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ABSTRACT

The processes entailed in facilitating or leading workshops or seminars for researching the curriculum in Technical and Further Education (TAFE) were examined by using a modified Delphi process, which was followed by a 2-day workshop. Participants in the study were all experienced curriculum development specialists with knowledge of one or more of the following group process methods: Search Conference, Nominal Group Technique, Developing a Curriculum (DACUM) and its derivatives, and the Critical Incident Technique. The facilitator role was examined in terms of the value orientations (preferences) and social rules (guides for action) used by experienced TAFE facilitators/group leaders. The facilitator/group leadership process was shown to require complex interpersonal skills, including the ability to set clear directions in a nonauthoritarian manner, negotiate flexibly with group members, face and resolve conflicts, and motivate groups. A model of the general stages and steps through which curriculum research workshops progress and a guide to the selection of group process methods for curriculum research in vocational education were developed on the basis of these research findings. Appendixes include instructions to the participants in the study workshop, a summary of the workshop examining the facilitator role, detailed results concerning facilitators' value orientations and social rules, and an example of personal constructs data. A four-page reference list and tables and a figure are included. (MN)

TAFE NATIONAL CENTRE FOR
RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

THE FACILITATION OF CURRICULUM RESEARCH WORKSHOPS IN TAFE

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This study arose out of the review of curriculum research group process methods, by the same authors, which showed a need for a close examination of the role of the facilitator or leader in the planning and conduct of curriculum research group process methods.

This report is written mainly for researchers or educators who already have experience in group work. With the interests of this audience in mind we have included a fairly detailed exposition of the theoretical concepts used in this study. We anticipate that readers who are more interested in what we found out rather than how we approached the study will be more interested in the section on results (Section 4).

The authors undertook this work as officers of the Curriculum Services Directorate (now Directorate of Studies) of the NSW Department of TAFE, Mr Neil Jones as Senior Education Officer and Dr Tony Anderson as Education Officer. The project was undertaken as commissioned research for the TAFE National Centre for Research and Development, Adelaide.

We would be interested to hear of any insights which group process leaders have about the complex art of leading curriculum research workshops.

ABSTRACT

The processes entailed in facilitating or leading workshops or seminars for technical and further education curriculum research were examined by a modified Delphi process (questionnaire with feedback of results to participants) followed by a two-day workshop. Participants in the study were all experienced curriculum development specialists with knowledge of one or more of the following group process methods: Search Conference, Nominal Group Technique, DACUM (developing a curriculum) and derivatives of DACUM, the Critical Incident Technique and other group discussion techniques. The study is a companion to the examination of curriculum research methods by the same authors titled: 'TAFE Curriculum research: a review of group process methods'.

The facilitator role is analysed in terms of the value orientations (preferences) and social rules (guides for action) used by experienced TAFE facilitators/group leaders.

The results show that the facilitation/group leadership process requires complex interpersonal skills including the ability to set clear directions in a non-authoritarian manner, the ability to negotiate flexibly with group members, to face and resolve conflict and to motivate groups. The social rules and value orientations adopted by the facilitators studied are presented in detail. A model is presented of the general stages and steps through which curriculum research workshops progress. The model describes the value orientations and social rules which appear appropriate to each stage. A guide to the selection of group process methods for curriculum research in vocational education is included.

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WORKSHOP PARTICIPANTS

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DATA ANALYSIS

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PREFACE

This study of the facilitation of curriculum research and development workshops in TAFE was part of a national research project titled: 'An investigation of approaches to occupational data gathering and analysis for the purpose of course design and review in Australian TAFE'.

The project was commissioned by the Board of Directors of the TAFE National Centre for Research and Development to be carried out by the NSW Department of TAFE, in response to a need perceived by people in TAFE and in industry, for TAFE curriculum researchers and developers to use methods which identify quickly and effectively the educational/training requirements of occupations.

During the initial phase of the national research project it was established that a number of curriculum research methods require skill in the processes of facilitating group process methods. These methods rely mainly on the collection of occupational data in structured group sessions or workshops in which the participants are occupational 'experts' and/or TAFE personnel. Such methods include:

1. The DACUM (developing a curriculum) method.
2. The Search Conference.
3. The Nominal Group Technique (NGT).
4. The Skills/Knowledge/Attitudes (SKA) workshop (a DACUM derivative).

For a preliminary description of these and other curriculum research methods see Anderson and Jones (1986).

The gathering of qualitative data about the educational requirements of occupations using curriculum research group processes (workshops), places the facilitator (or group leader/group manager) in a crucial role. Since a number of curriculum research methods used in TAFE rely upon the skills of the group facilitator/leader, it was decided to examine the dimensions of these skills with the aim of identifying some of the characteristics of effective group facilitation/leadership. The authors appreciate that the view of what constitutes effective facilitation varies according to the theoretical orientation of the group process being used, and is dependent upon psychological processes within groups which are subject to considerable variation between groups. Since there is no 'right' way to lead a curriculum research group, the aim of this study is to

present a view of what appears to be a number of the important characteristics of curriculum research group facilitation or leadership. The study should be read in conjunction with the study of curriculum research methods (Anderson and Jones, 1986).

FOR THE READER IN A HURRY

Begin with Table 4.3 which presents a general view of the main stages and steps in curriculum research workshops and the values (conceptions of the desirable), and social rules (guides for action) which appear to fit each stage and each step. This summary is expanded in the section immediately following the table.

For an expanded view of the facilitator's role including pitfalls and controversies read Appendix C.

The discussion section (Section 5) highlights some common themes and issues important to successful facilitation.

For details of the workshop methods, see Anderson and Jones, 1986a below.

TAFE National Research and Development publications arising from this project are:

Anderson, T, and Jones, N. (1986a) TAFE Curriculum Research: A Review of group process methods.

Dawson, D., Dowling, R., Jones, N. and Anderson, T. (1986) TAFE Curriculum Research: A Review of group process methods. Descriptive Bibliography.

Jones, N. and Anderson, T. (1986) TAFE Curriculum Research: A Review of group process methods. Research Method.

Anderson, T. and Jones, N. (1986) TAFE Curriculum Research: A Review of group process methods. Summary.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Hegarty (1977) noted that little had been written about how to structure curriculum development groups in order to maximise ideational fluency, social compatibility or morale' (1977:31). This study examines the implementation of curriculum development group process methods by describing dimensions of the facilitation or group leadership process, as these apply across a range of curriculum research methods. This study is a companion to the description of a number of curriculum research group process methods (Anderson and Jones, 1986), and should be read in conjunction with that study.

The research questions we asked in this study were: (1) What do experienced users of group process methods value in planning and conducting curriculum research group process workshops? and, (2) What guides for action (social rules) do they adopt when working with groups?

Curriculum research projects which examine the educational needs of a large-scale, diverse occupational grouping usually include several components such as a preliminary investigation of available data; exploratory work on current occupation trends, issues and practices; more detailed data collection by use of mail questionnaires, or interviews, and/or observation of work functions; the conduct of industry or teacher workshops and so on. For smaller-scale investigations this process may be shortened, with, in some cases, the main data collection method being an industry group seminar or workshop or a single mailed questionnaire.

Curriculum research workshops or seminars are characterised by a data-generation phase in which aspects of the work performed within an occupation are examined by a group of informed persons such as industry 'experts', supervisors, managers, trainers, operators and, in some cases, curriculum developers. When such methods are used, a considerable responsibility rests upon the group leader or facilitator to ensure that the workshop produces an accurate picture of the educational needs of an occupational grouping.

Some forms of curriculum research workshops such as the DACUM method of developing a curriculum (see Anderson and Jones, 1986) begin with the exposition of the main work functions in the industry or occupation (sometimes called 'main duties'), and then detail the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed

by operators to perform these work functions efficiently. These skills may b sequenced in the order in which the industry 'experts' believe they should b learnt. This sequence is then usually reviewed and 'fine-tuned' by curriculu specialists during syllabus writing. Other forms of curriculum researc workshops such as the Search Conference, typically begin with an examinatio of the social and technological forces which are bearing on society and the move to a closer examination of the effects of these on the educational need of the occupation.

Curriculum research workshops vary in structure from relatively open (Searc Conferences and focused group discussion) methods to relatively tightly define (DACUM and Nominal Group Technique) methods. Descriptions of curriculu research workshop methods may provide the intending group leader/facilitato with a set of procedures to follow in the workshop stage of developin curricula. However, knowledge of the procedures alone does not equip a intending user of the workshop methods to deal with the subtleties an complexities of working with groups, for example, how to motivate groups negotiate the details of how the workshop should flow, ensure full participation find the points of consensus, resolve conflicts, generate commitment t implementation of outcomes, handle vested interests or minority power clique and so on. Much of this knowledge seems to reside in the hands of a fe experienced practitioners. Moreover, the term 'group leader' implies directio of a group via a set of steps towards a goal, yet some forms of grou leadership entail setting in motion a process in which the group determine what they are going to do and how they will go about it. In this case th leader would act more like a follower, adopting a support role and helping th group to develop a line they wish to pursue: a process which is believe generates a high degree of commitment by the group to the implementation o the outcomes from the group. Commitment and the realities of implementin curriculum programs appear to be important questions in choosing curriculu research workshop process methods.

Other questions which a curriculum developer in TAFE might ask in decidin on a program of curriculum research are shown in Table 1.1, below.

Table 1.1

SOME QUESTIONS WHICH GUIDE SELECTION OF VARIOUS CURRICULUM GROUP PROCESS RESEARCH METHODS

Key question	Curriculum research method
What is currently available that bears on curriculum development in the area?	Preliminary investigation
Do you need to describe the general field to be covered by a course, and to identify the main elements in this field and their interrelationships, or to identify the major questions which curriculum research should address?	Exploratory research Student profiling Graduate student survey
Is the occupation undergoing substantial change?	Exploratory research The Delphi Method The Search Conference
Is the occupation relatively stable?	DACUM (or derivatives)
Is there group tension about the direction a course review should take?	Search Conference Nominal Group Technique (Possibly Force Field Analysis)
Is urgent information required about the critical knowledge needed to perform specific work functions?	Critical Incident Technique DACUM
Does the data derived from any of the methods require validation or does the derived program require validation?	Questionnaire

2. THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

'The business of theory is to help us to think clearly, and to see what is difficult to see' (Connell, 1983:vii). The processes entailed in facilitating or leading curriculum research workshops were examined using two concepts: values and social rules. These concepts (or explanatory perspectives) are summarised below and discussed in detail in the theoretical appendix (Appendix D).

Values and social rules

According to Barth (1966:12) values 'are the criteria by reference to which alternative actions are evaluated and on the basis of which choice is exercised.' They are views about significance, worthwhileness and preference in or for things and actions (Barth, 1966). Values should not be regarded as 'objectively correct, natural or true; they are canons of judgement which people impose on things and actions', they occur prior to 'sequences of behaviour' and they are 'empirical facts which may be discovered' (Barth, 1966). Social rules are guides or recipes for action (Shwayder, 1965; Harre and Secord, 1972). The two concepts are connected. If one values, say, freedom of speech, one could adopt rules such as opposing censorship and encouraging public debate.

In line with Barth (1966), Marsh (1982) sees values as serving as the genesis of action (Marsh, 1982) and function as the central principles underlying individual or communal conceptions of what is desirable, that is, they guide choices between alternatives (Barth, 1966; Bronowski, 1973). Values are the 'implicit ideologies of a society - political, social or religious' (Tajfel, 1972:101). Note that 'ideologies' refer to those beliefs which, though they may contain a grain of truth, are largely distortions of how society functions, that is, ideologies contain an element of falsity (Billig, 1976:245). Values appear to be general, pervasive and resistant to change. That is, they are relatively stable over time. Values cannot be reduced to the individual since they are defined in relation to social situations. In other words, people are not born with values but learn to value some things over others through social interaction. Since values are a 'function of subjective meaning which is not directly observable' (Lemert, 1979) and are abstractions removed from the level of everyday life; they are difficult to measure.

The concept of social rules assumes that people are self-monitoring agents who pursue ends by using social rules as guides for action within specific situations. These rules serve as reasons for behaviour and are used to negotiate or test the definition of social situations and to interpret the meanings or intentions of others. An important property of social rules is that they can be made, renegotiated or broken.

Social rules possess a number of properties which make them suitable for the exploration of the facilitation or leader role in curriculum research workshops. Some of these properties can be summarised using the example of the social rule: 'When in Rome, do as the Romans do'. A tourist following this rule may adopt customs, dress and behaviour that correspond to those used by Romans. In doing so, the rule enables the tourist to adjust to Roman life. (Rules have an enabling function by allowing social life to flow smoothly and are guides for action, i.e. in Rome copy what the Romans do.) Of course, to live like the Romans imposes certain limitations on action. (Some rules are restrictive.) If asked for an explanation of why he or she is behaving like a Roman, the reply could be given: 'I am following the rule - 'When in Rome, do as the Romans do'. (Rules are reasons; rules are justifications for actions.) In following the rule, the tourist would be fitting in with the expectations of the host culture, that, in Rome, this is how to behave. (Rules reflect expectations.) The actor can vary the rule, e.g. cease to behave like a Roman. (Rules can be broken and, therefore, are open to negotiation and to the interplay of the forces of social power.) The choice of the rule could be made because the tourist values living like a native, rather than as a conventional tourist. (Rules are patterned by values.)

Rules present a useful though partial view of action. The approach taken in this study was to expand Harre and Secord's (1972) conception of role as made up of rules (role-rule model) by incorporating values as important elements in the behaviour of group facilitators. But values, as Lemert (1979) notes above, are abstractions and difficult to measure. One can ask people to list their values but this turns out to be a difficult task for them to perform. The approach used here was to extract facilitators' value orientations to facilitation by carrying out a content analysis of 'personal constructs' elicited by a role-repertory grid (Kelly, 1955) which each respondent completed - a procedure which was developed by one of the authors (Anderson, 1984). The term 'role-repertory grid' simply refers to the set (or repertoire) of social roles

which people carry around in their heads and the term 'grid' refers to the method which Kelly (1955) used to draw out information about these sets of roles. The role-repertory grid used in this study is included in Appendix A and the theory behind it is summarised below and covered in more detail in Appendix D.

Personal constructs as a source of values

Kelly (1955) proposed that people act in social situations in the fashion of a 'scientist' testing hypotheses about the social world. From experimentation people acquire knowledge about how the social world is constituted in terms of cultural values, expectations and permissible and sanctionable lines of action. According to Kelly (1955), we construe the world in the form of personal constructs (opinions) which are usually in bi-polar form, e.g. two-dimensional contrasts like 'hot--cold'. Personal constructs reveal how people categorise events, things or other people. These categories represent the concepts by which a person makes judgements between alternatives. By knowing which of the two poles of the construct is valued by the respondent, a researcher can extract the main value orientations held by the respondent for the specific situation (events, things or other people) covered by the role-repertory grid. In this study the role-repertory grid focused on the role of the facilitator of curriculum research workshops.

Since values are preferences and social rules are guides for action, the two concepts can be linked in the analysis of interpersonal processes (Anderson, 1984).

Links between values, personal constructs and social rules

The links between values, personal constructs, social rules and social acts, are shown in Figure 1. The term 'social act' refers to behavioural episodes made up of particular actions such as the actions which make up the act of greeting a friend, actions which can be analysed in terms of their underlying values and social rules.

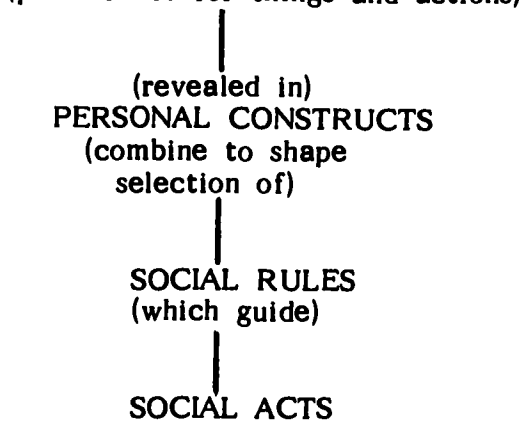

Figure 1: Conceptual schema for the analysis of facilitators' values, personal constructs and social rules

There are two ways in which the concepts of values, rules and action provide a means for studying the processes of facilitation or leadership of curriculum research workshops. The first is explained by entering the model at the highest level of abstraction, represented by 'values', and the second, by entering the model at the level of 'action'. We will take the highest level of abstraction first and trace the model downward. The model (Figure 1) proposes that values embedded in an individual's personal constructs (ways of conceiving the world), combine as a source of generating social rules by which acts and their meanings are brought into being by actions.

The second way in which the model describes social behaviour is explained by viewing the model from the bottom up. Cultural knowledge is acquired, in part, by the process of inferring rules from observation of acts. Social rules taught by or copied from others or generalised, i.e. created by the individual, and found to be effective within specific situations, contribute to the development of the person's ways of construing the world, including the acquisition of cultural values. The model provides a person-centred means for describing aspects of the process by which a person (e.g. group leader) seeks to execute plans (achieve a curriculum product) during social interaction with a curriculum research workshop group.

The purpose of linking rules and personal constructs was to examine the value orientations underlying facilitators' accounts of the social rules they use

when working with curriculum research workshop groups.

Support for the conceptual schema linking values and rules was provided by Marsh (1982). His view is that interpretive rules (rules for interpreting the meaning of the actions of others) constitute a reference framework for how groups of people decide the meaning which certain actions will have. In his view the existence of interpretive rules opens up the possibility of discovering a type of rule which directs and shapes action and most cogently embodies the 'moral concerns and values of a social group' (i.e. values) (Marsh, 1982:233).

The major interest in this study was to examine how a selected group of experienced curriculum research facilitators and curriculum developers approach the problem of leading curriculum research workshops. The concepts of social rules and personal constructs were used in this study to design a procedure which provided the respondents with a way of thinking about and describing the social processes they went through in terms of what they valued when making choices about design and implementation (their value orientations) and the rules or guides for action which they followed.

The notion that values generate rules (Figure 1) also provided a framework for analysing the data. By looking at respondents' personal constructs as a group (i.e. across the pool of respondents') it was possible to extract respondents general value orientations. When these were compared with the set of social rules which were generated, it was possible to develop a description of how experienced leaders/facilitators designed and ran group process curriculum research methods (see Table 4.3).

3. METHOD

The study was carried out in three components: (1) A Delphi process exploring the facilitator role using a special form of questionnaire which elicited respondents' value orientations and social rules, with feedback of common themes to participants (in the workshop), (2) A two-day workshop involving the experienced curriculum research practitioners in an exploration of the dimensions of the facilitator role in general and, (3) a feedback process with participants asked to comment on the data analysis of the first two stages. The Delphi technique (Linstone and Turoff, 1975) consists of a questionnaire sent to a panel of respondents. The results are summarised and returned to the panel for further consideration. In the present study, due to

time constraints, the data summary was made available in the two-day workshop which examined the facilitator role.

The study was based on a notion (or theory) that the facilitator role could be teased apart by studying the value orientations and social rules which experienced facilitators adopt when conducting curriculum research workshops.

Sample and response

Thirteen experienced curriculum research and development personnel were invited to participate in the study. They had direct experience of one or more of the following curriculum research methods: Search Conference, DACUM, SKA (a skills/knowledge/attitudes version of DACUM), the Delphi method, the Nominal Group Technique, the Critical Incident Technique and methods of focused group discussion. One participant was unable to attend the workshop and two others attended for the first day only.

