups in the local community.

2 Academic Structures and Curricular Patterns The range of possibilities, and arguments for and against each of them; including characteristics such as modular courses, foundation years, sandwich courses, Dip HEs, and interdisciplinary courses; faculties, schools, departments and subject groups.

3 Course Evaluation and Design Structures for courses; ways of developing courses; ways of evaluating courses; methods of assessment; general curriculum concepts.

4 Staff and Students Their perceptions of departments, courses, situations and people; techniques for the investigation of these perceptions.

5 Teaching, Learning and Communication Methods Different methods and styles, and their advantages and limitations; the use of media; problems of analysing and improving teaching performance.

6 Organizational Patterns, Teaching Support Units and Innovation Strategies The effects of different kinds of organization; formal and informal structures; resource distribution; institutional climate; factors promoting or preventing innovation; staff development; committee structures; roles of support units.

SKILLS

These can be sub-divided into interpersonal skills, teaching skills, task-oriented skills. In nearly all situations all three will be required.

1 Interpersonal Skills Participating in committees, working groups, course teams, etc; functioning as a 'process helper' in such groups; talking with people in order to find out their problems, needs and attitudes; acting as an adviser to individual people.

2 Teaching Skills Making a presentation in an in-service context; non-directive teaching in an in-service context.

3 Task-Oriented Skills Diagnosing problems; developing and evaluating courses; planning in-service training; preparing learning materials; writing reports.

ATTITUDES

-Concern to diagnose a problem before attempting to solve it.
-Awareness of the limitations of knowledge about education.
-Expectation of learning from other people's views and experience.
-Concern for all participants in a situation and awareness of conflicting views.
-Desire to function as a 'process helper' rather than 'expert' whenever possible.

-Motivation to persist when receiving very little support.
-High tolerance of risk and uncertainty.

APPENDIX B RETROSPECTIVE STUDENT REPORTS ON THE 1974-5 MA COURSE

STUDENT A

During my year at Sussex I applied for an appointment at the college for a principal lectureship with special responsibility for curriculum development The appointment was to be made within my teaching specialism, but time was to be allocated in order that I could work with teams undertaking development in other subjects. The appointment was therefore not predominantly within curriculum development as an enterprise in its own right, but curriculum development was named as the special feature of the appointment. My application was successful, and I am sure that my year of study at Sussex strongly influenced the decision of the appointments committee.

From my short-lived experience of being in the thick of curriculum development I am unable to see any firm pattern of commitment emerging. I am, however, aware that there are dangers in becoming the person who may be called on to patch and polish the outdated and the mediocre. If such a role is allowed to become established, I would be profoundly suspicious of my real value to the academic health of the institution: I feel that the curriculum developer should become the member of staff who can be relied upon to stimulate and sustain institutional concern in educational advance: not the tame editor-in-chief who can be relied upon to package muddled thoughts in acceptable English.

The most happy and encouraging part of my present experience is perhaps in my work at the polytechnic. here I am using the skills developed with you in ways that I perceive to be the most productive. I am accepted as a subject specialist in my own right, and yet my views on the structure and organization of arts-centred courses are valued: I am working and discussing courses with others that care about the content of such courses, and feel that my presence is enriching the level of debate. This particular commitment comes most closely to the type of work that I envisaged for myself before attending the Sussex course: not only will I have contributed to the form of courses to be run, and therefore pressed the subject forward, but I will, in all probability, be teaching on those courses: I then see these courses as generating national interest in the concepts embodied in them, and therefore becoming agents for change and enrichment.

If one was asked to generalize, one would say that the course at Sussex was most valuable in providing an overview rather than a detailed focus: it also provided an invaluable vocabulary for analysing and articulating aspects of the academic and political structure of the institutions in which one worked. In retrospect, I would find it most difficult to arrange the various elements of the CDET course in a hierarchy of relative importance: they all seem to contribute to the various issues that arise in the ongoing institutional commitment to curriculum development: for me, you had the mixture right. I have never wanted specific information from courses, but rather an introduction to the perspectives of those responsible for the teaching of the course: one can always dig into detail in one's own time, but the contact with others cannot be achieved in any other way. I found the protracted discussion with fellow students invaluable in that I became aware of their attitudes towards their own specialist subjects: in my work at college with staff from other subject disciplines these insights

have proved important in establishing relationships.

STUDENT B

As I have indicated, I don't feel much of a sense of change between my last term with you and the subsequent one at X. One experience has seemed to be a natural continuation of the other. Although this must contribute to your course it is also the result of a very fortunate co-incidence of time between the requirements of the CNAA and my attendance on the MA course. Whatever the reason, however, this made the MA course particularly rewarding for me.