The Delphi stage

In the Delphi stage (see Appendix A), participants were asked to write their social rules for being a facilitator of group work and to complete a role-repertory grid (Kelly, 1955) which used role models specific to the process of facilitation of curriculum research workshops. The role models were; self, a good facilitator, a bad facilitator, ideal self, a good task-oriented facilitator (who values tasks over jobs), a good people oriented facilitator (who values people over tasks), an ideal facilitator (TAFE applications) and an educated person.

These role models were chosen to reflect the task oriented versus socio-emotive (people oriented) leadership styles identified by Fielder (1968); to allow respondents to idealise the facilitator role as they would like to perform it (ideal self); and to describe elements of what they saw as 'bad' leadership.

Respondents completed the role-repertory grid, a Kelly type rep-grid, by first entering the names of people who they regarded met the description of the role models provided, then, systematically comparing these role models in groups of three, so that all role models were compared with each other, answering the question: 'In what way are any two alike but different from the third?'. This procedure gave respondents perceptions of what they saw as good,

bad and ideal aspects of group leadership. An example is provided in Appendix E. The resulting personal constructs gave respondents ways of construing the facilitator role across its task-oriented and socio-emotive dimensions. Respondents were also asked to indicate with a plus sign (+) the construct pole they valued as good facilitation and to indicate with a minus sign (-) the construct pole which they devalued. This was to ensure accuracy in the interpretation of the data during content analysis.

Social rules were described as guides for action which enable the facilitator to get curriculum research workshops functioning, to monitor the workshop processes and to adjust the ground plan according to the nature of the problem, the stages through which the group passes, the types of people present and their interaction styles (see Appendix A).

The method of extracting value orientations to curriculum research workshop facilitation was effected by content analysis of respondents' personal constructs. The data analysis from the Delphi stage was carried out as follows. Respondents' personal constructs and rules were typed, coded with a unique identifying number, cut into strips, one bi-polar construct or rule to each strip. To guard against the problem of subjectivity, the content analysis of this data was carried out by one of the authors and two other social scientists, each working independently. The purpose of the analysis was to sort the constructs and rules into mutually exclusive categories in order to extract the value orientations and social rules of group facilitation/leadership which the respondents appeared to hold in common. To analyse the personal constructs data, two steps were needed; the first, extracted common themes from the positive pole of the constructs and the second analysed the remaining or negative pole. The first analysis provided value orientations to 'good' facilitation. The second analysis, completed by one of the authors, provided themes describing what respondents saw as the counter-productive elements to effective facilitation.

The workshop

The design of the workshop which explored the role of the facilitator in TAFE curriculum research workshops was worked out in a five person planning session before the workshop. All members of the planning group attended the workshop. Although a set of aims and objectives had been prepared in advance

by the authors (see Appendix B), the planning group felt that these should not be formally introduced at the outset but rather be introduced during the stage in which participants stated their expectations of what could be achieved. Accordingly, the design was left relatively open and the task was presented as an exploration of the role of the facilitator with reference to the values and rules which facilitators adopt, including rules which facilitators use for making and breaking rules and the effect that the various stages in curriculum research workshops have on the types of rules adopted during different workshop stages.

A facilitator for the workshop was selected who was experienced in the Search Conference method. The basic stages through which the workshop passed were: (1) Clarification of participants' reasons for accepting the invitation to attend the workshop and their expectations (in plenary session), and (2) A search for common interests and shared perspective (in small groups). At the end of this stage, three members experienced in the use of the DACUM, the Search Conference and open discussion methods applied these methods, in turn, to an examination of the facilitator role in planning and conducting curriculum research workshops. (See Anderson and Jones, 1986) for a description of these methods.) The results were discussed and issues extracted and discussed. The workshop design included bringing participants together over dinner at the end of the first day to permit an informal discussion which generated a number of important insights into the processes and their pitfalls. At the end of the workshop participants' expectations stated at the outset were reviewed and evaluative comments were noted.

4. RESULTS

The results are presented in four sections. Section 4.1 gives the results of the modified Delphi phase which examined facilitators' value orientations and the social rules they follow when conducting curriculum research workshops. The data from which facilitators' value orientations were extracted were the 'personal constructs' elicited by use of the role-repertory grid (see Appendix A). With personal constructs data in particular, it can be regarded as significant if there are three or more respondents who give similar constructs. The categories or themes yielded by the content analysis of the data are given in Tables 4.1 (value orientations) and 4.2 (social rules). The main stages and steps in curriculum research workshops and the value orientations and social rules which appear appropriate to each stage and each step are summarised in Table 4.3 which is based on an analysis of all data from the Delphi stage and the workshop.

The processes described in Table 4.3 and Section 4.3 are intended to be a description of the planning and conduct of curriculum research workshops in terms of general principles and are not intended to be specific either to Search Conferencing, or DACUM or the Nominal Group Technique. The data on which this summary is based is given in detail in Appendix C which also includes a description of those aspects of facilitation which respondents in this study saw as destructive of successful facilitation. Section 4.2 gives the results of the workshop examining the processes of facilitation of curriculum research workshops.

4.1 Facilitators' value orientations and social rules used when conducting curriculum research workshops

Table 4.1 shows the value themes which were extracted by the three social scientists who performed the content analysis from respondents 'personal constructs' data and shows the number of respondents who produced constructs within each theme or category. Table 4.2 gives the social rules themes.

TABLE 4.1

MAIN VALUE ORIENTATIONS TO CURRICULUM RESEARCH WORKSHOP FACILITATION

Personal construct group	Total respondents: n = 12
Show sensitivity and concern for people	9
Show sensitivity to group needs	9
Work toward group responsibility and direction setting	9
Be casual, relaxed, flexible and open	7
Brief and orientate participants to the planned process	6
Plan the workshop	5
Be clear and concise	5
Use skill in getting information from the group	5
Value balance between people and task needs	5
Be well educated and up to date	5
Be friendly and supportive	5
Satisfy individual needs	5
Adjust the process and rules to the group	5
Create supportive atmosphere	5
Be quiet, confident and not defensive	5
Sustain interest and involvement	5
Pick up group issues and suggestions	5
Facilitate participation	5
Use skills were appropriate	5
Create atmosphere of enthusiasm	5
Be able to understand, analyse, summarise and manipulate material	4
Value achievement	4
Choose participants	4
Use skill in group and teaching processes	4
Set achievable goals and plan for success	3
Attend to group, task and organisational needs	3
Follow up output	3
Have high-level communication skills	2
Use appropriate words	2
Listen actively	2
Possess verbal and non-verbal skills	2
Destroy emotional roadblocks to communication	2
Be personal	2
Be honest and sincere	2
Be tolerant	2
Be respectful	2
Be appreciative	2

Table 4.1 cont.

Personal construct group	Total respondents: n = 12
Show faith in the group	2
Check process and expectations	2
Control task and time use	2
Work toward group cohesion	2
Work toward shared understanding	2
Place less value on task orientation	2
Be skilled in enabling others to be creatively involved	2
Plan program structure	2
Prepare participants	2

TABLE 4.2

MAIN SOCIAL RULES USED IN CURRICULUM RESEARCH WORKSHOP FACILITATION

Social rule group	Total respondents: n = 11
Explain aims/purposes/roles/tasks	9
Plan events and procedures	8
Brief leaders and coordinators	6
Make decisions by consensus (and use reflection)	6
Use control when appropriate	6
Plan initial steps	5
Treat all as equals	5
Choose participants	4
Allow for necessary facilities and resources	4
Choose and set up a venue for use	4
Be sincere, personal	4
Be respectful and appreciative	4
Brief, orientate participants	3
Plan time	3
Use work time and refreshment breaks	3
Use a relaxed approach	3
Ensure that all participate	3
Seek clarification	3
Make decisions by consensus	3
Control time	3
Go for the total concept (the larger picture)	2
Share responsibility	2
Plan breaks	2
Be supportive, not directive	2
Set up positive climate	2
Define the issues	2
Work on an equal footing	2
Achieve closure	2
Treatment of participants ideas (rules for...)	2

As can be seen in Table 4.1 the respondents placed a strong value on showing sensitivity to individual and group needs; working toward group responsibility and direction setting; valuing a balance between people and task needs; being casual, relaxed, flexible and open; planning the workshop and briefing/orienting participants to the planned process. They valued satisfying individual needs, adjusting the process and the rules to the group, and being skilled in direction and intervention. They valued being clear and concise and skilled in getting information from the group. They placed a value on being well educated and up to date; being friendly; creating a supportive atmosphere; sustaining interest and involvement and picking up group issues and suggestions. They valued being quiet, confident and not defensive; facilitating participation; creating an atmosphere of enthusiasm; and achieving the task. They placed a value on the ability to understand, analyse, summarise and manipulate material and follow up output and they saw that the basis of the facilitator's authority lay in the possession of skill in group and teaching processes.

The major rules (Table 4.2), classified thus by the number of respondents who adopt them, were: to explain the aims/purposes/roles/task which requires planning events and procedures beforehand. Other important rules were to brief leaders and coordinators, to make decisions by consensus, and to use control where appropriate. Respondents adopted social rules of treating all as equals, being sincere and personal, respectful, appreciative and relaxed, using consensus and reflection (getting the group to reflect on the implications of a decision), and seeking clarification, controlling time and scheduling breaks where appropriate.

4.2 General stages in curriculum research workshops and value orientations and social rules appropriate to each stage

Table 4.3 presents a summary of the main stages and steps in curriculum research workshop preparation and implementation and the values and rules appropriate to each stage. The stages have been reconstructed from an analysis of all the data obtained during the study: respondents' values (inferred from personal constructs data) and social rules, the data from the workshop examining the facilitator role, observation of a Search Conference, and an application of the Nominal Group Technique (NGT) and study of videotapes of a DACUM and a Search Conference. The data on which the summary of

respondents' value orientations and social rules is based are given in detail in Appendix C.

TABLE 4.3

STAGES AND STEPS IN CURRICULUM RESEARCH WORKSHOP PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION AND FACILITATORS' VALUE ORIENTATIONS AND SOCIAL RULES (SUMMARY)

STAGES and steps	Value orientations/action guides
STAGE 1: PLANNING	
a) Research the issues	Know the background. Extract the the issues. Know the politics (the 'hidden agendas') affecting the project brief or likely to generate tension within the workshop. Understand the issues and problems which will affect implementation of the outcomes.
b) Get aims clear	Know what the sponsor wants. Know what you are going to do in the workshop. Be able to communicate this clearly.
c) Select or design workshop	(See Table 1.1 for questions which guide selection of various methods.) Know the method thoroughly. Be able to explain the method clearly and succinctly, including its 'ground rules'. Be prepared to be flexible in implementation. Know where you can bend the rules. Have contingency options.
d) Choose participants carefully	Get the 'right' people for the job, i.e. those in a position to know the area being studied. Choose participants with a good cross-section of knowledge/skills/awareness.

Table 4.3 cont.

Stages and steps	Value orientations/action guides
e) Check out, set up venue	Aim for comfort, ease of interaction. Allow for socialising.
THE WORKSHOP.	
STAGE 2: ORIENTING PARTICIPANTS TO THE TASK AND HOW IT WILL BE ACHIEVED (THE METHOD OR PROCESS)	
a) Welcome participants	Be friendly. Put people at ease.
	Begin building 'team spirit' and group cohesion.
b) Explain aims/task/ process/outcomes	Brief and orient participants to the planned process. Be clear and brief in explanations.
	Help people to 'see' where they are going.
c) Check out participants' expectations	Listen carefully (throughout the workshop). Show that you are listening. Be open. State your expectations. Indicate what is able to be changed and what is not. Respond sensitively and perceptively to group and individual needs. Defuse tensions early. Set up a supportive atmosphere. Value all contributions equally. Do not be authoritarian. Avoid 'power-tripping'. Attend to any problems which participants have in regard to the process being used. Be prepared to shift tack (be flexibly responsive to group and individual needs). Use consensus to make decisions.
d) Participants acquire skills and knowledge about the process	Participants need to understand the process in which they are participating. Teach the required skills to the participants, if necessary.

Table 4.3 cont.

Stages and steps	Value orientations/action guides
STAGE 3: BUILD MOMENTUM	
	Attend to any problems which participants have in relation to the process being used. Let the group set the pace. Adjust the rules to the group. Make decisions by consensus. Do not value the task over people's needs. Maintain group cohesion. Lead by enthusiasm. Create a feeling of energy. Encourage participation. Be skilled in getting information from the group. Don't be intrusive but draw out silent members. Handle confrontations when they arise, sensitively and tactfully. Avoid emotional roadblocks to communication.
STAGE 4: THE WORKSHOP IN 'FULL-SWING'	
a) Plenary (whole group) sessions.	Be prepared to step aside if the group is working well, i.e. has 'matured' to the task. Be prepared to change direction if the group becomes bogged-down. Assert control where appropriate. Attend to 'people needs'. Watch participants' comfort needs. Monitor time use. Schedule breaks when appropriate. Maintain group spirit and cohesion. In the task work, the facilitator may be more demanding (not satisfied with partial solutions). Monitor time usage.
b) Small group sessions	After the group leaders are selected (preferably by the group), ensure that they and the group understand the task.

Table 4.3 cont.

Stages and steps	Value orientations/action guides
STAGE 5: CONCLUDING THE WORKSHOP	
a) Summarise	Summarise the workshop findings.
b) Achieve closure	Leave people with a sense of accomplishment.
c) Get commitment	Get commitment to outcomes (especially important with the Search Conference method).
STAGE 6: FOLLOW-UP	Document and distribute reports of the workshop to participants.

4.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE GENERAL STAGES IN CURRICULUM RESEARCH WORKSHOPS

We will now trace the progression of the model (Table 4.3) through its various stages, amplifying a number of key points. The skills discussed below are important in striving for the ideal of a democratic leadership style.

Stage 1: Planning.

Research the issues. It is vital in the planning stage to research the issues. It is important to know the background to the relevant issues, and to have a general idea of the different backgrounds, interests, motivations (and factions) among the participants and therefore an idea of what information may come from the group and what tensions might arise. Clarify the aims of those commissioning the project and the project objectives. Talk to experts before the seminar. Try to find out what the central issues are at the occupational structural level, e.g. legal requirements, trade union concerns such as demarcation issues, and the issues at the student level, e.g. is mobility within the occupation important? This requires the ability to liaise effectively with a variety of groups. Check the previous history of the project. Without this knowledge the appropriate workshop process cannot be selected.

By knowing the issues, a good facilitator can lead a group into exploring these issues or can pick up latent issues. Knowledge of key issues places the facilitator in a better position to bring to the surface 'hidden agendas' which may, if opened up, clear away obstacles to the implementation of the workshop outcomes. The concept of 'hidden agendas' refers to those plans and motives that remain hidden but which can exert a powerful effect either on the success of the workshop or on the implementation of recommendations. The facilitator needs to be able to adjust the program as need arises, hence the rule 'be flexible' in approach to workshop implementation. Doing your homework is vital to success in eliciting relevant information from the group.

Get the aims clear. Knowing the issues enables the facilitator to get the workshop aims clear and to communicate these to the group. Groups can wander off the track and need reminders about the aims. Participants also need to agree on the aims. Not only do facilitators need to be good persuaders of others, they need to be flexible in adapting the process to the aims of the program and the needs of the group, first, by choosing participants wisely and second, by allowing the group's wishes to be incorporated in the workshop program.

Select or design the workshop. Some key questions which guide selection of workshop types have been listed in Table 1.1. The essential decisions appear to rest, primarily, on whether a sufficient understanding of the nature of the industry or activity for which a curriculum is to be developed has been gained through preliminary investigation and/or exploratory research. Assuming that this has been done and the necessary knowledge is possessed, then the selection of group process methods might take account of the following:

1. The question of whether the occupation is relatively stable or is undergoing change. If it is undergoing change, consider Search Conference, Delphi or NGT group process methods. If it is relatively stable, consider DACUM. If the situation is complicated, consider a blend of methods (see Anderson and Jones, 1986).

2. Questions of whether the implementation difficulties are paramount. If so, consider a Search Conference or NGT.

3. The question of documentation needed for accreditation. Since group

process methods rely on a relatively small sample, it may be necessary, especially if large sums of money are involved for curriculum development and implementation, to use a multi-method approach and to follow this with a questionnaire for validation.

A central concern in planning a workshop program is to fit the program to the aims of the curriculum research project. Have a clear structure or structures planned, but feel free to modify them in the light of the group's needs or to vary the activities to allow change of pace. Include 'report-back' segments whereby members of the group provide feedback to others, (so that the pool of information generated is available to the whole group), and give opportunity for discussion and interaction. Include activities which cater for group maintenance (i.e. allow the group to work as an enthusiastic and united group and allow participants to contribute to the process by which particular tasks can be successfully completed). Note that, in general, flexibility in design and implementation of the workshop is a central rule in curriculum research workshops.

For Search Conferences, design the agenda carefully. Although the agenda/process for each Search Conference has the same format, each should be tailor-made to a particular group. Time constraints may apply and require the compression of two or more steps. Give an indication of timing on each stage since many participants are time oriented. Plan Search Conferences so that there is time at the beginning to pay careful attention to the expectations of the participants. For a DACUM workshop, have the workshop follow a good rhythm, usually four main tasks per day, not lots of bits and pieces.

Choose participants carefully. Draw together a group of persons who are respected for their individual knowledge and ability, including being leaders in their field and good workers. Find out what each participant can offer in terms of specialist knowledge and interests. Make sure participants are telephoned beforehand and that the invitation is confirmed by letter.

Check out, set up venue. Make sure the venue is comfortable, includes appropriate workshop space, a separate area for socialising, and arrange for the necessary facilities such as refreshments and clerical/typing support services and resources. Visit the venue before you finalise your choice. Arrange the room to maximise group sharing and group unity, i.e. put chairs in a

semi-circle, rather than in rows facing the front.

Stage 2: Orienting participants in the workshop

Welcome participants. Start in a low-key manner, introducing self and others briefly, explain your role, thank people for coming. Explain the importance of the workshop.

Explain aims/purpose/roles/tasks. Explain the purpose and goals of the workshop, preferably in writing, and repeat this at the start of the workshop. Be clear about what you are trying to do. Set realistic goals for self and the group. Where appropriate, provide background information to the participants before the workshop. Explain any alternative action which might be used to achieve the workshop goals if you think this is necessary. In particular, state what is open to change and what is not, but be prepared to negotiate with the group. Develop contracts with participants in the workshop in relation to their responsibilities and clearly outline the outcomes expected from the workshop.

Check out participants' expectations. At the beginning attend closely to the group's needs, especially the need to get to know each other and to resolve uncertainty about the process in which they will be engaged. Clarify participants' expectations (and state yours). Listen carefully to the exact words or nuances people use.

Participants acquire skills and knowledge about the process. It can be useful to provide an introductory training session at the start of the workshop which simulates key aspects of the task which participants will be asked to perform in order to ensure that all participants have the necessary skills and understanding and to generate a 'group' feeling. The facilitator may need to successfully teach the skills which are required by the group.

During the workshop, when specific problems emerge which need to be solved, the facilitator must make the problem-solving task very clear and preferably display the task in writing. Here the facilitator's role is to help people to 'see' where they are going.

Stage 3: Building momentum

Provide motivation and support. The aim of the facilitator is to sustain successfully the interest and involvement of the group. This can be achieved in part by establishing a positive climate, using sensitivity and tact, and leading by generating enthusiasm. Encourage a sense of pride in, and ownership of, the product of the group interaction.

Create a supportive atmosphere in which individual and group inputs are valued. The facilitator who is gentle with people and caring, can put a group at ease. Show sensitivity to individual and group needs, and avoid alienating people.

It is important not to force opinions on others and to keep task and people needs balanced. That is, not to let the task predominate over people or the task to be ignored. Provide regular encouragement and positive feedback to the group. Demonstrate confidence but do not be dominant. Transmit positive, open expectations but try not to colour the outcome with one's own views, i.e. guard against transmitting one's expectations as to what the outcome will be. Instead transmit enthusiasm that there will be a successful outcome. When the facilitator is not a task expert, he/she should display confidence about the process, but be tentative about the task content (listening carefully to the views of the expert participants).

Work toward group cohesion. Promote cohesion and keep the group united but active. A way of working toward group responsibility and achievement of creative solutions is to encourage self-direction and responsibility by the group. Draw out silent members but do not put anyone on the spot. Encourage the group to identify solutions which suit them. Accept procedures determined by the group, and in particular, adopt procedures which meet the emerging needs of the group. Momentum can be stifled if emergent group needs are not responded to sensitively and perceptively. Be prepared to change direction if the group becomes bogged down and to liaise with the group to achieve the goals or tasks which are required. Allow the group to grow and to set its own pace. Watch to see if anyone is expressing dissent non-verbally about what is being said. Be prepared to step aside if the group dynamics are flowing and relevant. Keep the momentum going. Do not be intrusive or tie the discussion down or let anyone else tie it down. When using

small group sessions within the workshop, getting the group to report to each other at various times is helpful in promoting group cohesion, allaying anxiety, and pooling knowledge. Encourage self-direction and responsibility.

Ensure participation. A key to good facilitation is to ensure that all participants contribute to the workshop. Elicit responses from silent members. Make comments that are supportive and encouraging. Try to acknowledge all input as contributing to the total effort. Value all opinions equally - forget status and position. Watch carefully to see that people are not being cut off by other group members or are not being excluded from contributing. Draw people out. Make it easy for them to contribute. Accept all comments initially (regardless of quality) so that a fair hearing of suggestions occurs. Allow equal time for comment. While trying to involve everyone, be careful not to put anyone on the spot. Try to ensure equal participation in an unobtrusive fashion. Work toward stimulating effective group interaction and participation.

Maintain focus. Keep the focus clear by relating all new tasks to previous ones answering 'what for' questions as they arise. Be task oriented and persistent in gaining task information. This requires having a good grasp of what the task is. But value people's feelings as well as the achievement of the task.

Use consensus. Decisions of vital importance to the group and participants should be reached by consensus. Whenever you change the task or the pace, allow opportunity for clarification and/or dissent.

Stage 4: The workshop in full-swing

A. Plenary (whole group) sessions. Step aside if the group is working well. Be prepared to shift direction if the group becomes restless or bogged down. Keep the task down to manageable proportions. Ask questions for clarification. If unsure, summarise what you understand about what has been said and seek confirmation as to its accuracy. If you spot an anomaly, hand it back to the group for clarification. Do the same if anyone asks a question which the group should answer. When writing down other people's ideas do not paraphrase, unless you have checked most carefully with the originator of the

idea on the accuracy of your version.

Get feedback. Provide opportunities for and encourage feedback from participants about the workshop products and the workshop process. Allow diversions from the program only by consensus. Avoid long reportbacks. Monitor time use.

Share the leadership role where appropriate. Give opportunity for other participants to take the leadership role where appropriate. But do not allow anyone who is less skilled than yourself in facilitating the task to take over from you unless it is planned.

Allow time for refreshment breaks and time for socialising. Have frequent breaks, especially at critical periods in the workshop (when participants become tired or look like becoming bogged down or too tense). Have light lunches and allow time for socialising.

B. Small group sessions. Choose group leaders according to the needs of the seminar. Get group leaders to meet frequently during the session. Familiarise group leaders and seminar coordinators with: (1) The area under consideration, (2) The procedures for running the seminar, (3) The broad areas in which information might be obtained and, (4) The timetable. Spend time to ensure that the group understands the task.

Stage 5: Concluding the workshop

Summarise at key points. Summarise the process at key transition points. Set up process checks (i.e. check participants' perceptions of how they are feeling about the process). Get clear what the participants expect and want. Decide whether you have the group's commitment and if so proceed.

Achieve closure. Closure must be ensured. Closure is achieved, for example, by summarising important points so that people feel that they have something to take away. Get closure on a workshop by reviewing the aims or expectations and summarising the workshop achievement. Thank the participants and praise where praise is due.

Value achievement. Leave people with a sense of accomplishment. Make

sure some concrete action is decided.

Follow up output. Document and distribute all agreements, meetings, etc. Follow up the output of group with further research as needed.

4.4 SKILLS REQUIRED BY FACILITATORS

This section summarises the skills required by the facilitator and is based on respondents value orientations (inferred from analysis of their personal constructs) and social rules (see Appendix C).

Communication skills. The facilitator needs a high level of skill in communicating effectively. This requires, among other things, the ability to have an open mind and to listen carefully and actively. Show that you are trying to follow what people are saying and that you value what they are saying. Maintain eye contact with the person who is speaking. Be sensitive to the verbal and non-verbal cues from the group. Make the relevance of activities clear in relation to the overall task. Avoid jargon and be precise. Have an open mind.

Be tolerant, respectful and appreciative. Acknowledge the views expressed by participants even though they may not be personally acceptable. Be democratic. Value people for themselves. Avoid put-downs. Indicate that you respect participants' expertise. Be prepared to invest time in dealing with emotive issues so that they do not waste even more time later. Allow anyone to intervene at any time and acknowledge their concern especially when you do not immediately act on it. Indicate your willingness to be interrupted.

Be casual, relaxed, open and sincere. Be casual, relaxed, low-key and concerned to put group members at ease. Be open to others. Answer questions frankly. Say what you are doing and why you are doing it. Be seen as fair minded, i.e. to seek the views of participants without passing judgment on them. Keep formality to a minimum. Be honest and sincere in interactions with group members (do not work behind a facade).

Transmit empathy. Try to see things from the other's perspective: to stand in the other's shoes. Try to blend in with the group (including style of dress). Do not be seen as aloof.

Be friendly and supportive. Be friendly, supportive, encouraging and warmly

responsive to people. Be attentive.

Adopt a quiet, confident and non-defensive manner. Be quiet (i.e. not dominant or authoritarian), and project a confident manner and a sense of direction.

Be fair. Be seen as fair minded and appreciative.

Be flexible: Adjust the process and the rules to the group and be alert to individual, group and organisational needs. Adjust the workshop process to the aims of the meeting and to the needs and pace of the group. Pick up important issues raised by the group. Allow regular time out from the task work to examine the process (by which the task is being achieved) and correct any problems. Value the group's efforts in this regard. Since there may be conflict about the process itself, allow questioning of the process. Bend the rules or change the direction or style of operation according to the situation.

Be aware of the importance of the group's feelings and pick up group issues and suggestions. Feelings are an important source of information. Be sensitive to the mood or feeling within the group. Have the ability to handle feelings and confrontation well (e.g. by defusing potentially tense confrontations between participants which create emotional roadblocks to communication). Conflict can be an important indicator of an underlying problem or task related issue, which, if addressed tactfully, can allow the group to become productive.

Work toward shared understanding. Work toward a clear, shared understanding with the group.

Show faith in the group. Trust people to take responsibility for their own learning. Communicate, verbally and non-verbally, very positive messages about the outcome. Try to inspire interest and create a feeling of energy.

Use control when appropriate. Deal with dissent or resistance immediately it surfaces - listen especially carefully as there may be a misunderstanding which you can clear up or you may be doing something which needs to be put right immediately. Notice when tensions are starting to rise and defuse them, e.g. using humour to lighten the situation or by introducing a break in proceedings. Just acknowledging the tensions may sometimes be sufficient.

4.5 COUNTER PRODUCTIVE ASPECTS OF FACILITATION

Several destructive aspects of facilitation are summarised below.

Power-tripping. Avoid being overbearing, dominating, too directive or autocratic. Don't sit in judgement of the views expressed or indicate that alternative ways of going about the task are a poor choice and override individual participant's needs. Don't try to impress the group with knowledge. Don't push the group towards your solutions or push the group too hard.

Not providing clear direction. Do not give confusing instructions, set unrealistic goals, allow aimless discussion or let the process continue unmonitored.

Failure to motivate groups. Don't allow participants to become restless or dissatisfied or allow reporting to go on and on. Don't make comments that are negative or critical or that engender group hostility or resistance to learning and break the flow of the group.

Lack of sensitivity, insight, care and consideration of people and their feelings. Don't over-emphasise the task over people's needs. Don't leave people wondering what is wrong with themselves. Don't cut people down.

We have completed a summary of the general stages and steps in curriculum research workshops and of the value orientations and social rules which seem appropriate to each stage and each step. The data on which this was based is given in detail in Appendix C. The interested reader may find the wealth of finer detail in that appendix useful. We will now present the results of the two-day workshop which examined the facilitator role.

4.6 WORKSHOP RESULTS

This section summarises the results of the workshop which examined the processes of curriculum research workshop facilitation/leadership. The data on which the summary is based is given in detail in Appendix B.

Participant's expectations at the commencement of the workshop. Expectations included sharing and exchanging knowledge; being creative; identifying alternative modes for using group methods for curriculum development; coming to a better understanding of the role of the facilitator in

TAFE curriculum research, including the underlying philosophy of facilitation (can agreement be reached?); preparation and skills needed, processes used and follow up of methods. Also mentioned were: the importance of examining the contextual factors which surround course development; the opening up of other methods; the improvement of curriculum development practices and the skills required for this, and an examination of the research/consultancy role in curriculum development.

Issues which the workshop participants wished to explore. Arising from the review of expectations, the participants selected the following issues and questions as worth pursuing in relation to the facilitation process. (1) What is being facilitated - a group of people or a project? (2) Why use groups? (3) What is the validity of occupational data obtained using a facilitated group process? (4) Who initiates the process and who selects the participants? (5) What does being a consultant mean? (6) How do you prepare for a group workshop and what rules should you use? (7) How to handle conflict among participants and within the facilitator? (8) How do you use and manage groups? (9) How to handle the writing of the workshop discussion? (10) How much structure is needed in the workshop? (11) How do you use feedback within the workshop? (12) At what stage in a workshop does a group need to look at the workshop process itself? (13) When should the facilitator lead and when should he/she follow?

Common themes in facilitation. The facilitator was seen by participants as one who should adopt a humanist (person-centred) perspective, needing to know about group processes and how to use them in order to seek a valid, quality product in the interest of the welfare of the clients who, it was said, should also be involved in the development process.

Facilitation requires that participants be given encouragement to clarify their contributions so as to share understanding and generate further knowledge. This requires the early identification of concerns, expectations and interests within the group and a preparedness to face differences between group members. The facilitator should have an understanding of how to motivate people in groups, how to encourage commitment to the process and its outcomes, how to negotiate with participants the program of work to be done in the workshop and how to modify the workshop program with the assistance of the participants. In matching the group process to the aims of

the activity, the role of the facilitator and the methods to be used may change. Therefore, the facilitator needs to know which group processes are compatible with which aims.

Shortened form of Search Conference on: What group process methods should we use for curriculum development in TAFE?

The shortened form of a Search Conference conducted by Brian Brand on this topic during the workshop lasted about three hours. Although the minimum time for a successful Search Conference is usually considered to be from ten hours to three days, the attempt yielded the following:

A. Futures for Australia. Elements of the social context over the next 5 to 10 years were seen as: increased leisure with fewer people engaged in paid work, higher rates of unemployment, an increase in the multicultural composition of our society, greater technological change and war.

B. Desirable characteristics of an educated person.

These were seen as: being open and searching, well read; having wide general knowledge; being disciplined; respecting other peoples property; able to set clear goals, influence ideas and write well; and to be a flexible, adaptable, lifelong learner.

C. Desirable features for curriculum development. These covered the importance of ownership of the outcome by those who will be required to implement the outcome and ownership of the method (the process) by which it will be achieved. The relevance of the outcome includes its relevance to students, employers and the community. Curriculum development should encompass changes as they arise, be cost efficient, adaptable to user needs, realistic in terms of resources needed for implementation, interesting, and tie into other aspects of curriculum development such as the production of classroom materials. The process used should give participants a feeling that their efforts have been worthwhile, effectively utilise 'political influence', consider the views of all stakeholders, provide a flexible curricula (one that can incorporate occupational change) which permits a flexible administrative structure, and yield a product that teaches people how to learn.

D. Desirable features for group processes. Participants should feel that

their input has been taken into account. The process should excite/motivate/unlock people. It should be intrinsically interesting and energy releasing and provide 'fast response' with cost efficiency. The process should be subservient to the end goal and provide a means for staying on the task. The product should be relevant, credible in terms of quality, easy to work with, and persuasive of the 'power-brokers' who will make decisions about the outcomes. The group should include opinion leaders, teachers, students, industry and the community.

Short form of DACUM workshop applied to the facilitator role

Three aspects of the work of the facilitator of curriculum research workshops were examined in a short DACUM-type session conducted by Tom Lyons during the workshop lasting about one hour. These were:

Planning. The process of planning a DACUM involves clarifying objectives of the project, designing the process to be used, conducting the literature and other information searches, determining the spheres of work covered, setting up the venue, obtaining the resources needed and recruiting the workshop participants.

Facilitation skills required. These included political acuity (i.e. astuteness), and negotiating, consultancy, analysis, and communication skills. 'Political acuity' was divided into the following aspects: (1) Look for the hidden agendas/biases among participants, including industry people, trade union people and self, (2) Look at boundary issues such as work demarcation, (3) Look at policy issues and, (4) Identify stakeholder groups.

Focused group discussion on the facilitator role

The group discussion conducted by Margaret Bridger during the workshop was based on a technique of saturating the group with a set of questions delivered verbally, followed by the invitation to the group to take up any question of interest. In this technique the questions are deliberately not given in writing in the belief that the group will select only those questions of direct interest to them.

The questions were distilled from the discussion on the first day of the workshop. They raise important questions about the facilitation role and are

reproduced below.

1. What rules are used and why?

2. What is the facilitator's role at different stages of the group process?

3. How do you deal with conflict within the group?

4. How do you deal with conflict within yourself?

5. How do you decide how much structure to use, if any?

6. How do you deal with power-plays in the group?

7. How do you decide when to lead and when to follow?

8. How do you decide when the group needs to look at its own process in order to reach the desired goal?

9. How do you develop trust within the group?

10. How do you develop cohesion within the group?

11. How much responsibility does the facilitator have to take for group product and/or process?

12. Are displays of emotion a legitimate source of information for the group and, if so, how does the facilitator ensure that they are expressed and used productively?

13. How do you deal with a dominating group member?

14. How do you deal with silent group members?

15. How much responsibility does the facilitator have to protect individual group members from group pressure and attacks from other members?

16. How does the facilitator determine whether or not to intervene in a group interaction and whether the desire to intervene is for personal gratification or group gains?

17. To what degree should the facilitator display or model effective communication and group behaviour?

18. To what degree should the facilitator be involved in the group process and to what degree should the facilitator remain outside the group in the interests of objectivity?

19. How do you deal with hidden agendas?

Among the points to emerge from these three sessions were:

1. The Search Conference method is not an unstructured process. It must be very carefully structured for each new problem.

2. The facilitator should do anything in the early stage of the workshop that will make participants contribute.

3. The facilitator should quickly narrow the task to help people contribute. However, this may only be appropriate when the target task is well known. Note that the Search Conference method deliberately begins with a broad search in order to encourage participants to widen their horizons; to encourage 'lateral thinking'. The wide-ranging approach of the Search Conference can be experienced by some as too general in its early stages. On the other hand, DACUM, since it addresses the 'here and now' of work in an occupation, may miss the fluid processes of change which are either taking place or likely to take place. This problem can be overcome if, at the end of the DACUM session, the group is asked to focus on such matters as emerging trends, new technology, etc. (Lyons, 1984).

4. There are two issues related to the structure of curriculum research workshops: (A) How to elicit contributions from the participants and (B) The degree of direction given to the group by the facilitator.

5. The degree of directiveness provided by the facilitator depends on the philosophy/model being used. Curriculum research group methods differ in the degree of control which is taken over by the group. The Search Conference method places more control in the hands of the group than does the DACUM method (see item 10, below).

6. In DACUM workshops the group's 'maturity', in the sense of their having understood the process in which they are engaged, is important to the question of how freely the facilitator allows the group to make its own directions.

7. The problem of 'managing' conflict was influenced by the destructiveness of the conflict. That is to say, in Search Conferences, the facilitator lets conflict run until it is judged destructive, then may assert control and direct the group toward a predetermined fall-back position. The use of small groups, as in Search Conferences, undermines the 'power brokers' it was said, and so reduces the likelihood of conflict arising. One means by which the facilitator can cope with attacks on the process is for the facilitator to assist complaints towards an agreed better alternative. In cases where employers and employees are present in a group, the facilitator may have to have a way of dealing with any conflicts that emerge, bearing in mind the obligation to the group members as well as to the facilitator's purpose in collecting data for the curriculum research exercise. Potential conflict can be diminished by careful planning based on adequate discussion with participants/stakeholders before the session. This also gives the facilitator a better idea of how to balance the diverse interests within the group. The conference itself can be seen as the culmination of all the preliminary work.

8. It is important for the facilitator to display (model) interpersonal behaviours which, if copied by the group, will increase the interchange of information within the group.

9. Early negotiation with participants about how the workshop will proceed is crucial but is done within the limits of the philosophy of the method and/or the facilitator. The facilitator must indicate at the outset what is negotiable and what is not. Since the Search Conference is a learning exercise the facilitator must permit a lot of negotiation if the process is to be seen as fostering the learning experience.

10. Both the DACUM and the Search Conference methods possess advantages for use in organisational development. But they possess certain differences. With the Search Conference method the participants and the facilitator are engaged in learning how to tackle the task at hand. In problem-solving terminology, the Search Conference seeks to identify what is to be valued as salient (desirable and central) from a particular view of what is required to meet future as well as present needs. DACUM, on the other hand, is more narrowly focused, at least in its traditional form. The fundamental difference between the two methods is that in the Search Conference, the facilitator is

exploring the basis or extent of consensus, but does not necessarily strive to attain it. In the DACUM method, the facilitator is more concerned about obtaining a description of the educational needs of an occupation by examining what work is currently performed in the occupation. In all methods (Search Conference, NGT, DACUM) it is important to get all the views recorded so that they all contribute to the data bank. However, the facilitator may pursue a direction or an issue which has not come from the group, just to see where it leads (even though the issue appears to have little or nothing to do with the task).

11. The composition of the group members is important because there are two objectives: (A) To have people who can give the information needed for curriculum development. (B) To involve others who may be important in the implementation of the curriculum.

12. It is important to see that the facilitator role entails facilitating and managing all the planning and preparatory work, as well as facilitation of the group work.