As to how well the course has prepared me to cope with problems associated with curriculum development, this is very difficult to evaluate, particularly to myself. However, there is one positive thing that I can say about this, which is that I now feel very much more confident about what I am doing and about what I may be asked to do in the future, than I did previously and I feel that this is because I now see the whole issue of curriculum development in a better perspective.

STUDENT C

The head of faculty asked me to see him the day I returned to discuss my future role within the faculty. During our discussion I was able to describe in detail particular aspects of the course and some of the projects I had undertaken that were relevant to the problems facing the college. We both agreed that there was little point in me taking up my old position in the present situation and he asked me to join a faculty-based curriculum development group. This group was formed within one week of our discussion and our initial brief is to design new engineering courses at higher technician level. The group comprises of one representative from each of the divisions of mechanical, electrical, and production engineering, with a chairman. The representatives from the divisions of mechanical and electrical are senior staff of considerable experience and proven ability within the college. They will have no difficulty in writing the content sections of their new courses but have limited knowledge of new methods of assessment, teaching and learning that the validating body will be looking for in submissions. One of the main hindrances to curriculum development will be heterogeneity in approach among the individuals within the group. To initiate the changes advocated by the Technician Education Council necessitates gathering together a team of people with like intent, though not necessarily like outlook. All should believe that there was an urgent need for reform which is certainly not the case in our group. There is also a body of opinion that regards curriculum development as nothing more than writing syllabuses in objective form. Discussions with staff have revealed that many believe that objectives occur in a vacuum and independent of their interaction between other aspects of curriculum design such as methods of presentation and modes of assessment. This is where the experiences of last year will be helpful. I will be responsible for design and production engineering courses and will try to establish a house style for course design and development. I will also be required to help out on teaching and learning strategies and modes of assessment for courses being designed for other divisions.

I have used the first term to re-establish myself within the college and manoeuvre into the right positions so that the experiences of last year can be applied. The curriculum development group to which I belong will be responsible for designing new technician courses which represent approximately 80 per cent of the faculty work load. I have also been appointed

to the Working Party for Preparation of Teaching Materials in my own regional branch of technology and just before Christmas I was asked to assist the senior lecturer in education in exploring the possibilities of pooling resources and expertise to provide a more comprehensive programme of staff development and training for the further and higher education sectors.

STUDENT D

I have been passed enquiries from organizations and companies with management development and training requirements and where possible I have designed and run short courses for them on an 'in-company' basis. This is almost exactly the same function as that which I had previously. I find that comparisons of my work before and after the Sussex course reveal that it has greatly improved.

This assessment is not only based upon personal observation and intuition. Feedback from employers (ie course sponsors) and short course students is more encouraging. In class contact I feel that I have seen much better results and I am convinced that this is directly related to my placing much more emphasis on the learning process and not quite so much concern over lecture performance and formal teaching. There have been favourable comments at the polytechnic on the new Diploma in Industrial Management which was my major curriculum development project. This was subsequently adopted by the relevant board of studies as a new course for 1975/76 and was also approved by the Institution of Works Managers as an acceptable alternative to their own syllabus for registered students. The course commenced in September 1975 with an enrolment of fourteen students and I am continuing to keep in touch with ongoing progress in the hope of evaluating the Diploma course after its first year is completed in July 1976.

STUDENT E

In a real sense the 1974/75 MA (CDET) HE option course is still continuing. The course provided not only a thorough training in techniques of curriculum research but also the opportunity to apply it to a new and challenging situation. Many issues and problems were raised by the work, which will continue to remain substantive for a long time to come. The main value of the course has been in providing a more solid conceptual foundation to discuss developments in BEd programmes on the part of the researcher. It was less successful in communicating itself to the immediate clientele (the department) and the institution as a whole. Perhaps this is not surprising where no higher degree of the kind has ever been undertaken by a member of the college and where there are fears for the future of the institution. A further limitation has been the lack of status in the institution to influence policy formation at its most sensitive stages. Going away from the institution for the course meant missing a strategic opportunity to be directly involved.

STUDENT F

It is unlikely that I would be as 'involved' as I am without the experience of the MA course behind me and certainly I feel that I have been able to apply certain general skills acquired during the course. At one level a report on a conference attended re DipHE was effective in influencing the thinking of the DipHE committee and I feel that the report would not have been as effectively produced without the observational skills acquired on the course. At another level I feel more adept at 'problem-identification'

vis-à-vis the scheme. However, although it seems relatively easy to persuade colleagues to perceive 'problems' as 'problems' it is less easy to promote action or risk. The institution is too concerned with survival to risk disturbing the CNAA polytechnic negotiations. 'Regulations' are in process of becoming more self-actualized than people.

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