13. In making decisions as to which group method to use, it is important to have a clear understanding of the underlying philosophy of the method.

14. Leadership is not a matter of possessing charisma. Leadership is influenced by situational factors, that is, the appropriate leadership style depends on the particular situation and problem being addressed.

A summary of other aspects of facilitation is given in Appendix B., Section B-7.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 COMMON THEMES

Common themes underlying the value orientations and social rules which experienced facilitators adopt for running curriculum research workshops were:

A humanitarian (people-centred) focus. Although facilitators vary, they appear to be very person centered in their approach. Task achievement is important but the personal needs of workshop participants are primary. When personal needs are fulfilled, it appears, the task work flows with greater

smoothness. A degree of tension can exist between the humanitarian and the task oriented focus of the workshop.

A task-oriented focus. The good facilitator achieves the task through making the aims, expectations and outcomes of the workshop clear, attending sensitively to individual and group needs, defusing and/or resolving conflict, watching time use and using control where appropriate.

An egalitarian focus. The good facilitator avoids power-tripping which creates distance from the participants. The facilitator becomes, to an extent, part of the group, working with them to reach the goals which are negotiated within the group. The egalitarian focus is revealed in the rules of treating all participants as equals, valuing contributions equally, displaying empathy, and making decisions by consensus.

Leadership role. Facilitators appear to adopt a conception of the leader as one who sets clear directions, and is flexibly responsive to group and individual needs, i.e. prepared to negotiate flexibly with the group and to accept their suggestions and prepared to step aside when the workshop momentum is progressing well. The preparedness of the facilitator to be flexible and negotiate changes to the workshop program is important since tension can arise between the facilitator's workshop plan and the directions in which the participants wish to proceed.

The leader as an inspiring motivator. Facilitation requires an ability to generate, unlock or inspire energy and interest within the group. The means for achieving this are by careful design of the workshop and selection of participants, the adoption of the values and rules embodied in the factors mentioned above, together with transmission of enthusiasm about the worth of the project, transmission of positive expectations about the outcome, the display of faith in the group (e.g. through valuing of group contributions) and a preparedness to adapt the process to the needs and interests of the group (through being sensitive and perceptive of group and individual needs).

Good facilitation requires excellent searching and communication skills. Searching skills include the ability to tease out the issues beforehand, including the politics and the 'hidden agendas', as well as knowing about the realities which will affect implementation of curricula such as limitations on resources and other problems which bear upon curriculum development and

implementation. Good facilitation requires the ability to plan the workshop accordingly. Communication skills include the ability to listen carefully, particularly to the meaning the speaker is attempting to express.

The consensus from the workshop was that one should not attempt to facilitate a curriculum research workshop for the first time without the assistance of a suitable assistant.

5.2 THE DANGERS OF 'POWER-TRIPPING'

THE facilitator possesses a degree of power which, unless handled sensitively, can have damaging effects. This power can be expressed in an autocratic, overbearing manner, in attempts to impress the group, by adopting a judgmental manner (God-like pose), showing insensitivity to the needs of participants and to what they are saying, and by driving the group too hard. In attempting to avoid the negative expression of the power inherent in the role, facilitators adopt a humanist, caring approach, take care to construct the program and negotiate any changes with the group and create the conditions that allow the group's energies to be released and give the guidance which allows them to work effectively on the task.

5.3 CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Conflict and what to do about it when it arises is a crucial issue in curriculum development workshop facilitation. Conflict can be threatening to the facilitator; it questions his/her aims, expectations and method of conducting the workshop. In short, it questions the facilitator's authority and therefore the basis of the facilitator's power. On the other hand, conflict between participants can arise due to disagreement over how a task should be done, or whether it should be done at all. Or conflict can be due to a fundamental disagreement over a solution, e.g. what content to include in a course.

When the respondents in this study spoke about the process of conflict resolution during the workshop, it was apparent that a considerable pressure acts on the facilitator to achieve a product despite the fact that conflict may exist within the group about what that product should be. Foster (1984) has pointed out that a distinction should be made between facilitation of a group and its needs, and the use of a group of people to meet some requirement of the group/leader facilitator. When a group is convened to produce data for

the design of a curricula, a strong pressure will exist for the facilitator to achieve consensus, even though this may not be present in the group.

Some forms of conflict can be avoided such as conflict which arises from either misunderstanding of the process being followed, or through failure to permit or encourage the expression of contrary views. Facilitators valued showing sensitivity and concern for personal and group needs, working toward group responsibility and direction setting and were prepared to change tack (bend the rules) if needed. Moreover, the respondents in this study preferred to avoid a personal style likely to generate conflict. As noted above, they avoid power tripping or being authoritarian. Instead, they put effort into being supportive and open, valuing the contributions of others, ensuring participation by individuals and making decisions by consensus or by getting the group to reflect on the implications of a proposed line of action. These values and rules appear to play an important part in defusing tensions and in destroying emotional blocks to communication.

When conflict does arise, facilitators adopt a flexible approach. They seek to defuse conflict early, e.g. by acknowledging contrary views, not passing judgment or getting personal, sometimes lightening the situation with humour or taking a refreshment break (especially important if the tension is due to fatigue). Refreshment breaks can provide an opportunity for some forms of conflict to be attended to by the facilitator. The general impression from the workshop discussion was that conflict should be faced and resolved when it arises. The actual procedure adopted would depend on the curriculum research method used, the stage in the workshop process, and the nature of the conflict issue. However, a rule appears to operate in relation to the question of when to intervene in conflict or when to let it run. The rule is: intervention is made at the point when the facilitator fears that conflict will become destructive of the process and prevent an outcome being achieved. At such a point, a facilitator may try to intervene by exerting his/her authority over the process (as opposed to the content) and may attempt to place the conflict issue out of bounds. There appear to be two delicate questions here. If the conflict issue is important and is ignored (1) Will the workshop output fail to reach a standard satisfactory to all interested parties (student, community, industry and educationalists) and (2) Can it be implemented?

Conflict can reveal fundamental opposition within the group or between the

group and the facilitator which, unless faced and understood, can lead to a biased result. Inappropriate use of humour, or inappropriate scheduling of a refreshment break can mean that important critical perspectives go unheeded.

This study has highlighted the question of conflict and 'conflict resolution' as a major aspect in curriculum research workshops. The facilitator who blocks conflict or fragments it (e.g. by spreading perceived 'dissidents' across work groups, or by grouping them, then using majority vote procedures to ignore the alternative perspective being advanced), is in danger of providing a biased view of the issues which curriculum development should be addressing.

The study has shown a need for skills in resolving conflict when it arises. It is not the scope of this study to go into techniques for conflict resolution. However, two techniques, Force Field Analysis and the Nominal Group Technique, have promise in teasing out the issues underlying conflict (see Anderson and Jones, 1986).

5.4 REFLECTIONS ON THE WORKSHOP DESIGN FOR THIS STUDY

The application of the DACUM method to the examination of the facilitator role (main duties or work functions performed by the facilitator and the knowledge and skills needed to perform these) was judged successful by the workshop participants. DACUM has traditionally been viewed as a method for detailing the 'psycho-motor' domain of work in an occupation, as opposed to the cognitive domain. Yet, in practice, DACUM workshops touch on the cognitive domain when the question of knowledge and skills needed is addressed. The implication arising from the present study is that DACUM can work well in the conceptual domain. However, the reader should remember that, in the present study, respondents were engaged in a Delphi process which required respondents to think about the performance of the facilitator role before attending the workshop. The form of Delphi used appeared to have been an effective 'warm-up'. It could be worth trying a Delphi process which gets people thinking about issues and then following with a DACUM workshop on course development of a curriculum in a conceptual domain, e.g. management, communication skills, sales, problem solving, or administration.

The workshop procedure adopted in this study absorbed, it seemed, unnecessary time as participants, in the initial 'expectations' phase, expressed their personal interests in what would take place. Some workshop members

expressed concern during the 'expectations' phase with whether the group was departing from the line which the researchers wished to pursue. Experience of the process of searching and exploration suggests that the amorphous nature of the process can disturb those who expect a clear set of aims and a clear set of procedures (pathways or structures) for achieving these aims. But the process of exploring an issue or phenomenon is based on an aim of finding out what the issues are as well as obtaining insights into the nature of these issues. The exploration process harvests the chaff along with the wheat, and requires a degree of patience on the part of the searcher.

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONS TO PARTICIPANTS

Included here are the instructions given to participants before they attended the workshop.

National R&D study on occupational data collection and analysis methods for use in Australian TAFE, Study of the facilitator role in curriculum research and development group work

Introduction

The National R&D project on occupational research and analysis methods which we are carrying out has shown the need for a better understanding of the skills of being a facilitator when curriculum development methods which require group work are used.

The aim of this study of the facilitator role is to analyse the facilitator role in terms of its role-rule structure (more about social rules later) and the relationship between social rules and the stages through which groups pass when analysing an occupation and developing a curriculum either in detail or in terms of broad aims and essential content.

Research on group task processes indicates the importance of the enabling function of the social rules used by the facilitators and the group members. Enabling rules are the rules which help the group to work successfully on group tasks. Research has shown that the social rules change in important ways as the group progresses through the task.

We know that the various group methods used for curriculum development differ in their underlying central principles or philosophies and the purpose of study is to better understand how these central principles or philosophies guide the facilitator's actions, i.e. how they serve as a source for generating rules. We also want to know how experienced facilitators handle the key change points in particular methods, i.e. the changes in the stages by which the method progresses to a successful outcome, and how facilitators handle particular problem moments, again in terms of rules used and, in particular, in terms of the rules which facilitators use for making and breaking rules.

Our intention is to include the results of this study of the facilitator role in our final report on the study of occupational data collection and analysis methods. In providing such a chapter our aim would be to inform curriculum developers who may be less familiar with the subtleties of group facilitation about what is involved in the process of running a curriculum development workshop.

Facilitators' workshop: Research design

Participants

We are inviting the following participants to join with us as 'co-researchers' to explore the facilitator role in curriculum development group work in TAFE.

Tim MacDonald, WA TAFE
Tom Lyons, WA TAFE
Brian Brand, TAFE National Centre for R&D, SA
Lance Peters, Victorian TAFE
Graham Foster, Victorian TAFE
Bill Bowen, Queensland TAFE
Ron Anderson, NSW TAFE
Margot Pearson, NSW TAFE
Paul Gordon-Smith, NSW TAFE
Margaret Bridger, Public Service Board, NSW Staff Training Unit
David Boud, Tertiary Education Research Centre, UNSW
Neil Jones, NSW TAFE
Tony Anderson, NSW TAFE
Viv Soo, NSW TAFE

METHOD

The plan is to link the above mentioned participants through a Delphi process in which the results of a paper and pencil exercise will be summarised and returned to participants before we all meet in Sydney in a workshop session on the facilitator role for TAFE curriculum research and development group work.

Step 1: Delphi process

In the Delphi stage, we propose to use two types of data: 'social rules' (Shwayder, 1965, Harre and Secord, 1972) and 'personal constructs' (Kelly, 1955), and to return to each participant a summary of the data of all participants before the workshop. All data will be treated in confidence.

Instructions to participants

A. Social rules. The following instructions to participants are intended to elicit the social rules which each uses for running curriculum research and development group sessions, e.g. DACUM or DACUM derivatives, Search Conferences, Nominal Group Sessions, teacher workshops etc.

Please make a list of the social rules which you follow when conducting curriculum development workshops. Rules are guides for action and their use enables you to get the curriculum development workshop functioning and to keep it functioning, i.e. to monitor its processes and to adjust the ground plan according to the nature of the problem, the stages through which the group passes, the types of people present and their interaction styles. An essential property of social rules is that they can be made, renegotiated and broken. Rules are acquired from others and grow out of trial and error learning. They include knowledge about what to do and what not to do, that is, they specify the 'do's' and the 'don'ts' when running workshops. What we are looking for are the surface rules (or 'up front' rules) which you use, as well as the rules for making and breaking rules.

When you have listed your rules, mark with a (✓) those rules which you think are especially important as rules for making rules when you are working with curriculum development groups. The aim here is to identify the sub-set of rules which are especially important in guiding curriculum development group processes.

B. Personal Constructs. Personal constructs (Kelly, 1955) are ways of conceiving the world and are elicited by a role repertory grid (rep-grid). A rep-grid which focuses on the work of small group facilitation is attached. The first two lines of the rep-grid are reproduced below and we will refer to it as an example because, if you've never seen one before, the procedure to fill one out can look a bit complicated. To complete the grid, proceed as follows:

1. Think of different people who fit the descriptions along the top row (see below), i.e. think of someone you know who is a bad facilitator (column 2), a good facilitator (column 3) and so on. Write down their names or code names (avoiding, of course, names like Tim, Tony, Neil!). Use code names if you like. (No names will appear in the final summation of results - privacy is

guaranteed).

SHEET A: ROLE REPERTORY GRID

VALUES TASKS OVER PEOPLE

VALUES PEOPLE OVER TASKS

	SELF	A GOOD FACILITATOR (Fred)	A BAD FACILITATOR (Harry)	IDEAL SELF	A GOOD TASK-ORIENTED FACILITATOR	A BAD TASK-ORIENTED FACILITATOR	A GOOD PEOPLE-ORIENTED FACILITATOR	A BAD PEOPLE-ORIENTED FACILITATOR	AN IDEAL FACILITATOR (TAFE APPLICATIONS)	AN ADMIR EDUCATO
1		( )	( )	( )						
2	( )			( )	( )					
3						( )	( )	( )		

2. Look at the three sets of braces ( ). Note that on the first line they refer to a good facilitator (let's suppose you have named him 'Fred'), a bad facilitator (you've named him 'Harry') and ideal self(your 'ideal self').

3. Apply the rule:

IN WHAT WAY ARE ANY TWO OF THESE PEOPLE ALIKE AND DIFFERENT FROM THE THIRD.

On Sheet 'A' place a tick (✓) in the brackets of the two who are alike and put a cross (X) in the brackets of the one who is different. For example, 'Fred' and 'ideal self' might have something in common which is different from 'Harry'. On sheet 'B' in line one of the WAY ALIKE column, write the quality or characteristic which makes 'Fred' and 'ideal self' alike. Write the quality which makes 'Harry' different from 'Fred' and 'ideal self' in the WAY DIFFERENT column on sheet 'B'. For example, if I was doing the grid and it was on conceptions (constructs) related to singing, I might match 'Fred' and 'ideal self' as 'sings like a bird' (WAY ALIKE) and 'Harry' as 'sings like a frog' (WAY DIFFERENT). So, on Sheet 'B' in line one, I would write:

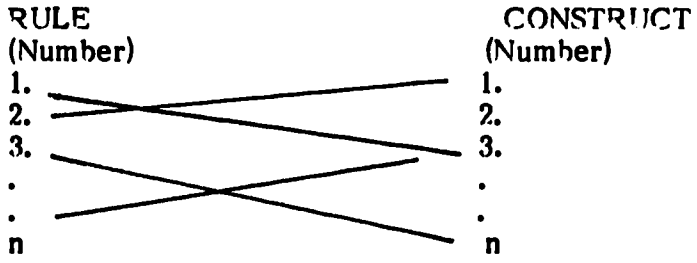
SHEET B: ROLE REPERTORY GRID

	WAY ALIKE (✓)	WAY DIFFERENT (X)
1		
2		
3		

4. Move on down the page on sheet 'A' using the brackets ( ) to tell you which people to look at, and, on sheet 'B' write down the results of applying the rule listed in 3 above.

5. When you have finished, look over the personal constructs you have written down and then summarise or describe the themes or main organising principles that lay behind your constructs. This asks you to look into the thinking you are doing about the thinking which is producing the data on sheet 'B'. Write down these themes on a separate sheet.

6. Finally, note any connections which exist between your rules and your personal constructs. Just write down the number of the rule or rules which goes with the construct or constructs. You could do this as follows:



SHEET A: ROLE REPERTORY GRID

VALUES TASKS OVER PEOPLE

VALUES PEOPLE OVER TASKS

	SELF	A GOOD FACILITATOR	A BAD FACILITATOR	IDEAL SELF	A GOOD TASK-ORIENTED FACILITATOR	A BAD TASK-ORIENTED FACILITATOR	A GOOD PEOPLE-ORIENTED FACILITATOR	A BAD PEOPLE-ORIENTED FACILITATOR	AN IDEAL FACILITATOR (TAFE APPLICATIONS)	AN ADMIRED EDUCATOR
		( )	( )	( )						
	( )			( )	( )					
						( )	( )	( )		
		( )		( )					( )	
	( )		( )			( )				
								( )	( )	( )
		( )			( )		( )			
	( )	( )	( )							
					( )	( )			( )	
				( )			( )			( )
			( )			( )			( )	
	( )						( )			( )
						( )		( )	( )	
			( )	( )	( )					
				( )		( )				( )
		( )					( )	( )		
	( )			( )						( )
		( )						( )	( )	
			( )			( )				( )
	( )							( )	( )	

SHEET B: ROLE REPERTORY GRID

	WAY ALIKE (√)	WAY DIFFERENT (X)
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		
13		
14		
15		
16		
17		
18		
19		
20		

APPENDIX B.

THE WORKSHOP EXAMINING THE FACILITATOR ROLE

This section gives the aims for the workshop which, in consultation with the workshop planning group, were set aside. They are included to show the authors' intent in designing the workshop.

B-1. Workshop aims

1. To explore and explicate (unpack) the facilitator role in terms of its role-rule structure, i.e. the rules (recipes for action) which enable curriculum development workshops to be successfully facilitated.

2. To explore and identify the value orientations (values as overarching principles of relevance which guide choices between alternatives) which are important in successful curriculum development workshop facilitation in general and in particular applications, e.g. Search Conferences, DACUM, Nominal Group Technique, etc.

3. To examine how the rules of facilitation change as the different stages of curriculum development workshops are worked through.

4. To re-examine the research and educational philosophies, beliefs and assumptions which underlie the various styles of curriculum development workshops and to relate insights gained to the value orientations and rules of facilitation.

5. To reach toward possible new curriculum development workshop designs or syntheses of existing designs, with special reference to 'ideal' workshop designs.

6. To examine the necessary, adequate and minimum elements which should be included in a curriculum development workshop (a 'stripped down' workshop version).

During pre-workshop planning, however, it was agreed that to be consistent with the open facilitation approach being adopted, the aims listed above should not be used as a starting point for the workshop. Instead, the proponents of these aims should contribute them as their expectations during an introductory

session which would gather all participants 'expectations' for the workshop.

The expectations of participants were stated as:

1. To share knowledge.
2. To get knowledge from others.
3. To be creative - not to limit the workshop to existing areas of knowledge.
4. To identify alternative modes for using group methods for curriculum development.
5. To collect data for better understanding of the role of the facilitator in TAFE for curriculum development purposes. Aspects of this role to include: (a) preparation of method; (b) skills of using method; (c) activities involved in the method; (d) processes of the method; and (e) follow-up to method.
6. To explore the motor behind what a facilitator does - i.e. the philosophy of facilitation.
7. To ask: What is curriculum development - can agreement be reached?
8. To look at contextual factors around course development.
9. To take back an emphasis on a range of curriculum development methods.
10. To find out how people operate, particularly concerning group processes.
11. To go through a process which opens up other methods and gives them credibility (in the political sense).
12. To highlight methodological processes (underlying the methods) which do the job best.
13. To look at the curriculum process, the group process and the political process.
14. To improve our curriculum development practices.
15. To ask: What skills do curriculum officers require?
16. To ask: What is our research/consultant role?
17. To reach a new understanding of the essential ingredients of a synthesised research method.

B-2. Issues to be explored during the workshop

This section lists the issues which were recorded in a 'round-robin' listing by workshop participants on the first day of the workshop.

1. What is a facilitator?
2. What is being facilitated - a group of people or a project?
3. What rules are used in the process?
4. Why do we use groups?
5. What is the validity of obtaining occupational data via a facilitated group process?
6. What is a facilitator's role at different stages of curriculum development?
7. Who initiates the process and who selects group members?

8. Defining objectives or processes.
9. Being a consultant.
10. Why have a facilitator?
11. How to handle role conflict within participants?
12. How to handle role conflict within the facilitator?
13. How to use/manage experts?
14. Choosing a facilitator.
15. Resolving conflict.
16. Recording progress, findings.
17. Workshop structure - how much and when needed.
18. The facilitator as consultant.
19. Use of feedback to group.
20. Restrictions of time and money.
21. Preparation for group meeting.
22. Facilitator as God, fallen angel, or devil's disciple?
23. Power and control.
24. When to lead, when to follow?
25. Knowing when group needs to look at process in order to reach product.

B-3. Commonalities of facilitation

This section summarises the common facilitator behaviours, attitudes and practices that participants in the workshop considered to be important to the facilitation of curriculum research and development workshops.

A limited amount of time was devoted to this task. It was intended to enable each participant, early in workshop to contribute to or clarify any concerns that had arisen early in the workshop. For this task, participants were divided into two groups.

Group One made the following observations under the heading of 'commonalities of facilitators'.

Commonalities of facilitators

1. A humanist philosophy provides a sound framework for developing good facilitation practice.
2. The goals of the facilitator should be to achieve valid data to develop high quality curricula.
3. Curriculum facilitators are 'finder outers'.
4. Facilitators need to know about and use group processes.
5. Facilitators need welfare of clients as a basis.
6. Facilitators should be seeking a valid, quality product.

7. Researching always should involve the clients.

8. Curriculum developers need to have available a range of processes for research.

9. Clients need to be involved in course design at least at an advisory committee level.

10. Involvement of clients in the development is part of good marketing practice - it encourages the outcomes.

11. Teachers and curriculum developers should always be involved in the process.

Group Two made the following observations under the headings of 'what do facilitators have in common' and 'characteristics of the facilitator role'.

What do facilitators have in common

1. A commitment to try group processes.

2. A shared importance of the need to synthesise ideas.

3. Encouragement for participants to clarify and explain.

4. A view that knowledge is shared/changed understanding which generates further knowledge.

5. Facilitating is managing the group process to enable the above to occur.

6. Facilitators should be prepared to confront differences among group members.

7. Facilitators need to be skilled in use of the following management strategies: (a) understanding motivation; (b) being purposeful; (c) encouraging a commitment to the process and its outcomes; (d) early identification of concerns, expectations and interests; (e) negotiating the program with group participants; (f) modifying the program with group participants.

Characteristics of the facilitator role.

1. Manages group process to achieve a product.

2. Role (may) change(s) according to aim of workshop.

3. Matches group process to aims of activity.

4. Knows which processes are compatible with which aims.

5. Makes decisions about which general processes to use.

6. Adopts these processes to specific tasks and specific needs of group.

B-4. Application of a Search Conference method to examination of the facilitator role

Following a plenary session arising out of the topic reported in the previous section, the workshop facilitator led a discussion of workshop participants to determine the most useful program to pursue for the remainder of the two-day workshop. The group reached the view that each of three group process practitioners, skilled in conducting different group process methods, should be asked to lead a session, using their method, whilst at the same time focusing on the subject matter of the role of the facilitator in curriculum research in TAFE. Accordingly, Brian Brand undertook to conduct an abbreviated Search Conference and Tom Lyons undertook to conduct an abbreviated DACUM workshop, both focusing on the role of a facilitator in curriculum research workshops. Margaret Bridger undertook to conduct an unstructured group session on 'what is good workshop facilitation'.

It should be noted that the three practitioners had an inadequate preparation time for their sessions, since these had not been built into the plan for the workshop. The workshop agenda are given below to illustrate the principles of the methods. Of course, under normal circumstances the duration of each stage would be much longer.

Program for an abbreviated Search Conference on the curriculum development process

3.00 p.m. Introduction
3.10 p.m. Expectations of participants
3.20 p.m. Futures for Australia? (5-10 years, plenary session)
3.40 p.m. Desirable futures for Australia? (5-10 years)
4.20 p.m. Afternoon tea
4.35 p.m. Future role of TAFE? (Plenary)
4.55 p.m. Desirable role of TAFE? (Small groups)
5.30 p.m. What are the characteristics of an educated person?
6.00 p.m. Curriculum development in TAFE (Past, present, future?) (Plenary)
6.40 p.m. Desirable features for curriculum developmenent - what are the desirable group process methods that should be used in curriculum development? (Small groups)

8.00 p.m. Dinner
9.00 a.m. Constraints (Plenary)
9.15 a.m. Personal issues
9.30 a.m. (1) Village fair (2) Saliency
10.00 a.m. Formation of action plans. Redefine if necessary.
Strategies. Constraints. Time frames. Individual's roles and commitments. Feedback/evaluation
Future meetings, etc.
11.30 a.m. Mirror (reflection)

Results

A. **Futures for Australia (5-10 years.)** The items generated by the group were: (1) Leisure. (2) Unemployment. (3) War. (4) Rest. (5) Multicultural society. (6) Technological change. (7) Few involved in paid work.

B. **Desirable characteristics of an educated person.** Items generated were: (1) Open and searching, (2) Well read, (3) Respect or other person's property, (4) Disciplined, (5) Wide general knowledge, (6) Ability to synthesise, (7) Self-sufficient, (8) High standard of performance, (9) Highly motivated, (10) Writes well, (11) Lifelong learner, (12) Sets clear goals, (13) Flexible/adaptable.

The group was divided into two smaller groups to explore (a) the 'desirable futures for' curriculum development and (b) desirable futures for group processes. The following items were generated by Group A:

Group A. Desirable features for curriculum development

1. Ownership of product by implementers.
2. Ownership of product/process.
3. Relevance of outcome to participants including students, employers and community.
4. Encompass changes as they arise.
6. Adaptable to needs of users.
7. Appropriate payoff to participants, i.e. participants feel that their efforts have been worthwhile.
8. Effectively utilise 'political' influence.
9. All important stakeholders considered.
10. Flexible curricula, i.e. able to incorporate occupational change.
11. Flexible administrative structure.
12. Administrative timing.
13. Product teaches people how to learn.

Group A. Desirable features for group processes

1. Participants feel that their input has been taken into account.
2. Excites/motivates/unlocks people.

3. Intrinsically interesting, energy releasing.
4. Technique should be subservient to end goal.
5. Method should provide means for staying on the task.
6. Credible product.
7. Easy to work with product.
8. Data able to persuade power brokers.
9. Group should incorporate opinion leaders.

The following items were generated by the second group.

Group B. Desirable features for curriculum development

1. Gaining teacher involvement and commitment in process.
2. Involving students.
3. Involving industry/community.
4. Fast response.
5. Relevance and quality.
6. Cheap.
7. Cross checking of information.
8. Ties into other aspects of curriculum development such as class materials production.
9. Must look into the future.
10. Adaptable output.
11. Must be realistic in terms of resources required for implementation.
12. Should be interesting.

Group B. Desirable futures for group processes

This group attempted a preliminary classification of research methods for various contexts using the methods and contexts listed below as a framework.

Process/Methods	Context
Search Conference	trade
DACUM workshop	technician
SKA workshop	gen. ed.
Unstructured group disc.	PEP
Large scale survey	Outreach
NGT	Link
Delphi	Recurrent
Convergence interviewing	Retraining
Guessing	
Perceived expert	

B.5 Application of a DACUM workshop method to the role of the facilitator

Typical format for a DACUM workshop

1. Define range of positions to be examined.
2. Identify 'levels' within the range of jobs.
3. Identify tasks performed within each of these levels.
4. Identify areas of competence needed to perform the tasks.

Note: This includes enabling knowledge, e.g. a salesman will need knowledge of basic 'law of contract'.

Steps involved in conducting a DACUM workshop

PREPARATION

1. Gain overview of the positions/job.
2. Clarify breaks in the various levels.
3. Gain awareness of competencies involved.

CONDUCT SESSION

1. Gather data. 2. Record. 3. Summarise/reach consensus.

ANALYSIS

1. Express identified competencies into roughly stated behavioural objectives.
2. Go to teachers - get a response from them regarding identified tasks/competencies.
3. Obtain estimate from teachers of time required to teach item (2) above.
4. Re-group behavioural objectives into subject/unit groupings.

Job of a group facilitator

A short time was spent exploring the job of a group facilitator as a demonstration of the DACUM method. The following items were generated:

1. Plans. 2. Prepares. 3. Conducts.

BREAKDOWN OF 'PLANS'

1. Planning.
2. Clarifies objectives of project.
3. Designs process.
4. Literature search etc.

5. Determine industry spheres.
6. Logistics/venue.
7. Overall resources.
8. Get funds/justify.
9. Recruitment.

THE SKILLS OF FACILITATOR

Items generated were:

1. Political acuity.
2. Negotiation skills.
3. Consultancy skills.
4. Analysis skills.
5. Communication skills. (a) Oral. (b) Make written judgments; (a) oral, (b) make written judgments.

BREAKDOWN OF 'POLITICAL ACUITY'

1. Look for hidden agendas/biases from (a) industry people, (b) self, (c) trade unions.
2. Boundary issues/demarcation.
3. Policy issues.
4. Identify stakeholder groups.

B-6 Focused session on facilitation

A session focusing on the processes of facilitation generated the following themes and issues. Consensus was not reached on all items.

A. Process structure

1. How structured should a process be? Is 'search' as unstructured and open as some people believe?

2. A facilitator should do anything to get things coming from participants initially, so as to get everyone contributing.

3. A facilitator should narrow the task down early so that participants can contribute early and easily. But perhaps this is only appropriate when the target task is well known, such as producing a curriculum.

4. 'Search' is too wide ranging to begin with especially for task-minded people. DACUM is rather more task oriented.

5. There are two issues related to structure: (1) How to elicit contributions from the participants, (2) The degree of direction given to the group by the facilitator.

6. On directiveness, the degree provided by the facilitator depends on philosophy/model being used.

7. The group's maturity is important to the question of how freely the facilitator allows the group to make its own directions.

B. Conflict in the group

1. How do you manage conflict? What if it becomes too destructive?

2. Let it go (in the Search Conference) until the facilitator judges it to be destructive, then assert or direct group onto a predetermined fall-back position.

3. A threat to the facilitator is posed when participants attack the process.

4. The formula for 'search' is starting as a large group, then breaking into smaller groups and is important because it undermines the power brokers and so reduces the likelihood of conflict arising.

5. How does a facilitator cope with such an attack upon the process? By re-emphasising the power of the facilitator in making process decisions compared to content decisions.

6. It is important for the facilitator to role model for participants - with honesty.

7. Early negotiation is crucial, but within the limits of the philosophy of the method and/or the facilitator.

8. The views of both employees and employers are important for curriculum development. In a 1:1 data collection exercise you can avoid putting either employee or employer on the spot with the other. In group methods, where both are present, you have to have a way of dealing with any employer-employee conflicts that may emerge, because you have an obligation to the group members as well as your purpose in collecting data for the curriculum development exercise.

C. DACUM vis-a-vis Search Conference

1. With the Search Conference, a central part of the philosophy is that the participants and the facilitator are engaged in a learning exercise - this cannot be overemphasised - indeed this should take precedence over the apparent task at hand.

2. On the other hand the DACUM style method is more task oriented with an organisational development element to its philosophy and certainly to its impact.

3. There is a fundamental difference between the Search Conference and DACUM, viz. in the Search Conference the facilitator is striving to achieve consensus with the group. In DACUM the facilitator is more concerned with having all views recorded so that they all form part of the data bank. Hence, there is a difference in the role of the facilitator.

4. It is too simplistic to observe that DACUM is task oriented because it is practical. The facilitator will quite often pursue a direction or issue which has emerged from the group just to see where it leads (even though the issue appears to have nothing/little to do with the task).

D. Group selection

The composition of the group members is important, because you have perhaps two objectives: (a) To have the right people who can give you the information you need for the curriculum development activity, (b) To involve other people who may be important in ensuring the success of the implementation of the curriculum.

E. Negotiation with the group

1. How much negotiation should the facilitator allow?

2. The facilitator must indicate at the outset which aspects are negotiable and which are not.

3. The amount of negotiation you can allow depends a lot on what external constraints you are working within i.e. do you have to produce a curriculum from this activity in three days time?

4. But also, and this is especially so with 'search' and similar philosophies, the whole Search Conference exercise is a learning process, so the facilitator must have regard to that as a main objective. As a result the facilitator must countenance a lot of negotiation if this process is seen to be fostering the learning experience (perhaps even so far as to say that the whole task at hand becomes supplemented by an entire negotiation process).

F. Planning

1. Notwithstanding the potential conflict that could occur between different interests, this can be diminished by thorough planning. The facilitator needs to talk extensively to participants/stakeholders before the group session and then has a better idea how to rationalise the diverse interests.

2. 'Search' can be seen as just the culmination of all the preliminary work.

G. Different meanings of facilitation

1. It is important to distinguish between the facilitator role in (a) just facilitating a group process and (b) facilitating and managing all the planning and preparatory work as well as the group process. Facilitation is not an unambiguous term.

H. Group direction/control

1. How much control do you give the group in determining their direction?

2. In DACUM, if there is a task to be achieved, not much. In 'search', you appear to be giving them a lot more control (in keeping with the philosophy of the method), but really you are not because of the very thorough planning and pre-interviewing you have done. Having done this the structure you build into the workshop which is dependent on your planning, inherently provides the direction.

J. Selection of group method

1. It is important for would-be facilitators to comprehend the underlying philosophy of any group method so that they can choose which philosophy they feel most suits their own personal style.

2. Selection of the group method to match the group members is also important, e.g. DACUM - trade group? Search - other group?

J. Group leadership

Leadership is not just a matter of charisma - it is also situational. That is, the leader in a group may vary depending on the particular problem being addressed.

B-7. Aspects of facilitation

The session on 'aspects of facilitation' attempted to draw out the main issues identified during the previous session. In what follows the issue is presented first in boldface, then the clarification.

1. Get participants to contribute early. Anything at all will do to begin with.

2. (a) Clarify group task with the group. (b) Clarify process with the group. (a) Briefing on general nature of task. (b) Understand nature of the process.

3. On conflict, the facilitator has to determine if too destructive. This is a complex matter of judgement in which reading verbal and non-verbal cues is important and must take account of individual differences, the needs of maintaining the group as a group, and the desired outcomes.

4. Conflict - ultimately the facilitator may have to lay down the law. A negotiated rule may have to be enforced.

Facilitator must model the behaviour expected from the group. Behaviour is exemplified by listening, in particular.

6. Facilitator should create a climate in which status is not prohibitive to participants. Need to create a climate in which it is safe to contribute.

7. Facilitator should encourage dissident viewpoints lest information is suppressed. (No further clarification.)

8. Facilitator should discourage dissidence lest the task be overlooked. This is a matter of judgement.

9. Facilitator must make clear what are the negotiables and what are not. (No further clarification.)

10. Facilitator should generate a feeling of group's ownership of process and outcomes. Not necessarily in process. This also depends upon the stage of development of the group and the task at hand.

11. Degree of structure in method and directiveness of facilitator should be tailored to group's needs and experiences. (No further clarification.)

12. Facilitator needs to have pre-determined fallback positions and strategies. There needs to be flexibility in the plan to enable the adoption of different strategies.

13. The notion of group maturity. There are two notions here, the maturity of the group to the task and the motivation of the group to follow its interests.

14. There are two dimensions to the role of the group leader: leader of the process and identifier of issues. (No further clarification).

15. The strategy for ownership of information. The strategy is to display all information openly, i.e. on butcher's paper. Be prepared to give commitment to present the information to the participants at the end, i.e. in a report. Both these strategies contribute to a sense of group ownership of the product they are shaping and encourage contributions from all participants.

16. The facilitator leadership role. This is situation specific in that the problem and the aims of participants form part of the situation. It is guided by the philosophy of the data-generation method and its structure and procedure. For example, Search Conference forms are relatively open - you help them to go where they want to go, whereas DACUM forms are more specific, more tightly bounded. Some of the rules of facilitation seem to be related to:

- timing interventions
- handling clarifications
- generating participation and releasing energy

- setting mood
- resolving conflict
- guiding decisions about when to intervene or not
- ensuring equality of participation
- valuing the contributions of others
- generating a sense of ownership of outcomes.

17. Negotiation of group process with the group is critical. This should be done both before and on the day of the workshop.

18. Facilitation has an educational role. This entails guiding the process - the facilitator owns the process, the participants own the issues, and entails helping people to learn how to get to where they want to go (and to where the facilitator wants them to go, e.g. how to express course aims). The facilitator must play a role in teaching the process itself, i.e. how to work on a problem within a Search Conference or a DACUM or Nominal Group Technique format.

19. Group facilitation is not easy. It is preferable have first-hand experience of a method before attempting it for the first time, and even then to use a co-facilitator.

B-8 Participant's evaluation of the workshop

Participants rated the stated expectations (listed in Appendix B-1) as follows. Items 1-3, 5, 11, 12 - achieved. Items 6, 9, 10, 13, and 14 - achieved in part. Items 4, 7, 8, 15-17 - not achieved.

The following evaluative comments were given at the close of the workshop.

1. Retention of a feeling of confusion about facilitation, but helpful.

2. What will be the future benefits of this kind of exercise? Can the outcomes be transmitted to others?

3. The workshop was valuable because it has provided a basis upon which to modify or streamline individual techniques. Frustration at not being able to

achieve all that the organisers hoped for.

4. Served well to clarify techniques in use. 'Search' method has a useful 'futures' perspective. Feeling of confusion at the start about goals of the workshop.

5. An enjoyable experience. Daunted by complexity of studying this area, but high expectations about the contribution that can be made by doing so.

6. Useful for self-learning and encouragement to tr some variations in future work. Expression of concern about packaging these methods without proper regard for applicability and expertise considerations.

7. Useful for self-learning. Feel better able to conduct activities requiring facilitation. The group was diverse and the methods discussed were divers.

8. Useful to meet other practitioners. Limitations were evident for making contributions. Organisation of the workshop should have permitted more planning time for the sessions applying the methods. The group should have been broadened to include other 'experts'. Not enough 'power' emanated from the workshop to meet all expectations. Co-facilitator notion needs pursuing as a useful professional development strategy.

9. Workshop was poorly organised and conducted. The goals of the workshop were not clear and facilitation was inappropriately handled.

10. Enjoyable experience because group members were articulate and criticism was handled in a positive, productive and sensitive manner.

11. Useful data provided on facilitation role. Expression of concern that all participants' expectations were not met adequately.

APPENDIX C

FACILITATORS' VALUE ORIENTATIONS AND SOCIAL RULES IN DETAIL

This appendix gives the detailed results of the content analysis of facilitators' 'personal constructs' (revealing 'value orientations' to facilitation) and 'social rules' (giving 'guides for action'). In presenting these sets of data we have tried to adhere, as closely as possible, to the exact words which respondents used. In some cases, by adding comments in parentheses or notes, we have sought to place certain phrases in context. The reader wishing to re-examine the overall weights of emphasis given by respondents to particular value orientations or social rules may refer back to Tables 4.1 and 4.2. The headings used below are based on those extracted from the data during the content analysis. Some headings were later combined for ease of presentation of the data.

C-1. Orientation to curriculum research workshops

Rules for making and breaking the rules of curriculum research workshops depend on the curriculum research methods being used and on the situation in which they are being applied, i.e. on the dynamics of the seminar itself. Some of these rules would be developed prior to the seminar, e.g. in conjunction with the group leaders, teachers and industry experts. If possible, have a theoretical framework from which to draw the rules which will guide how you operate in the group.

> NOTE: Each curriculum research workshop reflects, in effect, a theory about how curriculum development should proceed. Search Conferences aimed at curriculum development consider the educational needs of participants by examining how the future appears to be altering the work and social environment. DACUM in its traditional form focusses more on the 'here and now' of work in an occupation by concentrating on what work is required to be done. From this is deduced the required knowledge/skills (cognitive and psychomotor) and personal qualities or attitudes. DACUM can be modified to include at the end a session on changes anticipated within the industry. In practice, DACUM workshops often approach the analysis of work functions on the basis of what would be done ideally (Foster, 1984).

For example, if you are running a group exploration of an issue (or want to find the issues), be able to communicate to the group the 'rules' of conducting an exploration, such as to roam broadly around the topic looking as much for

what questions to ask as for solutions. This form of group exploration requires the facilitator to strike a balance between the broad level (e.g. the work and social context) and the specific level (e.g. the knowledge and skills required by the student) and not to lose people by staying too long at either level during an exploratory phase.

The design and conduct of curriculum research workshops requires good planning and preparation skills and the ability to organise the workshop successfully. The facilitator requires intelligence and a wide knowledge of group processes. He/she should be well educated and up to date, have an open view of education and be able to use a range of teaching techniques successfully. The facilitator should be an expert in the field who constantly monitors the literature and other developments.

> NOTE: As it stands, this statement implies 'expert' in the occupational field. We believe the intended meaning here was 'expert in the method being used and in curriculum group process methods in general'.

The facilitator's authority derives from skills and ability in running the workshop. The facilitator's job is to attend to the process (the means by which the aims of the curriculum research workshop are defined by the group), rather than the content (the group's output).

> NOTE: This comment applies more to situations in which the facilitator is assisting a group to solve their problem. However, when the facilitator's purpose is to extract from a workshop group, specific information about work performed in an occupation, the focus would be on the content and on what the best process is to achieve the required content.

C-2. The initial steps in getting started on planning

Good facilitation requires skill in getting information from the group. To achieve this needs good preparatory work. It is essential to know the background to all relevant issues and to have a general idea of the different backgrounds, interests, motivations (and factions) among the participants and therefore an idea of what information may come from the group and what tensions might arise. Plan the workshop to elicit the required information. It may be appropriate to involve senior staff in segments of the workshop (although, in general, the rule of starting and finishing with the same participants is advisable).

Check the stated and 'hidden agendas' and aims of those commissioning the project and clarify the project objectives.

> NOTE: 'Hidden agendas' refer to those plans and motives that remain hidden but which can exert a powerful effect, especially on the assessment of recommendations.

Research the issues beforehand in order to design the program, e.g. talk to experts before the seminar and gather information by networking, i.e. following through leads with other people knowledgeable about the area.

> NOTE: Try to find out what the central issues are at the structural level, e.g. legal requirements, trade union concerns such as demarcation issues, and the issues at the student level, e.g. is mobility within the occupation important?

The facilitator requires the ability to liaise effectively with a variety of groups. Check the previous history of the project. Doing your homework is vital to success in eliciting relevant information from the group.

Planning events/procedures. A central concern in planning a workshop program, is to fit the program to the aims of the curriculum research project. Have a clear structure or structures planned, but feel free to modify them in the light of the group's needs or to vary the activities to allow change of pace. Allow for free interaction and free-ranging conversations and data collection as the group matures to the task. Include segments whereby members of the group provide feedback to others (so that the pool of information generated is available to the whole group), and give opportunity for discussion and interaction. Include activities which cater for group maintenance (i.e. allow the group to work as an enthusiastic and united group and allow participants to contribute to the process by which particular tasks can be successfully completed).

> NOTE: These rules are not usually applied when using the Nominal Group Technique which requires that only issues relevant to the seminar may be addressed.

In general, flexibility in design and implementation of the workshop is a central rule in curriculum research workshops.

For Search Conferences, design the agenda carefully. Although the agenda/process for each Search Conference has a similar format, each should be tailor-made to a particular group. Time constraints may apply and require

the compression of two or more steps. Give an indication of timing on each stage since many participants are time-oriented.

> NOTE: According to one experienced Search Conference practitioner, you will be able to talk them into extending the time limit. The participants will become engrossed and not want to stop exactly on time.

Plan Search Conferences to allow time at the beginning to pay careful attention to the expectations of the participants.

For a DACUM workshop have the workshop follow a good rhythm usually fou ·ain tasks per day, not lots of bits and pieces.

When using the Nominal Group Technique approach the workshop as a problem-solving session.

Choosing participants. For curriculum research workshops, draw together a group of persons who are respected for their individual knowledge and ability. They must be both leaders in their field and good workers. Find out what each participant can offer in terms of specialist knowledge and interest in the area. In choosing participants for a Search Conference consider:

(a) what the workshop is about;

(b) why use it rather than some other strategy;

(c) who the stakeholders are;

(d) can the participants be kept below 30 in total;

(e) can a sense of commitment be anticipated from each participant?

> NOTE: Commitment is important to the success of the Search Conference approach since the method, in its 'classic' form, generates 'action groups' who will follow through on specific issues. These action groups must have a sense of commitment to the work they will be doing.

(f) what should the balance of stakeholders be within the participant group, e.g. how many teachers and how many industry representatives?

> NOTE: Stakeholders are people with a stake in the outcome (e.g. industry and students) and in its implementation (e.g. educationalists).

(g) Make sure participants are telephoned beforehand and that the invitation is confirmed by letter.

> NOTE: Other issues include whether or not such persons are likely to be favourably disposed towards development of a course and, the level at which they have involvement, for example, managers may well have very little feeling for what actually happens on the shop floor (Foster, 1984).

Prepare participants by orienting them to the planned process and setting achievable goals. Be clear on what you are trying to do. Set realistic goals for self and the group. Where appropriate, provide background information to the participants before the workshop.

> NOTE: This does not apply to the 'classic' form of the Search Conference in which participants define the problem themselves, rather than have experts define it for them.

Explain the purpose and goals of the workshop, preferably in writing and repeat this at the start of the workshop. Explain any alternative action which might be used to achieve the workshop goals, if you think this is necessary. In particular, state what is open to change and what is not.

> NOTE: Any important limits imposed may need to be negotiated with the group.

Again, note that in order to make this statement it may be necessary to consult with participants individually prior to the workshop. Develop contracts with participants in the workshop in relation to their responsibilities and clearly outline the outcomes expected from the workshop.

It can be usefui to provide an introductory training session at the start of the workshop which simulates key aspects of the task which participants will be asked to perform in order to ensure that all participants have the necessary skills and understanding and to generate a 'group' feeling. The facilitator may need to teach the group the skills it needs and to be a good persuader of others.

During the workshop, when specific problems emerge which need to be solved, the facilitator must make the problem-solving task very clear, preferably writing down the task for all to see. Here the facilitator can play a key role in helping people to 'see' where they are going.

For Search Conferences, develop a group awareness of the conference as a narrowing-in process based on sharing values i.e. consider the world or Australia, narrow to a subsystem (e.g. an industry) then to particular issues and constraints of that subsystem, then narrow to particular action plans for that subsystem.

> NOTE: Values are conceptions of what is desirable in the view of the participants (not the facilitator).

If the facilitator thinks that the group has missed something important, he/she may ask the group to think again.

> NOTE: However, caution is needed since it may be that the facilitator is the one who is missing the point. The facilitator should not express strong opinions about values overlooked. The group may not hold such views.

Participants in a Search Conference must have a conceptual knowledge of the process so that their learning during the conference can be enhanced. Therefore, the process of 'searching' and its philosophy should be explained early in the program.

Stress that the Search Conference method is based on a philosophy and perception of the world as possessing a turbulent environment with goals which must change frequently but values which are more long lasting, and that planning is based on shared and agreed values. (The Search Conference does not rely on a notion that the participants are necessarily 'experts'.)

Choosing and setting up a venue for use. Make sure the venue is 'right' (i.e. includes appropriate workshop space and a separate area for socialising). Ensure that people will be comfortable. Allow for the necessary facilities, such as refreshments and clerical/typing support services, and resources (see resource list for each seminar method).

Visit the venue before you finalise your choice. Arrange the room to maximise group sharing and group unity, i.e. put chairs in a semi-circle, rather than in rows facing the front. For large groups such as in a big Search Conference, put tables around the room to seat 6 to 8 people. On the day of the seminar, be early and arrange the room appropriately.

C-3. The workshop: implementation of a well-managed process

Introduction. This section describes the processes for implementing curriculum research workshops. Personal aspects of the facilitator style are covered in Section C-4.

The facilitator must manage and deliver the process successfully. This is achieved by the facilitator offering knowledge of and paying attention to the process in a relaxed manner and without expressing strong opinions, by modelling good facilitative techniques (i.e leading by example) and being interested in retaining power and control.

The facilitator's job is to ensure that everyone has had the opportunity to contribute and respond to the ideas examined; it is not to be the guardian of the content. Stress that the facilitator's role is to direct the process not control the answers (i.e. the process by which the answers are achieved).

Explain aims/purpose/roles/tasks. Start the workshop in a low-key manner, introduce self and others briefly, explain your role, thank people for coming and say why the workshop is being held (and who wanted/authorised it).

As mentioned, explain the aims and purposes of the workshop at the outset. Be brief and clear. Never speak for more than a few minutes at a time unless there are overwhelming reasons to do so. Attend closely at the beginning to the group's needs, especially the need to get to know each other and to resolve uncertainty about the process. Clarify for participants where they are going, what sort of product they are aiming for, e.g. for a DACUM workshop the product may be a list of main duties performed in the industry, a list of the tasks necessary to perform the main duties, and a set of aims, and performance outcomes etc. for the educational program.

> NOTE: An example of a main duty in fitting and machining is 'operate a lathe'.

Everyone should know what they are supposed to be doing at each stage. If necessary repeat key instructions, and preferably write them down. Be open and honest and encourage the group to be so too. Consult at intervals with the group as to goals and change them if considered necessary. Outline the task and keep at it until the group matures (i.e. understands the procedure). Encourage the group to identify solutions which suit them. Encourage self-direction and responsibility. In Search Conferences do not use a key speaker (expert) since this is counter-productive to the process. If the 'boss'

wants to talk, program him/her just to say welcome. Discourage value judgements in the early discussion parts of a Search Conference.

> NOTE: Value judgements are essentially personal opinions which use as their justification a value position rather than empirical proof, that is, proof which is able to be demonstrated.

Be skilled in direction setting and intervention. Successfully steer the group to the tasks required or back to the task (when digressions occur or are introduced). Time interventions appropriately. Achieve the task with efficiency of effort.

Ensure participation. A key to good facilitation is to ensure that all participants contribute to the workshop. Elicit responses from silent members. Make comments that are supportive and encouraging. Try to acknowledge all input as contributing to the total effort. Value all opinions equally - forget status and position. Watch carefully to see that people are not being cut off by other group members or are being excluded from contributing. Draw people out. Make it easy for them to contribute. Accept all comments initially (regardless of quality) so that a fair hearing of suggestions occurs. Allow equal time for comment. While trying to involve everyone be careful not to put anyone on the spot. Try to ensure equal participation in an unobtrusive fashion. Work toward stimulating effective group interaction and participation.

Work toward group cohesion. Promote cohesion and keep the group united but active. A way of working toward group responsibility and the achievement of creative solutions is to encourage self-direction and responsibility by the group. Encourage the group to identify solutions which suit them. Accept procedures determined by the group and, in particular, adopt procedures which meet the emerging needs of the group.

> NOTE: If emergent needs are not responded to sensitively and perceptively, group momentum can be stifled.

Be prepared to change direction if the group becomes bogged down and to liaise with the group to achieve the goals or tasks which are required. Allow the group to grow and to set its own pace. Enable others to be creatively involved. Be prepared to step aside if the group dynamics are flowing and relevant. Do not tie the discussion down or let anyone else tie the discussion down. (Note the previous comments on allowing diversions, if needed, to

mainta group cohesion.) It is especially important that the facilitator does not take sides or vote. (This is especially important when using the Nominal Group Technique.) When using small group sessions within the workshop, it is helpful in promoting group cohesion, allaying anxiety and pooling knowledge to get the groups to report to each other at various times. Encourage self-direction and responsibility.

Define the issues. Grasp the major issues quickly. With Search Conferences, when writing down individual issues, stress that the issue must be a matter the participant can do something about or be identified clearly as outside my/our control, since the identification of such issues (constraints) may be useful. Promote a common format or order of proceeding, e.g. (1) what is the issue? (2) why is it important? Encourage a sense of ongoing commitment. When identifying or prioritising issues in a Search Conference regardless of whether the issues are identified by individuals or small groups, the facilitator must promote group ownership and agreement. So, rather than you identifying, clustering and prioritising issues, let the plenary (i.e. the whole group) do these tasks. But, if you have done your homework and feel that the group has missed or is avoiding certain issues, say so and ask why.

Seek clarification. Ask questions for clarification. If unsure, summarise what you understand about what has been said and seek confirmation as to its accuracy. If you spot an anomaly, hand it back to the group for clarification. Do the same if anyone asks a question which the group should answer. When writing down other people's ideas do not paraphrase, unless you have checked most carefully with the originator of the idea on the accuracy of your version.

Provide motivation and support. The aim of the facilitator is to successfully sustain the interest and involvement of the group. (That is, create the conditions for group members to become involved in the task and sustain the group dynamic.) This can be achieved in part by establishing a positive climate and leading by generating enthusiasm (see note below). Spend time at the beginning of the workshop setting the tone e.g. stating the importance of the task, setting a positive and supportive climate, getting acquainted with participants and clarifying their (and your) expectations. Lead by generating enthusiasm (see note below). Encourage a sense of pride in, and ownership of, the product of the group interaction. (State how the group's output will be

used and how important it will be.)

In addition to creating a supportive atmosphere in which individual and group inputs are valued, the facilitator who is gentle with people and caring, can put a group at ease. This encourages participation, shows sensitivity to individual and group needs, is flexibly responsive to group needs, and avoids alienating people (and avoids emotional blocks to communication).

> NOTE: A number of elements of facilitation style are helpful in destroying emotional blocks to communication and forestalling conflict: the valuing of contributions, a gentle and caring approach, the establishment of an appreciative, supportive, positive atmosphere, and showing respect for the views of participants on how the process can be adjusted to achieve the task.

It is important not to force opinions on others and to keep task and people needs balanced. That is, not let the task predominate over people or people's needs to detract from the task. This requires skill in the facilitator to appreciate a whole range of individual and task needs and the ability to identify social as well as technical problems. Showing concern for people means not pushing the group too hard and valuing people's feelings over achieving the task. The facilitator needs to be able to handle people's feelings well. This might entail, if necessary, the ability to counsel members of the group (discreetly and tactfully.)

As noted above, it is important to be supportive and not directive and to provide regular encouragement and positive feedback to the group. Moreover, the facilitator should say as little as possible, striving for clarity. Demonstrate confidence but do not be dominant. Transmit positive, open expectations but try not to colour the outcome with one's own views, i.e. guard against transmitting one's expectations as to what the outcome will be. The facilitator may have a perspective on the issue under consideration but should not reveal it.

> NOTE: This applies to situations where the facilitator's purpose is only to help a group solve their problem.

Instead transmit enthusiasm that there will be a successful outcome.

> NOTE: Being honest and authentic are higher order values - recognise a failure for what it is.

When the facilitator is not a task expert, he/she should display confidence

about the process, but be open minded about the task content (listening carefully to the views of the expert participants).

Keep the momentum going. Try to keep the momentum going. Sometimes this means focussing on one or two individuals. Watch to see if others are expressing dissent non-verbally with what is being said. Check that the group is happy about what has been said. Tolerate silences but be prepared to challenge them with ideas, if needed.

Maintain focus. Keep the focus clear by relating all new tasks to previous ones answering 'what for' questions as they arise. Be task oriented and persistent in gaining task information. This requires having a good concept of what the task is. But value peoples feelings over the achievement of the task. In a task group be efficient, i.e. don't appear to spend time on matters unrelated to the task, e.g. climate-setting activities should be task related.

Choosing and briefing group leaders. Choose group leaders according to the needs of the seminar.

> NOTE: As mentioned earlier in Table 1.1 it is recommended that the group select the leaders, especially in the Search Conference process. The role of the group leaders needs to be explained. Brief group leaders carefully according to the nature of the task, stressing the importance of obtaining participation, democratically, from the group.

Get group leaders to meet frequently during the session. Familarise group leaders and seminar coordinators with: (1) The area under consideration, (2) The procedures for running the seminar, (3) The broad areas in which information might be obtained, and (4) The timetable. Brief participants about any standing orders (e.g. rules such as barring criticism during a 'brainstorming' session. Prior sharing of information is important here.

Share the leadership role where appropriate. Give opportunity for other participants to take the leadership role where appropriate. But do not allow anyone who is less skilled than yourself in facilitating the task to take over from you, unless it is planned.

> NOTE: See comments in Section C-4. on the personal qualities of the facilitator.

Work on an equal footing. When the seminar breaks up into workgroups,

move around the different groups and work on the task with participants.

Use consensus, reflection whenever possible or appropriate. Decisions of vital importance to the group and participants are to be reached by consensus. Minor decisions may be reached by any other means. Statements from the group can be condensed by group consensus. Whenever you change the task or the pace, allow opportunity for clarification and or dissent.

Summarise at key points. Summarise the process at key transition points. Set up process checks (i.e. check participants' perceptions of how they are feeling about the process and whether they wish it to be modified). Get clear what the participants expect and want. Establish if you have their commitment to proceed.

Get feedback. Provide opportunities for and encourage feedback from participants about the product emerging from the workshop, and the process. At all stages of the workshop, keep referring back to the previous group and plenary reports (Search Conference) and point out areas of consistency and inconsistency. As a facilitator in a Search Conference, your primary role is to ensure that agreed shared values permeate action plans. Check out perceptions of other members before acting on the basis of any one of their interventions. Allow diversions to program only by consensus.

Achieve closure. Closure must be ensured.

> NOTE: The term 'closure' means, in essence, giving participants a sense of having achieved something, and a clear view of what action will follow from the meeting.

Get closure on a workshop by reviewing the expectations and summarising the ongoing action. Thank the participants and praise where praise is due.

Value achievement. Leave people with a sense of accomplishment. Get on with the job, don't digress. Meet goals and deadlines. Make sure some concrete action is decided. This requires being good at detail.

Control time. Be punctual, particularly in the initial stages. Start and finish on time. Refine the task to manageable proportions. Avoid long reportbacks by keeping speakers to a prescribed time limit. (This is based on the reality that industry representatives may not be able to return to an unfinished seminar the next day, due to commitments). Some facilitators feel

that the finish time should be open ended; that the group should be informed that the seminar will be over when the task is completed.

> NOTE: This is a controversial point: some facilitators stress the need for an agreed start and finish time. Hence it is important to get the job done in the time available. In some cases the facilitator establishes the time frame and withdraws when appropriate.

Allow time for refreshment breaks and time for socialising. Have frequent breaks, especially at critical periods in the workshop (when participants become tired or look like becoming bogged down or too tense). Have light lunches and allow time for socialising.

Other considerations when implementing Search Conferences

Search Conferences: A day workshop for 30 participants could well require two weeks of preparation such as (a) interviewing each of the major stakeholders (whether a seminar participant or not), (b) finding out the issues which will arise in the workshop, (c) finding out what is happening at present, (d) finding out the problems and constraints and, (e) explaining the workshop process and beginning to share values, philosophy and to gain initial commitment.

In Search Conferences it is important to search out values, not opinions. Stress that the difference of the Search Conference approach from traditional planning is that looking for solutions to problems in the 'here and now' flounders when the environment changes. Because the external environment impacts upon individuals and organisations. It is important in Search Conferences, that participants go through a process of learning about the nature of the change in the external environment. Since the 'search' process is an attempt to maximise the individual's former learning this must follow the natural direction that the group wishes to pursue, given that participants have gathered voluntarily for the purpose of making change occur. Learning in groups is qualitatively different from learning as an isolated individual.

For a Search Conference you will need butcher's paper, masking tape, easels or boards on which to put the butcher's paper for ease of writing and walls to put the sheets on when finished (so that they are in plain view of participants), marking pens and, handouts on (a) Writing Individual Issues and (b) Action Planning.

Begin all Search Conference workshops with a review of participants 'expectations'. On butcher's paper write down (with the help of one or two scribes) the responses to: (a) Why are you here? (b) What do you expect from the workshop? Include your own expectation but give the impression, in a subtle way, of being part of the group. Promote or introduce some mild humour by smiling at the weakest joke, using repartee or quick one-liners - to settle the group down a bit. Do not prolong 'expectations' unduly but do tolerate some silences. Do not summarise - just leave the sheets on the wall and proceed saying 'Well, that's quite a job' or 'Okay - let's do it!' etc. Let the expectation be that the expectation will be met.

When forming action or planning groups in Search Conferences, base such groups on the issues identified and prioritised by the whole group and not on your perceptions. When forming groups (a) allow for voluntary participation, (b) expect a firm commitment to ongoing action, (c) expect the group participants to have volunteered because each can do something about the issue and, (d) allow 'floaters', i.e. people who want to be in more than one group (in reality most settle down somewhere).

Mix participants or leave in same subgroups according to content, purposes and nature of groups and according to the way that the workshop develops. Allow the group to mature to the task. No casual participants should be permitted.

When 'crystal ball' gazing in small groups with respect to 'desirable futures' (Search Conferences): (a) point out that this is the essence of arriving at an agreed, shared set of values, (b) that no constraints are to be allowed to limit the range of ideas, (c) that the group must reach consensus, (d) that there is no time limit (devise strategies for allowing more time to one or more groups), (e) restrict the group size to 6 to 8 persons, (f) make sure the group has a scribe but don't appoint a chairperson and, (g) don't yourself join any group but float from group to group - ask probing questions.

> NOTE: Perhaps 'crystal ball' gazing is somewhat misleading - the purpose of the 'desirable futures' phase is to obtain participants views of what they would like to see happen.

When 'brainstorming' in Search Conferences, tolerate silences but be prepared to break them by prompting the group with (1) possible discussion areas not yet

considered, e.g. education, politics, lifestyle, morality, (2) do not set time limits, (3) encourage ideas to come 'fast and furious' (ideally have a group leader and two scribes to write down the flow of ideas), (4) do not allow argument, except for clarification of ideas - rather encourage the opposite point of view or a qualification and write that down too, (5) write what is said in full, except use key words or your own interpretation if the speaker rambles on (6) check with the speaker (at least by eye contact) that you have written the idea down correctly, (7) hear everything - if you have missed one idea out of three coming at once, stop the group and find out what was missed and write that down, make people feel valued, (8) do not allow speeches - tell the group that this is a rule. (Ways of dealing with speech makers include avoiding eye-contact, turning your back, not writing anything, looking impatient, shuffling and yawning but listen nevertheless and write a few keywords to let the person know the idea is valued and has not been lost, (9) help the person who is having difficulty in crystallizing a thought by being patient, quietening the room, suggesting a keyword (this is an art, practise it by listening and then writing a few words to summarise the idea, then do an eye-contact check with the speaker), (10) do not yourself agree or disagree, (11) keep it moving but be prepared to stop when they've had enough. Note that 'brainstorming' is an icebreaker type of exercise. It can do wonders for group cohesiveness and good humour. It introduces ideas which small groups will consider in depth. What is required is a comprehensive treatment of the topic and brief, clear wordings.

Follow up output. With Search Conferences, plan the follow up. The action groups must be encouraged in the ownership of their plans until the issue is settled. (Note that 'ownership' equates with commitment.) Are the members of the action group sufficiently satisfied with the action plan to be committed to its implementation? This will almost certainly require further meetings - or at least the establishment of some form of network. As a facilitator, you must follow up to ensure the issue is finalised. But you should not be the prime mover in such an exercise.

Document and distribute all agreements, meetings etc. With Search Conferences ensure that the work which has been completed, including all the butcher's paper sheets and action plans, is typed and returned to the group. Follow up the output of group with further research as needed. Determine the social consequences of proposed changes.

Use the initial workshop data to set up a 'window' on reality and validate this by other means. Ensure that information is complete and not 'blind sided'.

Report-back sessions: Search Conferences. Gain acceptance of action plans prepared by interest groups in the plenary (combined) group sessions. Use a common format for setting out an action plan: viz. (a) what is the issue, (b) why is it important and (c) how can something be done? (Seek a range of alternative strategies in priority order). Encourage interest groups to test their plans on another interest group or to brainstorm other groups (asking 'what would you do about this issue?'). When the action group reports back to the plenary session, encourage the assembly to take the plan apart constructively and send the group away again. As a facilitator you are now much firmer and more ruthless.

C-4. Important aspects of the facilitator's personal style

Running in parallel with the themes outlined above for planning and implementing workshops are a number of important elements in facilitation. These are summarised below.

Communication skills. The facilitator needs a high level of skill in communicating effectively. This requires, among other things, the ability to have an open mind and to listen carefully and actively. Listen carefully to the exact words and nuances people use. Listen to the 'music' (meaning) behind the words. Show that you are trying to follow what people are saying and that you value what they are saying. Maintain eye contact with the person who is speaking. Be sensitive to the verbal and non-verbal cues from the group.

> NOTE: This is where good preparatory work on the background issues can help the facilitator to understand what is going on behind the scenes and, therefore, to help resolve conflicts.

Make the relevance of activities clear in relation to the overall task.

> NOTE: Skill in clear or stimulating visual presentation of ideas through words or diagrams is most important. One good model or diagram can focus a group's efforts (Crombie, 1984).

Avoid jargon. Use the appropriate language for the situation. Be clear and

concise. Do not waffle. Grasp the major issues quickly. Have an open mind.

Be tolerant, respectful and appreciative. Acknowledge the views expressed by participants even though they may not be personally acceptable. Be democratic. Value people for themselves and for where they are. Avoid put-downs. (See Section C-5. on the destructive aspects of facilitation.) Indicate that you respect their expertise. Avoid value judgements or allowing others to make value judgements.

> NOTE: This statement applies to situations in which objective comments are sought about what is performed in an occupation as in a DACUM workshop. Note that the Search Conference is all about value judgements - about people deciding what they will value when making changes.

Respect the expertise of participants individually and collectively. Be prepared to invest time in dealing with emotive issues so that they do not waste even more time later. Allow anyone to intervene at any time and acknowledge their concern especially when you do not immediately act on it. Indicate your willingness to be interrupted. Indicate your appreciation of individual's contributions, but not by stereotyped remarks or by rewarding the contributions of one or two members only - show people are valued.

Be casual, relaxed, open and sincere. The facilitator should be casual, relaxed, low key and concerned to put group members at ease. This requires an engaging manner and the ability to allow activities to be fun.

> NOTE: Diversions can be a way of maintaining the group as a group.

It is important to be open to others. Answer all questions frankly. Say what you are doing and why you are doing it. Be seen as fair minded, i.e. to seek other views without passing judgment on them. Formality should be kept to a minimum. Light humour can be effective. Own, (be responsible for) your ideas and feelings. Remember people's names and seek social contact with participants before or after the workshop. Be honest and sincere in interactions with group members (do not work behind a facade).

Transmit empathy. Be firm but empathic.

> NOTE: That is, try to see things from the other's perspective: to stand in the other's shoes.

Treat all as equals. Try to blend in with the group (including style of dress). Do not be seen as aloof. Try to appear human.

Be friendly and supportive. Be friendly, supportive, encouraging and warmly responsive to people. Be attentive.

Adopt a quiet, confident and non-defensive manner. Be quiet (i.e. not dominant or authoritarian), and project a confident manner and a sense of direction but do so with a certain humility. Believe in what you are doing as a worthwhile activity.

Be fair. Value contributions equally. Show appreciation of contributions. Be seen as fair minded and as valuing the opportunity to help industry and the student to get what they want.

Be flexible: Adjust the process and the rules to the group and be alert to individual, group and organisational needs. During the workshop, adjust the process to the aims of the meeting and to the needs and pace of the group. Allow regular time out from the task work to examine the process (by which the task is being achieved) and correct any problems. Value the group's efforts in this regard. Since there may be conflict about the process itself, allow questioning of the process. Bend the rules or change the direction or style of operation according to the situation.

> NOTE: There are, however, limits to the extent that a workshop format can be altered. The DACUM and Nominal Group Techniques (and the latter especially), provide a more sharply defined process than the Search Conference.

Adapting the group process while it is in motion may involve liaising with group members and requires the facilitator to be sensitive to the mood or feeling within the group. The facilitator needs to have the ability to handle feelings and confrontation well (e.g. by defusing potentially tense confrontations between participants and thus destroying emotional roadblocks to communication).

Be alert to and satisfy individual needs including the needs of the learner. Be sensitive to, perceptive of, concerned with, and flexibly responsive to, group needs and to organisational needs and constraints including the wider needs in TAFE.

Be aware of the importance of the individual's feelings and group emotional climate and pick up group issues and suggestions. Feelings are an important source of information. Conflict is O.K. and is to be seen as an opportunity for group development. (Conflict can be an important indicator of an underlying problem, which, if addressed tactfully, can allow the group to become productive). Pick up important issues raised by the group.

Work toward shared understanding. Work toward a clear, shared understanding with the group. In Search Conferences, ensure that the 'action plans' developed later in the conference, are consistent with the 'values' agreed upon early in the conference. Where appropriate, use group consensus as a motivating force. This may require teaching the group the skills needed to perform the task and that the facilitator is a good persuader of others.

Show faith in the group. Trust people to take responsibility for their own learning. Communicate, verbally and non-verbally, very positive messages about the outcome. Try to inspire interest and create a feeling of energy.

Use control when appropriate. Deal with dissent or resistance immediately it surfaces - listen especially carefully as there may be a misunderstanding which you can clear up or you may be doing something which needs to be put right immediately. Be sensitive to conflict situations and be prepared to intervene. Notice when tensions are starting to arise and defuse them, e.g. lighten the situation by using humour to or by introducing a break in proceedings. Just acknowledging the tensions may sometimes be sufficient. Suppress 'should be' notions to concentrate on 'what is'. If you don't like what is happening, say so - everyone has the right to be heard. Be prepared to confront (gently and persuasively) disruptive individuals with the consequences of their actions but do not do so half heartedly or tentatively. Be prepared to ask someone to leave if all else fails but only do this in extreme circumstances.

C-5 Counter productive aspects of facilitation

The data from which the value themes underlying the facilitation process were extracted (respondents' 'personal constructs') provided a view of the destructive aspects of facilitation. These are summarised below.

Power-tripping. Overbearing. Tendency to be too dominating, too directive. Autocratic. Sits in judgement of the views expressed or indicates that alternative ways of going about the task are a poor choice. Overrides individual participant's needs. Adopts a god-like pose. Contemptuous of people. Tries to impress the group with his/her knowledge. Assumes legitimacy without earning it. Pushes the group to his or her solutions or proposes all solutions or pushes on with own preoccupations. Sticks rigidly to own ideas and goals without consideration of the views of others. Inclined to stick to prearranged program come what may. Pushes the group too hard. Sets unrealistic goals. Continues to dominate the group by specifying task and process. Allows personal preferences to override appropriate facilitation methods. Works behind a facade.

Poor organisation. Displays no obvious organisation skills. Lacks planning and problem-solving ability. Neglects to provide appropriate facilities and resources for participants. Is insensitive to organisation's constraints. Late for sessions. Does not get the job done. Does not adequately investigate background. Does not clearly identify the nature of the occupational work and the task overlaps.

Does not provide clear direction. Conducts unsuccessful orientation sessions. Is unclear on what he/she is trying to do. Lacks a clear focus. Gives confusing instructions. Does not set goals or clarify project outcomes and obligations. Allows aimless discussion. Allows the process to continue unmonitored. Allows the group to specialise on too narrow a task and ignores issues. Lacks confidence.

Poor communications skills. Uses excessive jargon. Has poor or a limited range of communications skills. Displays weak, non-empathic qualities.

Failure to motivate groups. Fails to get support from group members. Is not able to get people to get on with the job. Generates ineffective group interaction. Is not able to establish group cooperation to achieve the set tasks. Creates the feeling of work being a chore. Discourages individual participation. Does not create a positive climate. Is not responsive to questions from participants. Does not seek to establish that participants have understood the responses to their questions (from the group or the facilitator). Won't accept the opinions of others. Cannot stimulate the group to become

involved or sustain that involvement. Allows participants to become restless or dissatisfied. Allows reporting to go on and on. Makes comments that are negative or critical. Engenders group hostility or resistance to learning. Cannot lead, only obstructs the group. Breaks the flow of the group. Bluffs it out. Does not encourage examination of the process. Tends to draw conclusions too quickly. Has narrow, fixed views.

Lack of sensitivity, insight, care and consideration of people and their feelings. Places overemphasis on the task and does not see the people dimension. Leaves people wondering what is wrong with themselves. Handles feelings poorly or ignores them. Is not concerned with either person or task. Values achieving the task over people's feelings. Displays insensitivity to the needs of the group. Not aware of how they rub people up the wrong way. Lacks care for people. Cuts people down or does not tune people in. Believes that the task is everything. Does not satisfy people's needs. Is not sensitive to cues. Does not listen to the music behind the words. Lacks respect for participants. Has an 'I'm O.K. you're not O.K.' attitude. Does not remember names. Only knows how to keep people on the right track.

Other negative aspects of facilitation. Lets bias influence action. Does not look for quality thinking. Bases action plans on commitment, not idealism. Does not allow for social change consequences. Not concerned with efficiency. Treats the workshop as a job. Is concerned to satisfy the group alone (i.e. blinkered). Glosses over problems raised by the process. Finds confronting individuals difficult. Unable to trust people to learn. Fails to achieve the aims of the meeting due to lack of caring for people. Decides the goals for the group and keeps people to those goals (i.e. sticks to the planned activities regardless of the needs of the group). Allows the task to always dominate. Continues involvement and becomes bound by commitments. Does not validate the data or solutions offered. Can misjudge through anxiety. Maintains the timetable of the seminar. Does not force the group to come to a decision. Avoids conflicts. Does not complete the task. Cuts short discussions to get something on paper. Concentrates on getting information from the best individuals. Does not adequately involve those who will be affected. Gets participation from a limited number of people.

APPENDIX D

THEORETICAL APPENDIX: THE CONCEPTS OF VALUES AND SOCIAL RULES

D-1. Social rules

The concept of social rules assumes that people are self-monitoring agents who pursue ends by using social rules as guides for action within specific situations. These rules are patterned by, and reflect, the expectations of others. Rules serve as reasons, or mistaken reasons for behaviour and are used to negotiate or test the definitions of social situations and to interpret the meanings or intentions of others. An important property of rules is that they can be made, renegotiated or broken.

The notion that much of social life was rule governed but that people engaged in self-monitored rule use, received increased attention in the 1960s and early 1970s (Shwayder, 1965; Goffman, 1956, 1967, 1969; Cicourel, 1973; Garfinkel, 1967; Harre and Secord, 1972; Marsh et al. 1978). In a context of the increasing bureaucratization of work and life, the concept was taken up in an attempt to correct for the limited view of social life presented by positivist and behaviourist theories in psychology and the kind of oversocialized view of the person as constrained, even determined, by social structure. Wrong (1974) also criticised this view. Rules are the means by which people attempt to chart their way around obstacles in their social world.

The problem which advocates of the concept of social rules sought to address was the need to understand how individuals interpret their world and act upon it. Harre and Secord (1972:169) have argued, in essence, that actors in everyday life tend to explain mechanical events by cause and human action by reason. Their concern with the limitations of positivist methods to reveal an actor's interpretive schemes and feelings, plans and motives for acting, was set in opposition to stimulus-response theory in psychology and structuralist and functionalist theories in sociology and anthropology which view the person as acted upon or as pushed into behaviour which reproduces social structures. Harre and Secord (1972:17) proposed that:

> The similarities in people's behaviour do not necessarily derive from similarities in the stimuli to which they are subjected but from shared meanings and community accepted conventions and rules.

Harre and Secord saw people as self-governing and rule-making agents whose acts occur in a social framework constructed out of meanings, rather than as objects controlled by external forces (1972:297). Intentional action, they saw, as action according to rule (1972:49). The appeal of this position was its rejection of the structuralist bind: if peoples actions are determined by social structure, how is social change, to which all history attests, brought about?

However, in attempting to describe the rules concept as it has been developed in the literature one is inclined to agree with Robinson (1977:73) who states: 'The term rules is one of those polymorphous items with messy edges'. However, he adds that attempts at over-precision in the formulation of rules must be avoided, reflecting Shwayder's point that 'rules need not be formulated as rules and are of many kinds' (1965:234). Nevertheless, Harre and Secord in 1972 gave the general form for a rule as: 'In order to achieve A (the act) do a(1).....a(n) the actions when S (the occasion or situation) occurs'. This formulation reflects the normative nature of occasions or situations and accommodates the use of rules in an attempt to achieve a redefinition of a situation.

Collett (1977:9) names various kinds of rules: legal rules, moral and religious rules, linguistic rules, social norms, rules of etiquette, rules of games and rules of institiutions and also recipes, instructions, and formulae.

Marsh et al, (1978) state that in analysing action the best authorities are the actors themselves. Their meanings and their rules have priority, though not absolute hegemony (domination), in the scientific analysis of the phenomena. The technique of taking the actor's accounts provides the basis 'from which one's initial hypothesis as to what is happening must be taken' (Marsh et al. 1978:22). They regard as most important the isolation of the set of rules for interpretation and action which are operative in the situation (Marsh et al. 1978:22).

Are rules causes?

The concept of social rules is an emotive one: it implies that: social life and action can be understood if one knows the underlying rule structure. Harre (1979) states that

> the potent preformed templates or formal causes of the

> structure of standard action-sequences are to be called rules. They must pre-exist the action and must be known, though not necessarily explicitly to all for whom the action-pattern is socially potent as a ceremony accomplishing an act.

Despite statements that rules are not 'causes' (Pratt, 1978) the implication is that, by knowing the 'rules' one can know how behaviour is determined, (that is, in relation to an actor's plans, rules are like causes). The concept is useful because it provides a means for actors to explain how they test the waters (try out plans and rules) and swim with or against the tide (accept or reject group or social rules and norms). The concept provides a starting point for research which seeks to enter the subjective world of the actor.

Rules guide actions

Rules guide actions (Shwayder, 1965) because the actor is aware of the rule and what it prescribes and being able to recognise the occasion for its application (Harre and Secord, 1972:181). However, 'action may conform to a rule, even if the agent does not himself conform to the rule' (Shwayder, 1965:255). Harre and Secord (1972:176) take up this point when they refer to the actor making reference to them in consciously monitoring and controlling performance (Harre and Secord, 1972:176). Rules are situation specific. 'It is always the particular circumstances in question which bring the rule into force' (Shwayder, 1965:262). And, it must be added that the ability of the actor to read how the situation is being defined, say, by curriculum research workshop participants, is crucial for successful use of social rules. Shwayder (1965) refers to the importance of 'scanning, searching or exploring'. The property of rules to guide action in the exploration and testing of hypotheses about the social world was a reason why the concept was linked with Kelly's (1955) theory of personal constructs which was also concerned with hypothesis testing behaviour.

Rules generate rules

Harre and Secord (1972) and Harre (1977) believe that to understand action it is often necessary to make reference to a second order system of rules used in selecting rules for acting (Harre and Secord, 1972:176). This notion was expanded in Harre's 1977 paper in which he introduces the concept of style in relation to rule use:

> A second order of monitoring is required in which the details of

> the performance which is now being carried out, including even its end as conceived by the actor, are recorded. Because we engage in this kind of monitoring we have the information necessary to exercise second order control, and because we satisfy this requirement we can perform according to a certain style (1977:33).

A connection seems to exist between what Harre (1977) refers to as style and what Goffman (1967) calls self-image. According to Goffman, 'when an individual becomes involved in the maintenance of a rule, he tends also to become committed to a particular image of self' (1967:50).

Marsh (1982) is also interested in relating rule following to self-image. In reviewing his study of football crowd behaviour, Marsh (1982) proposed a three-tiered structure of rules. He states that 'the highest order of rules within this structure are almost isomorphic with values' (1982:233). At this level he identified male football fans' rules shaped by masculine ideas of 'virtue, honour and reputation'. These third-level rules were 'one-off, non-generalisable rules' which strongly reflected the dominant imperatives of the value framework: they were the genesis of first and second order rules which applied to established situations and routinised contexts and included rules of distortion by which fans after the game sought to enlarge their reputations by reinterpreting their actions as spectators (1982:235-236).

Rules reflect expectations

Rules are patterned by and reflect the expectations of others: 'one conforms to a rule when the reason for acting is that there is a rule present in the expectations of others regarding the behaviour' (Shwayder, 1965:253). Rules both legitimate and warrant expectations (Shwayder, 1965:245). Rules are systems of expectations (Shwayder, 1965:252). But not all rules reflect expectations. The rules which make up a unique plan can not be said to reflect the expectations of others since the plan is unique but the originator may, of course, fulfil expectations by originating a novel plan. An actor's awareness of the existence of an expectation can come to light when the wrong rule is used, resulting in a discord. Thus, the possibility exists, as Shwayder (1965) notes, for the correction of behaviour. But this depends on the individual being sensitive enough to recognise the discord. It follows that rules provide standards against which behaviour can be judged. Because rules give positive reasons for acting in specific ways, their operation tends to regularise behaviour. The concept can, therefore, be turned into a 'tool' for exploring those expectations and

regularities. Rules may be given as reasons or justifications stated after the action (Cicourel, 1973:73) as when an actor may explain actions as 'that's the rule' Shwayder (1965:245), though as noted previously, an actor may conform to a rule without such a reason.

Rules can be made and broken.

An important property of rules is that they can be made, followed, varied (renegotiated) or broken. Shwayder (1965) notes that rules can include statements of what not to violate. So, they can be expressed in terms of 'do not...' The condition of breach is a 'fundamental requirement of a rule' (Collett, 1977:4). According to Pratt this condition means that behaviour which is rule guided cannot be understood in terms of causal explanations 'because rules can be broken but laws cannot' (Pratt, 1978:46).

The results of rule breaking were demonstrated by Garfinkel (1967:47). In a process now known as Garfinkelling (a process of deliberately breaking social rules in order to show the underlying rule structure), he instructed a group of students to spend fifteen to sixty minutes in their homes acting out the assumption that they were boarders, conducting themselves in a circumspect and polite fashion, avoiding getting personal, using formal address and speaking only when spoken to: in short departing from the pattern of behaviour associated with being a son or a daughter and following the rules of being a boarder. A problem with this approach is that the adopted behaviour of 'boarder' was probably a distortion of how a real boarder would behave. Students' reports of the experiment revealed parental astonishment, shock, bewilderment, anxiety, embarrassment and anger: the boarder rule following brought the interactions to a grinding stop. This study demonstrates what happens when rule following does not meet expectations.

Rules as reasons underlying conformative behaviour

In his discussion of rules, Shwayder (1965) describes conformative behaviour as behaviour which happens to conform to a rules though he acknowledges that conformative action can also be in violation of rules (1965:238). 'In conforming to a rule one acts with a certain kind of reason or mistaken reason' (Shwayder,1965:233):

> 'The agent's reason will be or imply that certain others would be entitled to expect him to act as the does. The rule will come

out as that which one is aware of as a reason; and the rule, in standard cases, is to be explained in terms of warranted expectations.

Shwayder adds that action is 'a kind of behaviour involving the factor of purpose' (1965). Since an actor's purpose may be to change the conformative behaviour of others, such as when a group facilitator attempts to get a group to expand its horizon. The scope of rules as 'reasons' extends beyond mere conformative behaviour because rules can be used to trigger non-conformative behaviour.

Restrictive and enabling rules

Shwayder distinguishes rules which control already extant modes of behaviour (restrictive rules which may be inhibitions or licenses or prescriptions) and those rules by which people are enabled to enlarge their scope of action and engage in new kinds of behaviour (enabling rules) (Shwayder, 1965:242). Thus, the concept accommodates creativity which Pratt (1978:45) describes as 'separating elements from their old context and bringing them into new relationships'. This definition applies to rules themselves. For example, a person can evolve new rules for working with other people.

Rules and practices.

Shwayder distinguishes rules from the practices which those rules underlie because alternative rules may underlie the same practice (Shwayder, 1965:242). He distinguishes between rules which do form practices (constitutive rules of chess, for example) and those which do not constitute practices (non-constitutive rules). Lindsey (1977:160-1) argues that constitutive rules do not explain behaviour. They merely lay down criteria for identifying and reidentifying events of a particular type, e.g. checkmate in chess. Shwayder also distinguishes between rules which underlie a practice and generalisations about the practice (1965:242): 'Generalisations are the creatures of language, whilst rules are not'; 'generalisations "hold" whilst rules "apply" (Shwayder, 1965). Practices, he states, are spheres of activity engaged in in certain customary ways (1965). He distinguishes rules from the formulations or statements of a rule. Within the realm of rules, he distinguishes rules which must be formulated in advance, from rules which need not be (1965:240).

The rules concept fits into the conception of the individual as executing

intentions via plans and strategies. The design of a curriculum research workshop can be viewed as a strategy for realising the facilitator's intention to generate the data necessary for an effective technical education program. Indeed, Harre and Secord see plans as a special case of rule following where the rule is one which one sets for oneself (1972:164). They distinguish between 'rules of strategy' and 'rules of tactics' (1972:182). Strategies are like master plans containing sets of alternatives and the conditions under which they may be followed (Garfinkel, 1967:246), and tactics are the means by which a strategy may be implemented.

Summary of the rules concept

Social rules can be said to possess a number of properties important to the analysis at hand: they possess a history and are future directed; they illuminate context and are distillations of knowledge. Rules possess a history grounded in the facilitator's trial and error learning, abstracted from past action, successful or otherwise. The property of social rules to carry an individual's history forward as 'guides for action' oriented toward the realisation of possibilities or goals suits them for analysis of the dynamic aspects of social processes such as the curriculum research workshop facilitator role.

D-2. Personal constructs

The view of the person as a rule maker and a rule follower (Harre and Secord, 1972), is compatible with the view of the person as an experimenter and hypothesis tester or 'scientist', around which Kelly (1955) developed his theory of personal constructs. Personal constructs are the schemes within which other's behaviours are interpreted, evaluated and anticipated. Before explaining the concept in more detail, the main ideas underlying the theory will be summarised.

Kelly's (1955) theory is a theory about cognitive processes, learning, self-interest and choice, and reflects an individualist perspective on the material concerns of life:

> A person lives his life by reaching out for what comes next and the only channels he has for reaching are the personal constructs he is able to place upon what may actually be happening (1955:228).

As with Harre and Secord's (1972) ethogenic approach, Kelly's (1955) personal

construct theory was also an attempt, within an interactionalist and phenomenological tradition which study action from the viewpoint of the meaning which actions have for the people, to expand the limited view of social behaviour which arose from the positivist tradition in scientific methodology which 'has been based upon the principle that the only reliable knowledge of any field of phenomena reduces to knowledge of particular instances of patterns of sensation' (Harre, 1981:3). The phenomenological position stresses that the individual reacts to the world in terms of his or her unique perception of it, no matter how transformed or distorted this perception may be. Theories or notions about group facilitation processes must, in this view, be formulated to take account of the way that group interaction is consciously perceived by the individual: what matters, is how the individual construes his or her world.

At the base of Kelly's teleological theory (people's actions are shaped by their goals) is the view that human thinking and acting is shaped by anticipation of future events. In other words, the person checks how much sense he/she has made of the world by seeing how well this 'sense' enables anticipation of the world (Bannister and Fransella, 1971:20).

Kelly saw the person as being in a 'constant state of change with each new experience modifying in some way a relatively stable, self-constructed personalized world' (Salmon, 1976:1). Behaviour was an experiment and in behaving a person asked a question of his or her world, with the aim of attempting to gain prediction and control over events (Kelly, 1955). Thus, Kelly asserts that 'all present interpretations of the universe are subject to revision or replacement' (Hjelle and Zeigler, 1976:214). Kelly's theory is an extension of Kurt Lewin's field theory which was also concerned with how the person perceives the social field (life space) and attaches importance (valence) to elements within it (Cartwright, 1952). Kelly (1955) puts the person into the position of a helmsman who is attempting to chart a course through the obstacles of the social world, using as the main navigational aid a set of 'personal constructs' which the person seeks to test with every turn of the helm. Kelly's helmsman or helmswoman, is essentially in pursuit of truth but this truth is not necessarily what pleases or satisfies in straightforward terms of desires and needs, but rather what is convincing in terms of its inexorable reality. In Kelly's view we pursue 'truth' by a process of formulating and testing hypotheses in the tangible world of actual experience. If a hypothesis

is confirmed it will usually be retained even if we are displeased about what we have found out. If a hypothesis is disconfirmed by facts, we will usually change or discard it regardless of how popular it was with us.

The idea that personal constructs and rules are guides for action means that the two conceptual schemes contain a degree of interpenetration, since they share some common ground. Constructs are our own unique creations; categories of thought that grow out of the interpretations we place on events. Constructs serve as references axes for locating events 'including ones that have not yet occurred' (Millon, 1973:213). Constructs help us make sense of our world.

Constructs are inherently bipolar and dichotomous in nature and represent the basic contrast between groups (e.g. hot--cold has two dichotomous poles). When the contrast is imposed, it serves both to distinguish between elements and to group them (Kelly, 1955). The way in which two elements are construed as similar or alike is called the construct or similarity pole of the dichotomy and the way in which they are contrasted with a third element is called the contrast pole of the construct dimension (Hjelle and Zeigler, 1976:219). Constructs therefore comprise two poles or ends which are necessarily in contrast, or opposite to each other. The dichotomised construct is inferred from judgments of the type that, given three elements, A, B and C; A and B are judged similar to each other and opposite to C. 'A construct is not understood unless one grasps the two construct poles that form it, one of which may often be unrecognized by the construing person' (Southwell and Merbaum, 1964:371) or, might be added, suppressed by the individual.

Examples of personal constructs include 'refined versus vulgar' and 'good versus bad'. The construct of good versus bad represents the kind of contrast which one perceives. Some constructs embrace others. For example, if you like traditional jazz but not modern jazz, the construct 'trad. jazz--mod. jazz', in which the construct pole 'trad. jazz' is positively evaluated and 'mod. jazz' is negatively evaluated, may be subsumed under the construct 'good jazz--bad jazz', which again can be subsumed under the construct 'music--noise'. Here, the person's preference for 'trad. jazz' leads to this form of jazz being 'good' and equated with 'music', whereas, 'mod. jazz' being 'bad' could be construed as noise. Note that constructs, in Kelly's view, 'are imposed upon events, not abstracted from them' (Millon, 1973:213). This appears to say that constructs

can be misrepresentations of reality which, when tested can be brought more closely into line with reality.

There is a striking parallel between Bourdieu's (1977) concept of habitus and Kelly's (1955) theory of personal constructs. Both address action which is future directed. To Kelly, the person is a scientist testing hypotheses in the realisation of goals. For Bourdieu, the habitus is concerned with the 'estimation of chances which assumes the transformation of past effect (i.e. action) into the expected objective' (i.e. goal) (1977:76). The habitus is not merely 'a random series of dispositions but operates according to a relatively coherent logic, what Bourdieu calls the logic of practice' (Garnham and Williams, 1980:213). However this logic of practice:

> must be operated unconsciously and since it cannot be explicitly inculcated must be both an improvised logic in the sense of working with simple categorical distinctions and also flexible so that it can be applied as the structuring principle of practice across a wide range of situations. Thus the logic of practice operates with such simple dichotomous distinctions as high/low, inside/outside, near/far, male/female, good,/bad, black/white, rare/common, distinguished/vulgar, etc (Garnham and Williams:1980:213)

The use of personal constructs theory in the study of the facilitator role in curriculum research and development workshops

Personal constructs are posited as mental representations at a level of generalisation greater than social rules. Their bi-polar nature, e.g. hot--cold, good--bad, safe--risky, carry affect cues: 'bad' cues dissatisfaction, for example. By eliciting an actor's personal constructs, together with his or her social rules, a broader view of the rule following process, including the affect dimension of social action should be obtained. Personal constructs should reveal affect (emotion) by giving a view of the mood which is communicated by following certain rules. For example, a mood of appreciation and enthusiasm for the efforts of a person could be transmitted by rules such as showing keen interest, using appreciation and animation during listening and asking positive questions. Here the non-verbal channels would be used in a conscious, rule-guided way to convey and create the mood of appreciation and excitement and therefore support for the efforts of the other person. The transmission of cues via non-verbal channels would seem to be an important aspect of the skilled facilitator's performance.

Personal constructs hold promise to open up to analysis the style in which rules are used. In line with Harre's (1977) observation that style is associated with 'second order' monitoring of rule use, it was assumed that facilitator's personal constructs would illuminate this dimension of their work in curriculum research workshops. The arrangement of constructs into bi-polar contrasts in which one pole is positively evaluated and the other is negatively evaluated, suggested the potential of personal constructs to reveal the value themes held by advisers.

The procedure which Kelly (1955) developed to elicit a persons 'constructs' is the 'Role Construct Repertory Test' (Rep-test). The rep-test 'requires the individual to systematically compare his personal interpretations of the roles of significant people' (Monte, 1977:454), and aims to elicit the relationships for a person between sets of constructs in order to reveal the construct patterning to the person and the therapist. These comparisons 'then may be analysed impressionistically or objectively with the tools of correlation and factor analysis' (Monte, 1977:455). In this study, impressionistic methods of analysis were adopted.

D-3. Values

For the study of the facilitator role, values were conceptualised as overarching principles of relevance (Barth, 1966) which function as the central assumptions underlying individual or communal conceptions of what is desirable and as guiding choices between alternatives (Bronowski, 1973). They are 'the implicit ideologies of a society - political, social or religious' (Tajfel, 1972:101). Values appear to be general, pervasive and resistant to change and they serve as the genesis of action (Marsh, 1982). That is, merely knowing the set of values which an individual has, does not necessarily enable predictions to be made as the how the person might react in different situations.

Values cannot be reduced to the individual. They are defined in relation to social situations which may call a socially negative value, such as the taking of human life in action during war, for example. Hence, value systems appear to possess a contradictory character. Since values are social constructions, they are influenced by historical contexts and, therefore, represent only what actors conceive as desirable at particular moments of historical development. Moreover, values, as ideological constructions, represent distortions of reality

(Harris, 1982:46). Bourdieu's concept of 'habitus' could be used to show that the output of curriculum research workshops are confined to the class position of both the facilitator and the group. The question could be posed: When middle class professionals define a working class educational program, what do they miss and what class interests are they, perhaps unknowingly, entrenching?

This study regards values as abstractions removed from the level of daily routine which are difficult to measure. Lemert (1979:93) states that 'value is a function of subjective meaning which is not directly observable'. In this study, values were regarded as operating within the individual, at a level of abstraction greater than personal constructs. Personal constructs were conceived as a person's ways of translating values into forms which were more directly applicable to actions.

APPENDIX E

EXAMPLE OF 'PERSONAL CONSTRUCTS' DATA

In the following table, the constructs elicited from the 'WAY ALIKE' portion of the role-repertory grid (Appendix A) are shown first. The constructs elicited from the 'WAY DIFFERENT' portion of the repertory-grid are on the right hand side of the slash sign.

Honest in interaction with group members / works behind a facade.

Intervenes appropriately to keep on task / lets the group get sidetracked.

Autocratic / democratic.

Sensitive to group and organisational needs and constraints / insensitive to organisational constraints.

Doesn't listen to the music behind the words / sensitive to the music behind the words.

Encourages self direction and responsibility / decides goals for group and keeps people to them.

Values people for where they are / tells people where they should be.

Not interested in retaining power and control / doesn't like to give up power and control.

Does homework in terms of knowledge of the group / bluffs it out.

Tends to let people overtake task / keeps task and people needs balanced and met.

Engenders group hostility and resistance to learning / provides supportive atmosphere.

Values group's attention to process / doesn't encourage examination of process.

Sticks rigidly to own ideas and goals / flexible according to group needs.

Unable to trust people to learn / trusts people to take responsibility for own learning.

Tends to waffle / stays tuned-in and on the track.

Tends to talk down to people / treats people as equal.

Tends to work towards a clear, shared understanding / tends to draw conclusions too quickly.

Makes it easy for people to contribute / dominates discussion.

Pushes the group too hard, too quickly / gives the group the right to set pace.

Encourages creative solutions / pushes the group to his or her solutions.
